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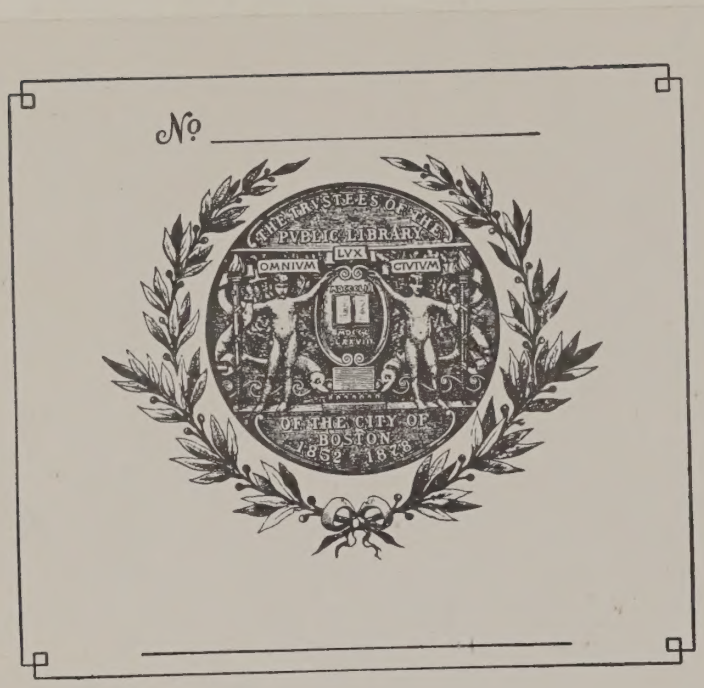
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ERRATA.

Page 10, col. ii, line 14 from bottom. For "Cleveland" and "Harrison" read "Voorhies" and "Allen," respectively.

Page 13, col. ii, line 37. For "Creste" read "Geste."

Page 96, col. iii, line 38 from bottom. For "stands" read "does not stand." Line 6 from bottom. For "any" read "my."

Page 119, col. ii, line 8. For "twelve" read "eleven."

Page 204, col. iii, line 28 from bottom. For "James" read "John." Line 27 from bottom. For "Johns Hopkins" read "University of Pennsylvania."

Page 330, col. ii, line 36 from bottom. For "limestone" read "sandstone."

Page 364, col. i, line 43. For "Antoine" read "Antholne."

Page 430, col. iii, lines 37 and 33 from bottom. For "detch" and "teton" read "letch."

Page 470, col. iii, line 22 from bottom. For "12" read "10."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 3, 1889.

The Week.

THE Boston *Herald* makes the following pregnant remarks upon a step which all accounts seem to agree Gen. Harrison is likely to take:

"It was not the fact that President Hayes went into office under the cloud of a contested title that injured him with the country. The American people were intelligent enough to see that, whatever might be thought of the circumstances attending his election, it was the duty of Mr. Hayes to take the Presidency. What really injured him was the fact that certain men were engaged in questionable doings to elect him to that position, and that he conferred offices upon them all. The lesson ought not to be lost now. Mr. John Wanamaker may be a well-intentioned and a pious man, but his claim to office comes solely from the fact that he collected a large amount of money, which was used, as millions of men believe, corruptly, to promote Gen. Harrison's election to the Presidency. For that reason Gen. Harrison should not distinguish Mr. Wanamaker by any Executive favors."

No public man ever despised a caution of this kind with impunity; for, after the days of triumph and excitement, there come the years of reflection, when the sort of memory he will leave behind becomes his chief concern. It has been the fashion in the Republican party ever since 1876 to sneer at the purists and the scrupulous people who examine too curiously the way success is won—a fashion which is always the legacy of a great war, but is in politics the very gate of hell. Poor Mr. Hayes fell a victim to it; President Arthur gloried in it at the Dorsey dinner; it would have given New York to Blaine if O'Brien had not stolen the money; it has this year found this same O'Brien guilty, not of bribery, but of misappropriating the bribery fund; and it is now making even good men clamorous for a handsome reward to the man who supplied Dudley and Quay with most of the sinews of war in the last election. The devil of it is, too—for this is, under the circumstances, the appropriate phrase—that when you object, your attention is directed to his Sunday-schools and his Bible-classes, the very things which, under the circumstances, his fellow-Christians should try to hide.

Col. Dudley, the Treasurer of the Republican National Committee, was in Philadelphia last week, visiting John Wanamaker in a quiet way, and was apparently much annoyed when the reporters found him out. He has gone to Washington, it is said, to settle down to "the practice of the law." The conduct of all these three worthies, Wanamaker, Quay, and Dudley, has something very queer about it. For instance, good men, such as they are said to be, who have been engaged in an almost religious enterprise, such as the election of Gen. Harrison is said to have been, are usually ready, even eager, when they have been intrusted with large sums of money, to render an account to the public. All promoters of religious, philanthropic, and educational enterprises are very particular about this; but we do not believe wild horses could extract an accounting from these three gentlemen. They will even sacrifice their reputation as Christian workers sooner than show their books or vouchers. Then take Dudley's case. His dearest earthly possession—his good name—is savagely assailed by bad men in his own State, Indiana, and they are at this moment trying to get him indicted by the Grand Jury. One of them has been printing and circulating a letter purporting to be Mr. Dudley's, recommending bribery on a great scale, and has been offering Mr. Dudley for many weeks $1,000 to come home to Indiana, and swear that the letter was not his. All really good men we have ever known would, under such circumstances, be on the ground, looking after their character, and meeting their enemies in the gate, and putting them to rout. But Col. Dudley is not on the ground; in fact, he has not gone near his "home" since the election, and has left his good name wholly in "the hands of his friends." He goes about a good deal, but Indiana has apparently no attractions for him. And yet he is the close friend of John Wanamaker, and John Wanamaker has a Sunday-school, and is, after Col. Elliott F. Shepard, probably the most religious Republican in the world.

The dinner of the Massachusetts Tariff Reform League was a grand reunion of the character, talent, and public spirit of the Bay State, graced by the presence or the well-expressed sympathy of the highest dignitaries of the nation, including the President, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives. The letter of President Cleveland was a high-toned and high-principled communication, showing that the sting of defeat was no longer in his mind. It was received, as it deserved to be, with an enthusiasm that is seldom called out from an assemblage embracing such men as President Eliot, Prof. Peabody, W. L. Putnam, Edward Atkinson, T. W. Higginson, W. E. Russell, and the other leaders of New England thought who were present. The gathering, the speeches and letters, and the spirit displayed, are a sure augury that the battle for the right of every man to the fruits of his own labor is going on with all the more earnestness by reason of the temporary reverse met in the recent election.

Senator Morrill of Vermont contributes to the *Forum* an article asking the question: "Is Union with Canada Desirable?" His answer is that commercial union would not be desirable, because it would mean free trade in fish, lumber, garden-vegetables, salt, and several other things, to the great detriment of our fishermen, lumbermen, gardeners, salt-boilers, etc.; but that political union on the whole would be desirable, because it would open a great field for our enterprise in developing the fine natural resources of the countries north of us. "Their very extensive wheat-fields," he says, "as a supplement to our own, would prove a welcome guarantee against any possible future deficiencies of American crops. Their bituminous coal would be convenient to our Eastern States, and there might be an equal demand for our abundant anthracite in their wintry climate. Certainly the cost would be considerably cheapened. Their wild lands would be a timely and almost boundless reinforcement of our forest and timber-lands." And then what would become of our fishermen? Well, according to the Senator, they would disappear from the face of things, but the Canadian fisheries and fishermen would be ours, so that we should be none the worse off; "the difference would be chiefly noted among our future throngs of sailors by their slightly provincial accent." The owners of the Gloucester fleet are well acquainted with this accent, fortunately, and would be able to man their boats with Canadians as well after political union as before.

The argument of the Senator does not strike us as a very sound one on either protectionist or free-trade grounds. If commercial union would be disastrous to our fishing, lumbering, gardening, and salt industries, political union would be equally so; and it may be seriously asked whether it is right to sacrifice these established industries for a perhaps visionary scheme of development to be promoted by American capital and enterprise. What kind of enterprise? Naturally we might look forward to some development of manufacturing enterprise in that quarter. Not so; for the Senator tells us gravely, in his argument against commercial union, that "we may as well dismiss all golden dreams about a market in Canada for manufactures, as we already know that, since they adopted a protective tariff, the manufactures established in Canada have already produced a glut in their own contracted market." We were somewhat amazed at this statement from so eminent an authority in the world of commerce and finance, and were led by curiosity to examine the imports of Canada as reported in the volume of 'Commercial Relations for 1885-6,' published by our State Department. In the list of American manufactures imported by Canada in 1886, under thirty-three headings are found upwards of $15,000,000 of our manufactures. There are 126 headings of American manufactures in the list where the amounts imported were less than $100,000 each. The total imports of Canada in 1886 were $100,000,000, of which we supplied $44,000,000, Great Britain $40,000,000, and the rest of the world $16,000,000.

The London *Statist* of December 15 makes the important announcement that the scientific examinations of the tin-ore deposits of the Harney Peak district, Dakota Territory, and the metallurgical tests of the same made at the works of Thos. Bolitho & Sons in

Cornwall, have demonstrated the existence of tin in the aforesaid district in paying quantity and quality. The rock tested at the Bolitho works yielded 62.67 pounds of pure metal per ton. Other assays yielded about the same results. A commission was sent out from London last August to examine the deposits. One of them, Mr. Seeton Karr, M. P., says: "I am confident that millions of tons of the same ore can be obtained from your various mining claims." Another, Prof. Vincent, says that these claims show "superficially" more than a million tons. The deposits extend over an area of about thirty square miles. We were somewhat dismayed upon reading these facts in the *Statist*, lest the existence of tin in paying quantities in this country should lead to putting a duty on the article, which is now on the free list, thus making it more difficult and costly than before for the American people to get tin. If we escape this infliction, this punishment for the offence of having a good tin mine, we shall probably owe our immunity to the fact that the Harney Peak deposits belong to an English company.

We are glad to see a letter from Mr. Jefferson, taking himself out of the list of actors who are trying to get Congressional protection from the wicked foreigners who come over here, act better than we do, and get the American playgoers' money away from us. He says he thinks the move "unwise," which is speaking very mildly. It is a move in every way discreditable to American actors. A man pursuing an intellectual calling, who whines and calls for the police because another man's work—no matter what his nationality—is more enjoyed by the public than his is, is, to speak plainly, an object both of ridicule and contempt. A "move" for the protection of the public from bad actors would be far better worthy of Congressional attention than a "move" to protect bad actors from foreign competition. We do not know how this could be arranged, but the subject is worth the study of jurists. A great deal too much good American money now goes into the pockets of that most worthless class of the community, men who take to the stage for a living without any qualification for the actor's profession beyond ability to learn "lines" by heart. If there is to be legislation about the stage, the act ought to contain a stirring section about this description of drones. Their audacity in asking for a monopoly of their wretched trade deserves a rebuke.

There are rumors—we trust, for the sake of the national good name, unfounded—that a publisher proposes to rob Mr. Bryce in broad daylight by printing a pirated edition of his American Commonwealth.' There would be no moral difference between doing this and knocking Mr. Bryce down on Broadway and taking his watch and money. Whatever may be said in defence of robbing an author for the purpose of procuring for yourself cheap mental improvement, there is not a word to be said in defence of robbing an author for the purpose of selling his property for your pecuniary gain. If Mr. Bryce should be the victim of an operation of this sort, owing to his having spent years of hard labor in producing a noble book on American institutions and manners—a book which does honor to the American people no less than to the author—it would be a truly horrible illustration of the need of an international copyright law. It would be barbarous and ungrateful as well as dishonest to cheat Mr. Bryce. We must, therefore, trust that our leading pirates will respect his property, even if they care nothing for his interests. If they pillage him, he will have to revise numerous passages in his second edition.

One of the earliest and most pressing subjects to engage the attention of the Legislature will be the condition of the prisoners in the penitentiaries and reformatories of this State. We have now, or shall soon have, to face an annual deficit of more than a million dollars. The State prison expenses for the year 1887 were $1,628,523, and the earnings $1,111,823. Hereafter it will be all outlay and no income. But that is not the worst of it. Under the system of enforced idleness, the character of the prisoners is becoming worse. Since the tonic of labor has been taken away from them, they have been suffering a degradation from their own low moral standard. They are now maintained at a double expense to society. They are a pecuniary expense, as already shown, and they are a still greater expense from the deterioration of character of which idleness is the proverbial parent. The philanthropist may rightly add that it is an act of cruelty to the prisoner to deprive him of occupation of body and mind, while shut up in the walls of a dungeon. Every argument which can be advanced to the head or the heart pleads for the productive employment of prisoners while serving out their terms of confinement.

Although New York is a rich State, a fresh tax of a million dollars all at once must set a good many people thinking. This is what we shall now have to face. It is the penalty, the fit penalty, for allowing a handful of walking-delegates to override the dictates of common sense and the experience of all nations and all ages. In the illogical report of Mr. Carroll D. Wright, Labor Commissioner of the United States, on this question, in which he shifted his own ground, and took the extreme position of the walking-delegates, it appeared from the statistics that the whole amount of prison labor was only 52-100 of 1 per cent. of the mechanical labor of the country. The amount of competition between prison labor and other labor is therefore imperceptible, except to the senses of a walking-delegate. If reason were to be allowed to enter into the discussion at all, it would be easy to show that the greater the competition the stronger the argument for keeping the prisoners at work; for if prison labor were 50 per cent. of all the labor in the country, instead of being one-half of 1 per cent., it would be impossible for honest labor to support the burden. If one-half of all the people were in jails and penitentiaries, the other half could not support the prisoners and themselves also. It would become necessary to resort to the most efficient and productive forms of prison labor. The highest statesmanship would be that which should get the most work out of the convicts. Our present system is, therefore, confessedly a system of taxing the many for the supposed benefit of the few. The fewer there are in the latter category, the more reason for taxing the former, because the moment that prison labor should become really important, that moment we should all agree that it ought to be made as productive as possible.

Under the heading, "A Big Bonus for a Big Fraud," the Cleveland *Leader* vigorously assails a bill in the House of Representatives appropriating $10,000 for the completion and publication of Consul Schoenhof's report on Technical Education in Europe. This the *Leader* understands to be a bill to pay Mr. Schoenhof "$10,000, in addition to his salary, for running about and collecting free-trade statistics for the use of Democratic committees in the late campaign." The truth is simply that a work entirely disconnected from politics, and of exceeding value to our own industries, and most of all to our manufacturing industries, undertaken by Mr. Schoenhof by direction of the State Department, is only half finished. The first volume, relating to technical schools in France, has been published, and has been received with marked approval by educators in this country. The other portion, embracing the schools of Germany, Switzerland, and Austria, is in an unfinished state, and the question is whether a work of so much importance, upon which a good deal of labor has been expended, shall be abandoned for no better reason than that the person employed to prepare it differs in politics from the majority of the Senate; for it is to the Senate that the *Leader* makes its appeal to refuse the appropriation. The only question fit to be considered is whether this work on technical schools is a good one, and whether it is worth the money. There is no such work accessible to American students at the present time. The older one prepared by a Royal Commission in England several years ago was never accessible here, and if it were, it would be of little use now, being out of date.

The annual report of the Superintendent of Education in South Carolina is most encouraging for the future of the State. Perhaps nowhere else in the South was there originally more prejudice against the public-school system; but the Superintendent now declares himself "sure that a very large majority of our citizens are in perfect sympathy with the efforts of the State to train every child," and that "an intelligent interest grows everywhere." During the past year there has been an increase of 162 in the number of schools, and of 18,417 in the number of pupils enrolled, while the towns are vying with each other in the character of the school buildings which they are erecting. This spirit is not confined to the

larger places, but smaller towns and country districts the State over are rapidly putting their money into modern school-houses. All that is now needed to perfect the school system is a larger fund, and this can be secured by the enactment of a law which will allow school districts to supplement the general tax by a local levy, after the custom in Northern States.

The most hopeful feature about these reports of Southern school superintendents is the spirit of independence which they breathe, the glow of pride in the system of public education which the people are building up by their own efforts. "Best of all," said Superintendent Russell of Florida, in concluding one of his reports, "the people of Florida are doing it all themselves, without any aid from any outside source." This is the spirit which the people of the South most needed to have developed when they were suffering from the poverty imposed by the war, but which mistaken charity would have suppressed. "We do not need book-learning so much as training in independence and self-reliance," said the *Southern Christian Advocate*, the organ of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, published at Charleston, in opposing the passage of the Blair bill two years ago. "We can get on," it added, "for many years to come with a modicum of schooling, if only our people advance surely in economy, thrift, and in the intelligent appreciation of the real benefits of common-school education. But this advancement depends on self-help and self-denial."

Prohibition has experienced a set-back in Georgia. On the 30th of September, 1887, the sale of whiskey was authorized in only thirty-eight of the 138 counties in the State, while on the 30th of September, 1888, the number of "wet" counties had increased to sixty-one, and since that date three more have been added to the list. The Macon *Telegraph* does not believe that these figures indicate a decline in the temperance sentiment in Georgia, but attributes the change for the worse largely to the rashness and bad judgment of the prohibition leaders in forcing the issue into politics by attempting to organize a third party. Northern Prohibitionists have been quite hopeful that their party would secure a foothold in the South, but the present indications are decidedly against it.

The correspondence between Mayor Hewitt and Mr. Vanderbilt as President of the Harlem Railroad Company, touching the rails on the Fourth Avenue Line, is a very pleasing and unusual incident in municipal politics. Mr. Hewitt some time ago told a melancholy tale of his having been employed years ago, as an iron-master, to furnish rails for street railroads of such shape as to prevent their being used by ordinary vehicles, or, in other words, as to cause the general public the greatest possible amount of inconvenience and the company the least possible amount of wear and tear. In asking Mr. Vanderbilt to redress this original wrong, and lay down new and more convenient rails, as a return for permission to use electric motors on his street-cars, Mr. Hewitt, therefore, spoke with what Gen. Boulanger would call *pleine connaissance de cause*. Mr. Vanderbilt, on his part, in admitting the reasonableness of his request, and promising to accede to it, spoke in accents which few will recognize as those of a corporation, and which the Jacob Sharp school of moralists would undoubtedly attribute to a Molly-Coddle or Miss Nancy. It is pleasant to have such strange and unfamiliar voices herald the coming of the new year. The coming in of electricity as a motor in the streets is probably the best news "our colleague the Horse" has heard since the close of the war. It will deliver vast numbers of his fellows from lives of shame and sorrow, and turn them over to nobler cares and responsibilities.

The "woman question" is making at last a stir in France, all the greater for the length of time it has been staved off. It is only within two or three years that there has been a decided rising against conventual education—a custom so long established that "leaving the convent" has become in French a synonym for finishing a girl's education. At this moment the public is occupied with the attempts of women to enter the learned professions. The Parisians were startled a few weeks ago by the application of a girl in Brussels, who had taken her degree in law, for admission to the bar, which the court denied. More recently, in Paris, a very pretty and very clever Mlle. Schultze read a thesis, when graduating at the Medical School, on the practice of medicine by women. She had been a very brilliant student, and her thesis was very able, and was listened to with great interest by a crowded audience. Dr. Charcot, famed for his experiments in hypnotism, answered her, denying most of her conclusions, but complimenting her highly, in thoroughly French fashion, on her beauty. The public is, however, apparently on her side. Dr. Charcot complained that women doctors did not want to serve in the lower grades of the profession, that they would not doctor quietly in country villages, but insisted on competing with the men in the great cities, where the profession is already overcrowded; to which the *Temps* replies very aptly, that if the women doctors cling to the cities, men doctors do the same thing, in spite of the overcrowding. Conservatives are still further alarmed by a bill now before the Chambers giving women who are at the head of business houses the right to vote at the election of the judges of the tribunals of commerce who pass on disputed points arising out of business transactions. They do not object seriously to the simple proposal that such women should vote, but they use against it the "entering-wedge" argument, and insist that it will end in women sitting as judges, which all seem to agree would be a scandal; at least this is the conclusion we draw from the answer of the *Temps*, that this is something which would never happen—though why it would not happen does not appear.

One of the discussions now raging in France is over the question of submitting the revision of the Constitution to the people. All enemies of the Republic are clamoring for this, and the Royalists go still further, and ask for the submission of the form of government also, believing that, in the present temper of the voters, a majority could be obtained for a monarchy. This the Republicans oppose as unprecedented and impracticable. But Paul de Cassagnac, the great Bonapartist prophet, tries to facilitate it by announcing almost in set terms that the Bonapartists as a party have ceased to exist, and that there are now only two parties in the field, Monarchists and Republicans, the former including all who desire a return to monarchical government in any shape. It is not difficult, however, for the Republicans to show that the attempt to establish a hereditary monarchy by plébiscite would be an absurdity, because if it be necessary that one ruler should obtain his authority from a popular vote, it would be necessary that his son should obtain it also, so that there would have to be an election at each demise of the crown. No man under the régime of universal suffrage can claim political power because his father had it. Nor would it be easy for the Comte de Paris to prove his claim to be the only person voted on to fill a vacant throne. In fact, in order to set up monarchy in France again, divine right would have to be brought in somewhere; and French voters have forgotten all about it, and would not know it if they saw it.

Boulanger is pursuing the plan of taking a plébiscite on his claims to the position of reformer-in-chief of the Republic, by offering himself as a candidate for every vacancy which occurs in the Chamber. He has got majorities in this way now in four departments, and has thus made a considerable impression on public opinion. He is now about to apply the most important test of all to his standing, by offering himself as a candidate for a vacancy in the Parisian delegation, and the Republicans are considerably alarmed as to the result. In spite of the great decline of Paris as a political power, since the insurrection of the Commune, the opinion of Paris has still great weight in the provinces, and if Boulanger can show that he has a majority in the city, the effect in the country at large would, it is feared, be very great. As yet no candidate has been found to oppose him. Floquet has been talked of, but the Republicans shrink from setting up their most considerable man, because, of course, the more important the candidate, the more serious would defeat be. It can be readily understood what a powerful argument in favor of district representation—or *scrutin d' arrondissement*—these Boulanger majorities are furnishing. The *scrutin de liste*, or general ticket, enables him to get the vote of an entire department every time he runs for one vacancy in the delegation.

CABINETS IN THE PAST.

THE President's Cabinet as it now exists is a feature of the Government which has been a growth rather than the immediate creation of the Constitution. The Constitution, indeed, does not mention the institution by name, and the only clause which covers the subject is that which declares that the President "may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices." Washington was inaugurated on the 30th of April, 1789, but it was not until the following September that Congress passed laws instituting executive departments. The Navy Department was not established until the following year, and the Interior Department was unknown until 1849. A bill is now before Congress elevating the Department of Agriculture to the rank of a Cabinet office.

Washington entered upon the Presidency, as he wrote to a friend, with the conviction that he stood "in need of the countenance and aid of every friend of myself, of every friend to the Revolution, and of every lover of good government." Parties had not then been formed, and it was his aim to array in support of the new Government the ablest and best men in the country, without reference to the position which they had occupied in regard to the framing and adoption of the Constitution, or the views which they held as to the workings of popular government. For this reason he called into his Cabinet Thomas Jefferson as Secretary of State and Alexander Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury—two men who held radically divergent views as to the very theory of our institutions, and who were the predestined leaders of the two great parties which it was inevitable should soon be formed. Their opinions were so irreconcilable that they soon quarrelled with each other, and even attacked each other bitterly in print. Washington repeatedly patched up peace between them; but the situation at last became intolerable, and Jefferson resigned.

With the rise of parties, Presidents realized the political necessity of taking the heads of departments from among those who agreed with them on questions of public policy. For a quarter of a century after 1800 it was their practice to offer the State Department to the man next in prominence to the President in their party, and in turn this man became the successor of his chief in the highest office. Thus, Jefferson appointed Madison; Madison, Monroe; Monroe, John Quincy Adams. This "easy accession," as it used to be called, came to an end with the scandal (now universally held to be baseless) of the "bargain and sale" by which Clay was appointed by John Quincy Adams Secretary of State after he had thrown his influence in the House of Representatives in favor of Adams for President.

The method of selecting candidates for President by nominating conventions naturally led to the President's offering the State Department to one of his chief rivals in the Convention. In 1840 Harrison tendered the place to Clay, and upon his refusal to Webster; in 1844, Polk to Buchanan; in 1852, Pierce to Marcy; in 1856, Buchanan to Cass; in 1860, Lincoln to Seward. Lincoln went still further in giving places to his rivals in the Convention, making Chase Secretary of the Treasury, Bates Attorney-General, and Simon Cameron Secretary of War—though the appointment of the last-named was much against his will, and only in deference to the insistence of his friends upon his redeeming promises which they had made in his behalf without his knowledge.

Had not the secession movement intervened between his election and inauguration, there is little doubt that Lincoln would have followed the example of Washington in giving representation in his Cabinet to all political opinions. His biographers agree that it was his first intention to appoint some representative Southern Democrat to a place. He authorized the offer of the Treasury Department to Mr. Guthrie of Kentucky, who had been one of the most prominent candidates for President before the Democratic Convention at Charleston; and, upon his declination, commissioned an agent to place a seat at the disposal of Mr. Gilmore of North Carolina, who reluctantly declined it because of the prospect that his State would secede. Events compelled Lincoln to abandon this policy, although he still clung to the principle so far as later to defer for some time the appointment of a successor to Judge Campbell of Alabama upon the Supreme Bench, in the hope that the South might soon return to the Union and enable him to pick out a representative Southern man for the vacancy. No other experiment in this direction has ever been attempted, with the single exception of Mr. Hayes's somewhat ridiculous attempt to revive the "old-line Whigs" and bring them into the Republican party, by giving the Postmaster-Generalship to a Tennesseean who had supported Tilden for the Presidency.

Gen. Grant introduced the principle of treating places in the Cabinet as the purely personal perquisites of the President, to be allotted as his private fancy dictated. Nobody familiar with public affairs at the time will ever forget the shock of surprise created by the announcement that Grant had given the Navy Department to Adolph E. Borie, a wealthy gentleman entirely unknown by name outside a limited circle in Philadelphia. The choice, as Borie's successor, of a Camden lawyer whose sole "claim" consisted in the fact that he told stories which amused the President, was perhaps a more startling revelation of the singular conceptions as to public office which Grant carried from the camp to the White House. The impeachment of Belknap, who had won the War Department by pleasing the humor of the President at a banquet, was only the most striking exhibition of the dangers of making a Cabinet in this way.

This year a new principle is advanced in the selection of a Cabinet. Hitherto, with the exception of Grant's eccentricities, it has been the rule to select only men who have been more or less prominent in public life as the representatives of their party. Now it is proposed to give a department to a man who never attained any such prominence, and whose sole claim is the fact that he raised a great amount of money to secure the election of the successful candidate. What adds to the singularity is the accumulating evidence that Mr. Wanamaker is the only man sure as yet of any position in Mr. Harrison's Cabinet. It would be extremely interesting if we could get the views of George Washington and Abraham Lincoln upon this new departure.

THE TRULY PROTECTED LABORERS.

WHEN, on Monday week, in discussing the duty on car-wheels, Senator Harris expressed a doubt as to whether any one would assert that the present duty of 78 per cent. was necessary as a matter of protection to the labor employed, and Senator McPherson pointedly observed that the Senators on the other side of the chamber had abandoned any attempt to defend the legislation upon the idea of protection to labor, and had instead taken the broad ground that the factory interests must have whatever protection they desired, Senator Edmunds came as near taking fire as his nature would permit. With a vehemence of assertion which might have done excellent service at a campaign gathering, he maintained a series of startling propositions which place him, in spite of his age, in the very forefront of the leaders of the new school of Protectionists, who advocate in time of peace that great blessing which the South enjoyed during the war—the complete embargo of foreign commerce. He began his spirited reply to Senator McPherson by boldly asserting that practically the entire cost of any article is the cost of the labor which has produced it. Assuming the weight of a car-wheel to be 300 pounds, and its value to be $5.00, he declared that

> "That 300 pounds now constituting a car-wheel was probably worth, as raw material in the bosom of the earth untouched, three-tenths of one cent. You may call it three cents if you like, and then you get above its real worth. Everything that touches the cost of that car-wheel in the market, and that makes it worth what it is, is the labor of man, and nothing else. . . . So if a car-wheel is worth so many dollars now, 99 per cent. of those dollars is the labor that somebody has put into it."

This statement was followed by the explicit declaration that the admission of foreign-made goods involved the starvation of the American laborer, since "for every hundred million dollars' worth that come and are consumed, . . . the laborer of the United States is deprived of the opportunity to earn his wages by just that much." Finally the distinguished Senator concluded by asserting that the tariff did not raise the price of goods to the consumer, and that he had voted against reducing the duty on cotton-ties in order "to keep the price as low as possible by making the duty as high as possible"! The fact that foolhardy positions such as these should be assumed with such reckless aggressiveness by the Senator from Vermont would seem to indicate that it may be but a few years before the advocates of an embargo policy will be ready to incorporate in

legislation the crowning absurdity of Henry C. Carey, their chief representative in literature, who in 1871 openly argued that a prolonged war would be the best possible thing that could happen to promote the industrial development of our country.

But to answer Senator Edmunds by a further reduction to absurdity of his positions would obviously be an effort hopelessly misdirected. What needs to be done, and what the Democratic Senators signally failed to do, is to show the utter falsity of his fundamental assertion that price and labor-cost are synonymous. Stated in Senator Edmunds's words, there is probably no one living who believes it; yet this was but an exaggerated expression of the doctrine laid down in the majority report on the Senate Tariff Bill, and the statement there was apparently made in good faith:

> "If, in computing the cost of production, we should exclude the sums paid for taxes, insurance, interest, and retained for accruing profits, a large portion of which represents payment for labor and services, *and which together would rarely amount to 10 per cent.*, we should then find the labor cost in all cases to be at least 90 per cent. of the total expenditure."

When stated thus, the position seems plausible. The interest upon capital rarely amounts to 10 per cent.; therefore capital receives less than 10 per cent. of the product, labor more than 90 per cent. The fact that the capital upon which interest is drawn is often ten times the labor bill is completely ignored. A New York farmer is content with 7 per cent. upon the capital invested in his farm; but when he rents it on shares, supplying machinery and stock, he does not on that account demand but 7 per cent. of the product: he demands 50 per cent., or else he makes a bad bargain.

So much for the absurdity of the general proposition. Coming now to the particular example, Senator Edmunds's car-wheel, what is the percentage of labor-cost in each of the two industries in which it receives its value—mining and manufacturing? Fortunately we have in each case official statistics. In the year 1880 the wages paid in the iron mines of the country were $9,500,000; the value of the materials consumed was $2,900,000; the value of the product $20,500,000. In other words, the labor cost was 46 per cent., and the profit remaining to the mine-owners was 40 per cent. The way in which the American laborer has been protected by the duty imposed upon iron ore is beautifully illustrated by comparing the statistics of 1880 with those of 1870. In 1870 the average annual wages paid to the iron-miners were $455. In 1880 it was $301. We have no desire to deal unfairly with the mine-owners. We would call attention to the fact that the real reduction in wages was not so great as the apparent reduction. Measured in gold the average wages in 1870 were but $364. The reduction which had been effected was 20 per cent. Meanwhile, during the same decade, the capitalization of the iron mines had increased 247 per cent. It is quite evident what laborers are protected here.

When we turn to the manufactories of iron and steel, we find that the capital employed is $330,000,000, the wages of labor exactly one-sixth as much, or $55,000,000. If the owners receive then but 7 per cent. upon this investment, their share of the product is 42 per cent. that of the laborers. But the profits of the employers are not to be estimated in this way; we frequently hear them asserting that they are making no profits at all, when they are simply getting competitive rates of interest upon the capital invested. In well-conducted enterprises profits are and should be greater than this. The census report, faulty as it is, affords an indication of this amount. Deducting the wages bill and the cost of materials from the value of the product in the iron and steel industries, a balance of $52,000,000 is obtained. From this must be deducted the cost of taxes, insurance, bad debts, and loss through wear and tear of machinery. For the cost of the taxes, one per cent. upon the capital invested is a liberal estimate, especially in Pennsylvania, where the capital stock of almost all manufacturing companies is exempt from taxation. One and one-half per cent. is a liberal estimate for insurance; 1 per cent. a liberal estimate for loss upon bad debts; and 4 per cent. equally liberal to compensate for loss through depreciation in the value of machinery. Making these deductions, the profits are reduced to about $37,000,000, or 70 per cent. of the labor bill.

The justice of this estimate might perhaps be doubted were it not for the light which foreign statistics throw upon the problem. The income-tax returns for the cities in Saxony (Schaeffle's 'Steuerpolitik,' p. 138) show the total of wages and salaries to be 174,000,000 marks; the total of profits in trade and manufacture, 228,000,000 marks. These are the amounts returned for taxation. In estimating the real incomes, the former amount must be slightly increased, the latter amount very greatly. The real profits of the manufacturers and traders are out of all proportion greater than the wages of the employees. In America it is not pretended that the same proportions will hold good. Production is conducted upon a much larger scale here than in Germany. American laborers need vastly less superintendence, and there are vastly more Americans than Germans capable of superintending large enterprises. This reduces the cost of management in America to the minimum except in industries where the uncertainty due to the tariff prevents competition, and leads the managers to devote their attention to politics instead of business.

It is therefore obvious that the cost of the labor which is employed in the making of Senator Edmunds's car-wheel, instead of being practically the whole cost, is an element little greater than the profits of mine-owners and manufacturers. In addition to this, it is obvious to the most superficial observer of business affairs that the wages of labor are practically a fixed quantity, while the profits of capital change from one establishment to another and from one year to another, now less than nothing, and now treble and quadruple the labor bill. This fact was abundantly illustrated by the statistics for nine paper-manufacturers which were published editorially in the *Paper World* in March of last year:

Year.	Per cent. of capital's share to selling price.	Per cent. of labor's share to selling price.
1850	7.4	6.67
1860	4.42	12.16
1865	29	7.12
1870	56	15
1880	6.16	16.15

For the entire period the average profits of capital were 20.6 per cent., and the wages of labor 11.4 per cent. The latter element has fluctuated but little. Slowly but steadily wages have risen, the one exception being during the war, when prices were abnormally high. It is the employers and the employers alone who have been benefited when either war or protection has made scarce the goods which they alone have to sell.

THE NEXT PENSION RAID.

To everybody who keeps an outlook on public affairs, the largest object in the range of vision is some kind of a new pension bill. Nearly everybody dreads it. All hope that it will not be very bad, but none venture to expect that the next pension raid will be the last or the next to the last. The common belief is that we shall go on as we have been going, increasing the donative in proportion as the number of soldiers diminishes, until our expenditure for pensions alone exceeds that of the largest military establishment in Europe *plus* its pensions. In 1880, a quarter of a century after the close of the war, our disbursements on this score were $56,000,000. Last year they were $80,000,000, and we shall probably never see them as low again in this generation. Patriotism still exists, but it must be paid for at an ever-increasing rate. What the patriotism of the next generation will fetch, in dollars and cents, we can scarcely imagine.

In the January number of the *Forum*, Mr. Leonard Woolsey Bacon has a strong article on the subject, showing how the Arrears Act of 1879 poisoned the morals of the volunteers, who up to that time had been content with the provision made by the pension laws, and proud of their distinction as citizens who had done something more than their duty in the country's crisis. The Arrears Act, as Gen. Hawley stated at the time, did not originate with the soldiers. It had its start in the councils of claim-agents at Washington city. The soldiers were at first surprised, but the claim-agents had not miscalculated the effect of the proposed largess on the minds of the men. We may admit, nay, we must admit, that they were the picked men, the superior men of the community, and therefore the ones least likely to be demoralized by an appeal to the sense of greed. But this was more than human nature could contend against. The demand for arrears went out from Washington, but it came back in time with tenfold strength. It upset all

preëxisting ideas of the nature of a pension, and substituted a totally new idea in its place. It is the duty of a government to protect the soldier who has incurred disabling wounds or permanent illness in its service against the consequences of such disability. Duty goes no further than that. Anything beyond is a gratuity. Such was the conception shared by the soldiers, in common with all other people, until the Arrears Act came in. This act was cunningly phrased so as to invite frauds and prevent the exposure of fraud. "The consequence," as Mr. Bacon says, "was what might have been foreseen:"

"The nation had offered a bonus of $1,000 cash, besides future payments, for every new pension claim that could be proved. The gang of claim agents in Washington were busy urging ex-soldiers everywhere to solicit Government aid, and assuring them of 'our unusual facilities.' What wonder, considering the infirmities of human nature, that the invitation to step up and take a thousand dollars apiece, with an annuity, out of the Treasury, 'on a mere *ex-parte* affidavit,' should be accepted in the same large spirit in which it was offered; that men in comfortable circumstances, who had been ashamed to ask for twelve dollars a month, should find the offer of a thousand dollars in a lump to be quite a different matter; and that men in comfortable health should become conscious all at once of hitherto unsuspected disorders, traceable through subtle lines of causation to a longer or shorter military service? Of course, as everybody (except Senator Blair) might have known, and as everybody now does know, there were frauds innumerable. And the Senator from New Hampshire, whose guileless hands had been employed to pull the lanyard to explode this mine under the Treasury, could only remark, as he saw the rogues running away with the gold, that he had no idea that it was loaded to that extent."

How rapidly men's minds have been changed, how completely the *rationale* of pensions and pension legislation has been overturned by this fatal act, we may learn by going back to the year 1872, and seeing what was then thought by one of the most competent authorities of our time. On the 12th of December in that year General Garfield, as Chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations, reported the pension appropriation, with a few remarks, showing what he believed would be the future cost to the nation. The bill appropriated $30,480,000. "It is interesting," he said, "to inquire what the tendency of our pension appropriations is likely to be from year to year. From figures I have just stated, it will be seen that there has been a steady increase for several years. It is thought by the Commissioner of Pensions that we have now reached the top, so far as the amount of expenditure is concerned; but he does not think that that top is a peak from which we will at once descend, but rather a plain upon which we will go for perhaps several years with a substantial regularity of amount, about the same as we are now paying per annum." With these views of the Commissioner Mr. Garfield concurred, and nobody in the House or in the country differed from him. Gen. Grant set his face sternly against the suggestion of an Arrears Bill in his time, and his views were heartily sustained by the soldiers so long as he remained in the Presidential office.

The thirty millions of that period have risen to eighty millions, notwithstanding the gaps which death has made in the ranks of the pensioners during the past eighteen years. All just conceptions of a pension as a recompense for disability have vanished, and in place of it has come the idea that a pension is a reward for military service. The soldier must not only be placed on as good a footing as he would have had if he had not entered the service, but on a better one. He is content to exchange his proud distinction in the community, as one who has done more for his country than his fellows, for a few dollars taken from the pockets of perhaps poorer men than himself. At least, this is the present attitude of the Grand Army of the Republic. Of course, there are a great many soldiers who do not agree to this. There were 22 negative votes at the Columbus Encampment against 356 in the affirmative; moreover, the Grand Army does not embrace all the soldiers, perhaps not a majority of them. But the political force of the whole is carried by the organization. It points, as Mr. Bacon says, to something "unprecedentedly ruinous and infamous," and leads to the expectation that we shall soon be in the condition of those European countries where "every workman goes to his labor with a soldier strapped upon his back."

GEN. BOULANGER'S REVIVAL.

OUR readers may remember that it was the general opinion, not only in France, but all over Europe, after Gen. Boulanger's absurd appearances in the Chamber in June and July last, and his resulting duel with M. Floquet, that he was ruined as a politician. Some of his most prominent Radical supporters—among others Rochefort—deserted him at that time, and, in fact, the Radicals as a whole fell away from him completely. His own Central Committee was divided, and his most powerful organ, the *Lanterne*, openly repudiated him. His most trusted lieutenant, M. Deroulède, was defeated by an enormous majority in the Charente in June. In July he resigned his own seat, and announced that he would run for every vacancy that occurred in the Chamber, so as to take the judgment of the people in various parts of France on his controversy with the majority. But immediately after this he lost the election in the Ardèche. Then his funds, a large part of which, it was said, came from M. Hériot, the Parisian Wanamaker, gave out, Hériot having become insane in consequence of a quarrel with his wife. In fact, Boulangism seemed utterly dead by the end of last July. Before the end of August, however, Boulanger astonished France by carrying three elections in the Nord, the Somme, and the Charente-Inférieure by enormous majorities. The Boulangist propaganda was then everywhere suddenly revived. The documents and photographs began to circulate once more as in the beginning, and the "brav' Général" became again the coming man, and began to carry election after election.

To what was this extraordinary change in his fortunes due? Not to any gains among the Republicans. It was easily ascertained by an analysis of the election returns in the departments in which he was victorious that the Republicans had definitively abandoned him. It soon became plain that his revival was caused by a combination of the Conservatives of all shades. The word had been passed among them, it was said with the authority and by the connivance of the Comte de Paris, that they were to back up Boulanger and ask no questions. At the same time funds began to flow into the Boulanger exchequer with all the old profusion. The Republicans were at first greatly puzzled to know where they came from; but Boulanger had no hesitation, some weeks ago, in explaining the whole matter to a newspaper correspondent, who sat with him one morning when his mail came in. As the letters were opened, checks, drafts, and bank-notes fell out in wonderful profusion, and Boulanger allowed him to read them. The letters came from all parts of France, and the enclosures were of various amounts from people who wished the General success in his efforts to get the better of the wicked Radicals. In other words, they were a great expansion of the revenue which used in old times to flow in from pious souls to the Comte de Chambord at Frohsdorf. In striking corroboration of this, we have heard from private sources recently, that in Legitimist circles in various parts of France the ladies are saving up their money to send to Boulanger, in the hope that he will use it to confound the Republic.

What all this means is, that the Royalists are satisfied that Boulanger can be made to play the part of General Monk. If he can, with the aid of powerful popular support, impose on the Chambers the task of revising the Constitution, they calculate that the stability of the Republic would receive a blow so serious that the new Government, whatever it was, would literally be in Boulanger's hands, who would then become not exactly a dictator—for he has not the command of the army—but a sort of protector, whose voice in the Legislature would be all-powerful, and who could, if he pleased, say to a Chamber filled with his creatures or followers: "Gentlemen, this farce has gone far enough. The Republic has been thoroughly tried, and has failed. Let us re call the family under which France became a nation, and under which she tasted centuries of glory and prosperity."

There are signs that the Republicans are again seriously alarmed, and begin to see that Floquet's willingness to revise the Constitution would be simply a Boulangist triumph. This was fully set out week before last in an impressive speech from M. Challemel-Lacour, one of the oldest and ablest of the Republicans, in which he warned the Chambers that, after having exiled men of the stamp of the Comte de Paris and the Duc d'Aumale, whose family has been associated for ages with all the traditions of French greatness, they were playing into the hands of a military adventurer of the lowest type. Of course, everybody does not share the belief of the Legitimist ladies, that Boulanger has in him the making of a Gen. Monk. Those who know

most about it believe he would turn out a third-rate Louis Napoleon.

MRS. BROWNING.

FLORENCE, October, 1888.

IT was one of the first hot days of last May that I visited the old disused Protestant cemetery at Florence. Formerly it sloped upwards against the city wall; but the wall has long since been removed, leaving only enough to sustain the earth; and now, surrounded by a high railing, it is a lovely garden in the middle of the broad *viale*. The climbing roses as well as the situation brought back vividly to me those lovely nooks in the angles of the fortress at Corfu which were appropriated to the graves of British officers and soldiers, and which are still kept green and neat, smiling at you as you pass down the wide boulevard. Here, amid the flowers, one reads many names—some well known—of English, Americans, French, Italians, Swedes and Germans, Russians, Poles and Greeks, for all who are not Catholic were formerly interred here; in no order—husband not lying even by wife, nor child always by mother. I saw the flat stone which covers the grave of Landor; I passed the monument of Arthur Hugh Clough; I read the names of Hiram Powers and Theodore Parker; and finally I came to the tomb of Mrs. Browning. Handfuls of lilies of the valley had been strewed between the low columns that support the sarcophagus, either early that hot morning or late the day before, for they were wilted with the sun. On seeing these evidences of affection to the poetess I wondered to myself whether it were possible nowadays to read her poetry; and, with this in my mind, stopped at a bookshop and bought a volume of selections from her poems. Yes, they could indeed be read, often with pleasure and sometimes with surprise. This little volume of the Tauchnitz series has been edited by Mr. Browning, with a short preface in his own manner, and has been so arranged and ordered as "to allow the characteristics of the general poetry the prominency and effect they seem to possess when considered in the larger (not exclusively in the lesser) works of the poet." There was hinted and shadowed in this volume—what was made plainer on considering Mrs. Browning's poetry as a whole in order of time, and on studying her in her letters to Horne, Miss Mitford, and others—that, in spite of occasional brilliant outbursts, her poetic faculty became fully and freely developed only when she had fallen in love with Robert Browning; and that it reached its highest point in her Italian poems, where the love of liberty and of her adopted country excited her ardent soul with better cause than ragged schools, or working children's wrongs, or women's rights. If ever there was truth in the old saying, "Facit indignatio versus," it was in her case.

A Life of Mrs. Browning has just been published by Mr. John H. Ingram in the "Eminent Women Series," which is practically the first biography of her that has been written. The result shows that her friends were right in not undertaking the task sooner, for Mrs. Browning lived no life that could be written. All that she was, is shown in her poems and in her letters, or in the letters to her; how she appeared, must be quoted from the accounts of those who saw and knew her. The earlier years of Elizabeth Barrett were passed with few companions except her family and her books, of which she was always an omnivorous reader, in the country of the Malvern Hills—

> "the ground's most gentle dimplement,
> (As if God's finger touched but did not press
> In making England!), such an up and down
> Of verdure—nothing too much up or down—
> A ripple of land; such little hills, the sky
> Can stoop to tenderly and the wheat fields climb;
> Such nooks of valleys lined with orchises,
> Fed full of noises by invisible streams;
> And open pastures where you scarcely tell
> White daisies from white dew—at intervals
> The mythic oaks and elm-trees standing out
> Self-poised upon their prodigy of shade."

Later, when she had become a confirmed invalid and had been saddened by the death of her mother and by the drowning of her favorite brother, she passed years in London in a single room, which was often darkened for days at a time. She had written verses, mostly bad or indifferent, from her earliest childhood, and she kept herself alive in her sick-room by more ambitious poems, by reviews and articles for the *Athenæum*, to which she was long a contributor, and by letters to friends, in particular to Richard Hengist Horne, now known chiefly as the author of 'Orion'—especially by those who have not read that poem—with whom she engaged in various literary enterprises, including criticisms of contemporary authors. Judging from what Horne says in his publication of her letters, she was the better man of the two. Unknowingly she had at one time worked together with Robert Browning, for whom she expressed her admiration in those lines in "Lady Geraldine's Courtship"—

> "Or from Browning some 'Pomegranate,' which, if cut deep down the middle,
> Shows a heart within blood-tinctured of a veined humanity."

The compliment in course of time brought about a correspondence which led eventually to acquaintance, friendship, and love, until, on one September morning of 1846, Browning and Miss Barrett stepped into St. Mary-le-bone Church, were married, and started immediately for Italy. Like the choleric West Indian planter that he was, Mr. Barrett, who had idolized his invalid daughter, disapproved of the marriage, never forgave her or had intercourse with her, or even mentioned her in his will.

The story of his love for his "moon of poets" has been told briefly but sufficiently by Browning in his "One Word More," appended to his 'Men and Women.' Her tale of dawning and triumphant love was written day by day in the "Sonnets from the Portuguese"—at first for herself alone; for it is said that these sonnets were never shown to Browning till after he married. The title of these unquestionably genuine soul experiences can scarcely have deceived many readers into a belief that they were a translation. More it concerns us not to know. With the exception of one brief visit to England, Mrs. Browning's life was passed thenceforth in Italy, chiefly in Florence, until the end in 1861. She was absorbed in her husband and her child—"my little son, my Florentine"—except when political and philanthropic movements and excitements caused a gust of passion to sweep through her whole being.

That her earlier poems should have given Miss Barrett as great a reputation as she enjoyed seems now almost inexplicable, except when we remember the dearth of poetry at that time, when people read and admired Bailey's 'Festus,' Taylor's 'Philip Van Artevelde,' and Coventry Patmore; and then, too, she was a woman—a reason which, in her inner soul, she detested.

> "You never can be satisfied with praise
> Which men give women, when they judge a book
> Not as mere work, but as mere woman's work,
> Expressing the comparative respect
> Which means the absolute scorn."

she says in 'Aurora Leigh'; adding, further on:

> "I would rather dance
> At fairs on tight-rope, till the babies dropped
> Their gingerbread for joy, than shift the types
> For tolerable verse, intolerable
> To men who act and suffer. Better far
> Pursue a frivolous trade by serious means
> Than a sublime art frivolously."

And then she was admired by women, and placed, as Miss Mitford says, "in the situation of Wordsworth forty years ago—the foundress of a school of enthusiastic worshippers, laughed at by those who do not feel high poetry."

Of the earlier poems some few will doubtless survive, because, although marked by the faults common to all of imperfect and bad rhymes—which she was woman enough to defend, insisting that she had made them purposely—of halting rhythm and prosaic diction, yet they have a certain go and swing, a rush of words and thought, and a something which gives them the quality of lyrical cries. One cannot help feeling that the authoress really doubted her own powers, and to some extent one must share the doubt:

> "My own best poets, am I one with you
> That thus I love you—or but one through love?
> Does all this smell of thyme about my feet
> Conclude my visit to your holy hill
> In personal presence, or but testify
> The rustling of your vesture through my dreams
> With influent odours? When my joy and pain,
> My thought and aspiration, like the stops
> Of pipe or flute, are absolutely dumb
> Unless melodious, do you play on me
> My pipers,—and if, so th, you did not blow,
> Would no sound come? Or is the music mine,
> As a man's voice or breath is called his own,
> Inbreathed by the Life-breather?"

But it was in the "Sonnets from the Portuguese" that the first living soul was breathed into Mrs. Browning's poetry. Sonnets they are not, for they err against all the canons; but they are passionate expressions of love, and a few lines will show their drift.

> "I saw, in gradual vision through my tears,
> The sweet sad years, the melancholy years,
> Those of my own life, who by turns had flung
> A shadow across me. Straightway I was 'ware,
> So weeping, how a mystic shape did move
> Behind me, and drew me backward by the hair;
> And a voice said in mastery, while I strove,
> 'Guess now who holds thee?' 'Death,' I said. But there
> The silver answer rang, 'Not Death but Love.'"
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "I lived with visions for my company,
> Instead of men and women, years ago,
> And found them gentle mates, nor thought to know
> A sweeter music than they played to me.
> But soon their trailing purple was not free
> Of this world's dust, their lutes did silent grow,
> And I myself grew faint and blind below
> Their vanishing eyes. Then Thou didst come—to be,
> Beloved, what they seemed.
> . . . . . "My own, my own,
> Who camest to me when the world was gone,
> And I, who looked for only God, found *thee!*
> I find thee; I am safe and strong and glad."
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "I yield the grave for thy sake, and exchange
> My near sweet view of heaven for earth with thee!"

And love, whether timid or ardent, gave Mrs. Browning an insight to her husband's character which, it may be doubted, his biographers would not express as strongly.

The Brownings had hardly got well settled in Florence before the revolutionary movement broke out, and excited her delicate nature to the highest point. "To her," says an American friend, "Italy was from the first a living fire." While the Revolution was going on she wrote the first part of 'Casa Guidi Windows,' the second part being written two or three years after, under the impression of the reaction. The poem is finer than anything she had written up to that time, and is full of beautiful passages which were understood and appreciated by all except her own countrymen—at least those of them who had not lived in Italy. The opening, which had somehow stuck in my mind almost since its publication, is an epitome of the whole Italian Revolution:

> "I heard last night a little child go singing
> 'Neath Casa Guidi windows by the church,
> *O bella libertà, o bella!* stringing
> The same words still on notes he went in search
> So high for, you concluded the upspringing
> Of such a nimble bird to sky from perch
> Must leave the whole bush in a tremble green,
> And that the heart of Italy must beat
> While such a voice had leave to rise serene
> 'Twixt church and palace of a Florence street!"

To her friends in England she wrote: "Ah! if the English press were in earnest in the cause of liberty, there would be something to say for our poor, trampled-down Italy—much to say, I mean. Under my eyes is a

people really oppressed, really groaning its heart out; but these things are spoken of with indifference." And again: "I see daily a people who have the very life crushed out of them, and yet of their oppressions the English press says nothing." And Miss Mitford wrote to a friend: "Fancy her thinking Louis Napoleon ought to take up the cause of these wretched Italians! And I hear from all quarters that they get into corners and slander each other. It is an extinct people, sending up nothing better than smoke and cinders and ashes; a mere name, like the Greeks." "Have you seen Mrs. Browning's new poem? It will hardly be popular, for there is no great faith in Italian patriots."

"It is a matter of great thankfulness," says Mr. Story, "that God permitted Mrs. Browning to witness the second Italian Revolution. No patriot Italian gave greater sympathy to the aspirations of 1859 than Mrs. Browning." In 'Poems before Congress,' Mrs. Browning's poetic talent reached its highest point; but the book had in England the effect which she feared. She said in the preface:

"If the verses should appear to English readers too pungently rendered to admit of a patriotic respect to the English state of things, I will not excuse myself on such, nor on the grounds of my attachment to the Italian people and my admiration of their heroic constancy and union. What I have written has simply been because I love truth and justice, *quand même*, more than Plato and Plato's country, more than Dante and Dante's country, more even than Shakspere and Shakspere's country. . . . I confess that I dream of the day when an English statesman shall arise with a heart too large for England; having courage in the face of his countrymen to assert of some suggested policy, 'This is good for your trade, this is necessary for your domination; but it will vex a people hard by, it will hurt a people further off, it will profit nothing to the general humanity; therefore, away with it—it is not for you or me.' When a British Minister dares to speak so, and when a British public applauds him speaking, then shall the nation be glorious, and her praise, instead of exploding from within from loud civic mouths, come to her from without, as all worthy praise must, from the alliances she has fostered and the populations she has saved."

But in England her words fell on deaf ears. Official England was not in sympathy with Italian unity, in spite of the personal efforts of Sir James Hudson at Turin To most English people, she seemed unpatriotic. They could not understand her admiration for Napoleon the Third, at a time when they had suspicions of his designs. In fact, she met with much the same fate as if she had written poems in favor of Eastern Christians or in favor of Russia in the worst Jingo period. To one who now reads dispassionately the history of those times, even the diplomatic history, her poems of that period, her feelings, even her inspired 'Ode to Napoleon III. in Italy,' seem perfectly natural. We admire the Emperor's actions, and we envy him for having at least one moment when he could appear as a disinterested and unselfish hero. So much, however, depends upon the point of view. Insular English cannot get really interested in anything but English affairs; and some of the criticisms on these poems of Mrs. Browning, that they are "full of recondite allusions, comprehensible only to those conversant with Florentine literary and political history," remind one of Lord Dover's preface to Walpole's 'Letters,' which he praises for being "a most exact chronicle of the events of the day," and elucidating "very amusingly both the manners of the time and the character of the persons then alive," while the answers of Sir Horace Mann are "particularly devoid of interest," and "consist almost entirely of trifling details of forgotten Florentine society, mixed with small portions of Italian political news of the day, which are even less amusing than the former topic."

What Mrs. Browning looked upon as her greatest work was 'Aurora Leigh'—"the most mature of my works, and the one into which my highest convictions upon life and art have entered." But one feels about this much as about some of her earlier works. The whole story is quite as impossible as that of 'Lady Geraldine's Courtship,' and is disfigured by many faults. In some ways it betrays the influence of her husband. The explanation of this is perhaps best given by her friend Chorley, who says: "Like all whose early nurture has chiefly been from books, she had a child's curiosity regarding the life beyond her books, coexisting with opinions accepted as certainties concerning things of which, even with the intuition of genius, she could know little. She was at once forbearing and dogmatic, willing to accept differences, resolute to admit no argument; without any more practical knowledge of social life than a nun might have when, after long years, she emerged from her cloister and her shroud." E. S.

THE DIARY OF HENRI BEYLE.

PARIS, December 14, 1888.

ANYTHING which bears the name of Stendhal (Henri Beyle) will always attract the notice of a lover of books. There was a time, about twenty years ago, when it seemed as if Stendhal was to be placed among the literary stars of the first magnitude of our day. Taine did much to magnify the glory of this original writer: there is now a slight reaction. Still, the author of the 'Chartreuse de Parme' and of 'Le Rouge et le Noir' has taken his place among the writers of our century who ought not to be forgotten. He has his place in the group to which belong our great Balzac, Mérimée, Flaubert, Alexandre Dumas *fils*. He was a realist before the realists, a dissector, an analyst, and his talent was very personal, very peculiar. He is a better writer than Balzac, in the grammatical sense, but he has not the rich profusion of Balzac; he is a little too dry, like Mérimée, but he puts an intense life into his heroes and heroines. His moral nature is perverse, but his works are not immoral. He considers passion as a force which must execute its work; and its work, whatever it is, seems to him legitimate. He is an adorer of force. Napoleon gave him a vision of genius combined with an utter contempt for all the ordinary rules of common morality.

It is clear that such an ideal could only have been conceived under peculiar circumstances and at a given moment; it is therefore interesting to study the formation of Stendhal's character, and to enter into the details of his existence. The documents are in the library of Grenoble; there are all Beyle's manuscripts, many of them the manuscripts of works already published. In the seventy volumes or bundles kept at Grenoble are found the manuscripts of 'De l'Amour,' a few novels, the 'History of Painting in Italy,' the fragmentary 'Rome, Naples, and Florence in 1817,' the 'Memoirs of a Tourist.' MM. Casimir Stryienski and François de Nior have gone through these seventy bundles, and reconstituted the 'Stendhal Diary.' The *cahiers* of this Diary are bound without any reference to dates; the Diary is in fragments, mixed in the greatest disorder among all the bundles. Beyle's handwriting suffered immense changes: it was first very fine, in Italy and in France; after 1806 it became more and more illegible.

The only biography of Beyle which exists at present is full of errors. M. Colomb, who wrote it, had very insufficient data; nevertheless, his notice has been used hitherto by all who have written on the subject. The editors of the volume before us have given us Stendhal's Diary only between the years 1801 and 1814, and they are obliged to confess that the notes of the Diary are very imperfect, very obscure, sometimes very enigmatic. These familiar lines were certainly never destined for publication. The notes on the years 1807-1808 and the notes written in Russia in 1812 have been lost. Beyle wrote a great deal, if he published little. He said of himself in 1832: "Did you ever see, good reader, a silk worm which has had enough of his leaf of the mulberry tree? The comparison, if ignoble, is just. This ugly beast will eat no more, it needs to make its prison for the night. Such is the animal named a writer." His precept had been for a long time: "Nulla dies sine linea."

The Diary begins in April, 1801, when Beyle was only eighteen years old. He was in Milan, which was occupied by the French. He had entered Italy in the white uniform of a dragoon, and Italy will always remain his first love. He goes to Bergamo: "The country round Bergamo is the finest that I have ever seen." He goes to Brescia, to Cremona; he is always in motion. Nevertheless, he reads much, he goes every night to some theatre. At the end of 1801 he returns to France; on his way he writes at Grenoble:

"I was born on the 23d of January, 1783, at Grenoble, rue des Vieux-Jésuites. I left for Paris on the 8th Brumaire, an viii. I arrived there the 19th of the same month. I left it after five months and twenty-eight days. I arrived in Geneva the 28th of the same month, then I left on the 3d Prairial (I keep the old Revolutionary names) for Milan. I was appointed sub-lieutenant on the 1st Vendémiaire, an ix, and placed in the Sixth Dragoons on the 1st Brumaire. I became aide-de-camp of General Michaud on the 12th Prairial, an ix; I left him at Brescia to join the corps the first complementary day of the same year. I arrived at Bra, where was the fourth company, in which I am sub-lieutenant, the 7th Vendémiaire, an x."

Here we have positive data on the military career of Beyle. But let us follow him in Paris. In 1803 we see him full of literary projects, attending lectures, going to the theatres. "What is my object? To gain the reputation of the greatest French poet. To deserve this reputation I must learn Greek, Latin, Italian, English." He is not much of a poet; he is already realistic. In one of the notes on the same page he writes: "Never attribute to people of a certain class ideas entertained by another class. Do the men of the people speak often of happiness such as we understand it?" He laughs at the people who find that *Dorine* speaks too familiarly to her master in "Tartufe." Molière was right; and "what makes me think so is the fact that in the provinces servants still mix in the conversation; people there have still the manners of the time of Louis XIV." He begins to work at a play destined for the French Theatre: "Letellier" became the definitive title; the first was "Les Deux Hommes." The extracts given from this play, written in verse, show how ill-founded were the ambitions of Beyle when he thought himself a dramatic author and a poet.

"L'aimable Chamoucy sur moi dut l'emporter."

"J'apprends que dans huit jours Chamoucy vous épouse."

Such is the style of "Les Deux Hommes." Beyle was occupied also with the project of a 'Filosofia nova.' He thinks at first of giving a dramatic form to his new philosophy; he imagines a young man entering on the world, and formed by the conversation of four or five per-

sonages of very different characters. His hero will have "the divine character of La Fontaine. I feel that my love for simplicity augments every day." He will give to one of his personages the character of the courtier. His young man will deliver a great monologue and tell what impression the world makes on him. Beyle preferred the dramatic to the didactic form: "By not putting my ideas in a dramatic form, I shall have to take much more pains and shall not do so well."

All this is very chaotic; and the notes represent exactly the disorder of a very active mind which has not yet found its direction. We see in them the germs of many of the ideas which afterwards became dominant, as, the love of energy—"a quality which is the *sine qua non* of genius"; the notion of the crystallization of ideas and sensations round a centre—"all materialism is in these words: everything that exists is crystallized"; the habit of reasoning with his own sentiments and feelings, of conducting the affairs of the mind, even of the heart, on a systematic method, of saying to himself, "This day I will do this, the next day that"—a habit which we find in all Stendhal's heroes, of whom it can always be said that there is method in their madness; the belief in the irresistibility and blindness of passion, which seems contradictory of the habit of analysis, but really is so only in appearance.

Beyle spends some time in Grenoble in 1803, and returns to Paris "more reasonable, and therefore happier." After a representation of "Agamemnon," he is presented to the famous Mlle. Duchesnois, and finds her perfectly natural. He sees Talma dressed "in a blue frock, with black silk stockings. He spoke to the porter of the theatre in the same voice he used on the stage. His aspect made an impression on me; it seemed to me that I was touching glory." Between two notes on Duchesnois and Mlle. Raucourt, "who has the voice of a fishmonger," we read: "Second sitting of the Tribunate, to declare Bonaparte Emperor." The notes are constantly sprinkled with English words. He writes: "If the Two Men réussissent, les faire imprimer, etc." "Faire vite the new philosophy; autrement, etc." After the fête of the proclamation of the Empire, he writes: "We see Bonaparte perfectly. He comes before us on horseback—on a fine white horse, with a bright new coat, the colonel's uniform of his guards. He bows much and smiles—the smile of the stage, when the actor shows his teeth but the eyes do not smile." The habit of self-analysis is well shown in the notes. "I read these notes [of 1804] over again on the 10th of January at Marseilles; they seem to fulfil well their object. There are at times moments of *profondeur* in the picture of my character. These moments of *profondeur* come to me by fits since that date." Speaking of the project of an opera on Don Carlos, which he had formed, he says: "I find the plan of a Don Carlos opera good." Of a criticism which he had made of Regnard's "Joueur:" "I was not on that particular day disposed to be sensible to continual pleasantry; besides, at that time I took things seriously."

This perpetual self-inspection is seen on every page of the new book; it becomes sometimes very shocking when Beyle speaks of women and of the sentiment which he entertains toward them. Many notes ought to have been suppressed by the editors, for they are coarse, cynical, and really of no interest. It is trying to find, after a few excellent lines of literary criticism, or a good anecdote of Napoleon, pages of nonsense upon Miss Louason, a young lady with whom Beyle studies the passion of love, or some other equally unknown deity of his youth. It is irritating to find long details on the most indifferent subjects, and to see the greatest events of the day treated in this manner: "Bonaparte [he calls him 'Milan' in the Diary] was hunting every day some time ago. Now he has been at the Malmaison for four days, in a profound spleen; people say it is because he has just assassinated the Duc d' Enghien. Louis Bonaparte is ill in bed. Joseph has accepted the Kingdom of Lombardy." Here is a good anecdote on "Milan":

"When Milan wished to reëstablish religion in France, he still paid some attention to the opinion of the enlightened people with whom he wished to fortify his government; he sent for Volney [the author of the 'Ruins'], and said to him that the French people asked him for their religion, that he thought it was necessary to the happiness of the people. 'But,' said Volney, 'if you give a willing ear to the people, they will ask also for a Bourbon'; upon which, Milan flew into a great fury, put him out of the room—some people say, kicked him out. The poor Volney, who has very poor health, thereupon fell ill; nevertheless, thinking that this affair would be sent to the Senate, he began a long report on the question. When it was known, people told him to stop, or else he would be assassinated; since then he does not go out much."

Beyle adds in English, "If true, for a future Tacitus."

This first volume of notes (we shall have other volumes) ends in 1809. The true Beyle is not yet quite developed, and we hope that the next volumes will be prepared in a more critical spirit. There is really no reason why the most commonplace remarks of a Diary should be preserved as they are in this volume, and kept for posterity. It is a most laborious work to pick a few plums out of this pudding, and many people, I am afraid, will throw away the pudding after the first attempt.

Correspondence.

THE MILLIONAIRE IN POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Give me $100,000, and a reliable man at each polling-place, and I will, at any general election, contract to purchase 20,000 votes for any political organization in this State." The speaker was a man of keen observation and wide experience in practical politics, and he evidently believed he could fulfil his contract to the letter. Nor will any one familiar with the politics of to-day doubt that the judicious use of the sum named will, under ordinary circumstances, warrant the assertion made. The implied claim that from eight to ten per cent. of our voters stand ready to put a price upon their suffrage, will seem incredible only to those who have never had occasion to investigate this matter carefully. The lists of "floaters," as Gen. Dudley has so aptly termed them, in the hands of the workers on either side at the late election, certainly justifies the claim.

Those unfamiliar with existing conditions in the rural districts will perhaps be most surprised to learn that the percentage of corruptible voters there is rather in excess of those in the smaller cities and villages. The fact is, the farmer's "help" of to-day is a very different sort of a personage from the farmer's "hired man" of *ante-bellum* days. At the present time the average farmer takes it for granted his "help" will go with him to the polls and vote as he directs, especially if he gives him a holiday on that occasion. The farmer in turn expects, and usually secures, from those who handle the funds for his party due remuneration for the "time" he has given his help, and not infrequently do the more thrifty insist upon payment for the team employed to convey the "help" to and from the polls. Occasionally we find a farmer who is too thin-skinned to engage in work of this character even. In that event, the help is turned over to the less sensitive "worker" of his (the farmer's) own party, to be dealt with directly. Should he dare to make terms with the opposition, however, the righteous indignation of his employer knows no bounds, and he can expect to be dismissed in disgrace as soon as the "fall work" is done.

Under present conditions, then—that is, with a purchasable vote sufficiently numerous to decide the result at any election held in this State for years past—is it strange that the politically ambitious millionaire should, all at once, become the most important factor in our politics? Or is it remarkable that the wire-pullers of a party should show a deeper interest in the financial standing than in the mental acquirements of their candidates? The next problem that presented itself was this: how to utilize the millionaire's money by securing its honest expenditure for dishonest purposes. Long experience had shown that no dependence whatever could be placed upon the professional worker: his method of pocketing the money, and trusting to moral suasion alone to secure the "floater" vote, had proved far from satisfactory. For a time the managers were at their wits' end to devise means for garnering the crop, ripe for the harvest. To the Grand Old Party must be ascribed the credit—in this State at least—of having first furnished a solution of this perplexing riddle.

About four years ago there was a gathering in Detroit of the leading Republicans of the State. The result of that gathering was the formation of a powerful political organization, known as the Michigan Club, with headquarters at Detroit. Immediately thereafter, branch organizations sprang up in every city and village in the State. These minor clubs hold meetings at stated intervals, and communicate directly with the central organization at Detroit. The advantage of permanent organizations of this character over the ephemeral campaign clubs of former years must be apparent. Through the medium of the Michigan Club and its branches the machinery of the Republican party in the State is operated to-day. Alger's "boom" for the Presidency originated here. Its apparent spontaneity was wholly due to perfect organization. The present demand that he be given a Cabinet position, so far as such demand can be said to exist, is traceable to the same source. The acknowledged leaders of Republicanism in Michigan to-day are Alger, Stockbridge, McMillan, and Blodgett, all millionaires, all lumbermen. None of them are possessed of those qualities which would entitle them to be regarded as leaders of thought or expounders of opinion; none of them are men of superior intelligence; none of them, prior to their advent as leaders, had had legislative or administrative experience. The first-named has acquired some notoriety during the past few months as candidate for the Presidential nomination. His methods at Chicago are supposed to have left a sore spot on the person of John Sherman of Ohio. Frank Stockbridge, the Kalamazoo lumberman, as successor to Conger in the United States Senate, is reaping his reward for services rendered in 1886. Upon him devolved the task of carrying the doubtful legislative districts of the State. James McMillan of Detroit, to whom has this year fallen the task allotted to Stockbridge two years ago, is to succeed Palmer as United States Senator. Dr. Blodgett, the millionaire lumberman of Grand Rapids, has never before taken a hand

in politics. He is a large pine-land owner, and the "free lumber" clause in the Mills Bill is said to have frightened him beyond measure. The especial work blocked out for him during the past campaign was the defeat of Congressman Ford in the Fifth District. His efforts have been crowned with success, and he is to be rewarded with the gubernatorial nomination two years hence.

Since the organization of the Michigan Club and its branches, a very marked change has taken place in the character of the Republican workers at the polls. The disreputable workers and strikers of former years have been relegated to the ranks of the "floaters," where they very properly belong, and in their place we now find business men of unquestioned integrity and character. They alone handle the funds at the polls. They deal directly with the "floaters," and while their work is done as quietly as possible, any one who cares to inquire may know their business. They are there to get votes. They get them by argument when they can, they resort to corrupt methods when they must. They pay no money until the work is done. Being men of character and standing, their promise, based upon certain conditions, inspires the "floater" with confidence to believe he will get his money when the conditions are complied with. While it cannot be truly said that work of this character is here regarded as reputable, it may be truly said that no disrepute attaches to those known to engage in it. As it is difficult, and sometimes impossible, to find an accomplished financial agent in the rural districts when no club organization exists, the practice of delegating members of the city or village clubs to attend the polling places in the country is growing each year.

It is not claimed that the Democrats are one whit better than their Republican brethren. At the last election they made an effort to follow in the footsteps of their opponents by placing the honors "where they would do the most good"; but, being without organization, they were at the mercy of the "strikers," and the result, as might have been expected, was disastrous. MICHIGAN.

INDIFFERENCE TO CORRUPTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the political morals of this country were on the proper plane, the conduct of a large number of party leaders during the last campaign would have produced an outburst of indignation sufficient to arouse the country from Maine to California. The forgery and circulation of the alleged quotations from the London *Times* should have produced a storm of wrath which would have driven Mr. Quay's Committee to resign within three days after their exposure. But nothing of the kind occurred, and nothing of the kind will occur previous to the development of a more delicate political conscience among the masses.

Four years ago, while a student in college, I offered to a fellow-student some documents containing the letters of Mr. Blaine which bore such plain evidence of his moral unfitness for the Presidency. To my surprise, he refused to read a single line, or even to hear me state the contents of the letters. This man was preparing for the ministry, and is now exercising the duties of that profession; and yet he was so blinded by prejudice as to keep himself intentionally ignorant of the character of the man for whom he voted. I have heard the same man say that he belonged to the party of intelligence and virtue. If the intelligence and virtue which is supposed to form the core of the Republican organization were to shake off this parasitical element of ignorance and dishonesty, perhaps the number who really believe in the principles of Republicanism, whatever they may be, would be smaller than is generally supposed.

Such people have worked themselves into a frame of mind which allows them to believe everything that bears the party stamp, and reject everything which does not. They regard the seal of Quay's Committee as better evidence in determining the truth or falsity of supposed quotations from British papers than the editors of the papers themselves, or than even a search through their files. The fact that a man charged with wholesale bribery in Indiana is an earnest and enthusiastic Republican, is a sufficient warrant for his character, no matter how difficult it may be to construe his letters into a plea for an honest election. "I'll have peace if I have to fight for it," said the Irishman. "I'll have an honest majority in Indiana if I have to buy it in blocks of five," says the agent of the party which poses as the champion of an uncorrupted suffrage. And he obtains the prayers and dollars of rich colonels and clothes-dealers in order that he may carry out his high moral purpose.

This is bad enough, to be sure; but what better could be expected of a country which for years has been going on the assumption that it is a legitimate function of Government to put one man's earnings into another man's pocket, and call it "the American system"? Nations cannot easily be dishonest in one respect alone, any more than individuals. We are only reaping the natural harvest of the seed sown when our fathers consented to use the Government to make certain men rich by taxing certain other men under the cover of the specious word "protection." There must be some severe shock to awaken the people to a proper sense of their condition. Taking all things into consideration, the speediest way out of the darkness might be through a Cabinet composed of Messrs. Blaine, Platt, Wanamaker, Clarkson, Dudley, Alger, and Quay. The inner workings of the machine would thus be displayed on the surface, and the people might be induced to consider the question whether it is just the right sort of machine. W.

A FULL VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The corruption of voters is not the only electoral evil which demands legislative restraint. For those who practically cannot vote at all, safeguards against dishonest voting have no meaning. In this electoral precinct there are three lumber mills—a small private one, and two large ones belonging to the Northern Pacific—and these constitute almost the only industry. The precinct, I am informed, should poll about 250 votes, and it is admitted that the overwhelming sentiment of the community is Democratic; yet at the late Presidential election but thirty-one votes were cast—twenty-one for Cleveland and ten for Harrison.

The reason for this light vote is, that the Northern Pacific Mills did not shut down work or make any arrangement by which their men could visit the polls in detail. From the nearest mill, I am told, a few did go to vote at the noon hour. Now, it seems to me evident that if our Government is to be carried on by popular suffrage, all men should be secured, as far as possible, in the opportunity to vote. The voting should be not only free, but full, to which end a law should be passed compelling employers to grant their men sufficient time to vote at the nearest polling-place. If then, when they reach it, they are armed with a secret ballot, we shall have an expression of the popular will both full and free.

Whether employees should be docked for all or only half the time thus spent in voting, or whether their wages should be unaffected, are questions of detail. The important thing is, that all should have the time to vote, and that if they fail to discharge this political duty, they shall gain thereby no advantage in wages.

SUE HARRY CLAGETT.

HOT SPRINGS HOTEL, KING CO., W. T.

ANOTHER REASON FOR DEMOCRATIC DEFEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I think it is not impossible that the late Democratic defeat resulted in part from the *dense ignorance* of some of the voters. Yesterday I met upon the streets of this city a wealthy and respectable farmer, of average intelligence, who saluted me with the remark, "Well, we laid you out at the election;" to which I replied, "I think you laid yourself out. A farmer who votes to maintain the present protective tariff, votes to tax himself for the benefit of of others, without any compensating advantage." "Why, how is that?" he asked. "We farmers in Michigan cannot compete with the cheap wool and beef of Texas and our great West, unless the producers there are compelled to pay a tariff tax when they bring their products here to sell in our market. It is the tariff upon this Southern and Western wool and beef that keeps up the price of ours"; and he assured me that that was really what he understood by our protective tariff. If this man is a fair average of his class, what missionary work can be undertaken to meet such ignorance? D.

SAGINAW, MICH., December 24, 1888.

THE WORK OF AMERICAN MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reviewer of the work of American missionary societies in the *Nation* of December 13 inquires what relation education bears to conversion in missionary effort. Will you allow me space to suggest an answer to this question, and to correct a false impression which I fear may arise from his criticisms of the missionary work, especially in Turkey?

The purport of the criticism appears to be that the work in the larger cities in Turkey is mainly educational rather than directly religious; that those engaged in the work live in a degree of comfort, if not luxury, not fully realized by the American contributors to the funds; and that conversions, as far as they are made, are from one Christian sect to another. In these days of religious enlightenment, it is not, of course, to be for a moment considered that your reviewer does not recognize the fact that education is the very groundwork of all permanent and desirable Christian work. His point, I take it, is that the home contributors to missionary funds do not recognize this, and consequently are the victims of a certain deception. But is it fair to attribute to missionary subscribers in America such a low degree of intelligence as to the highest use of missionary funds as this implies; or, with our generous supply of missionary literature, to suppose an ignorance of how the funds are used? I am puzzled to know by what logical process your reviewer deduces "false pretences, malversation, and a breach of trust" from the use of the "hardly earned pennies" of the "little

Sunday-school children" in "supporting a school for Greek girls at Athens," these pennies being subscribed for "enlightening the darkness of the poor heathen." As it happens, there is no school for Greek girls at Athens supported in whole or in part by American missions; but if there were, what possible better means of enlightenment could be suggested? Does any one now believe that hortatory street-corner preaching would produce better Christian results than a Christian school for girls? I may instance the well-known Christian and liberalizing influence of Robert College upon Bulgaria, and ask if there are any "Sunday-school children" intelligent enough to comprehend this work who would not be proud to have had a share in it.

But, however important educational effort may be, it should not be inferred that it forms all, or even a relatively large part of the whole work. In Turkish missions there are about 800 native workers and preachers under the patronage of the A. B. C. F. M. alone, preaching to congregations numbering over 45,000. These congregations themselves gave during the last year nearly $60,000 towards the support of their own institutions.

As regards the elegance in which the missionaries in Turkey live, it should not be forgotten that it is natural for people of culture to create about them an atmosphere of culture in whatever part of the world they may happen to be. Contrast, also, may make their homes appear more luxurious than they really are. As the highest salary paid to any lady teacher in Turkey, including the principal of the "large and flourishing school" referred to by your reviewer, does not exceed $450 per annum, it would not seem that they could live in what in this country would be called a very extravagant degree of luxury. If, with such an income, in a large and rather expensive city like Constantinople, missionaries can surround themselves with "every European and American comfort," it would seem to betoken a thrift in their foreign representatives on which the American Sunday-school children might well congratulate themselves; nor, if the lady missionary in Manissa happened (as was the case) to possess both taste and private means enough to provide herself with a Steinway piano, would it seem that the American contributors to missionary moneys had been greatly wronged.

Finally, as regards the fact that missionary effort in Turkey is mainly directed towards nominally Christian people, while there seems to be a little incoherency between this criticism and the other—that the work is mainly educational—it is sufficient to call to mind that it is a part of the policy of American missionary societies to direct their labors to nominally Christian countries. As examples may be mentioned Mexico, Spain, Italy, and Austria.

Yours truly, G. T. W. P.

Iowa City, December 21, 1888.

THE BIBLE AT DARTMOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An open letter in a recent number of the *Century* tells us that Dartmouth College has taken steps to provide for scientific study of the Bible. Will you permit a graduate of that institution to protest against the implication that such a study of that book is there possible? As Büchner wisely says, no trust can be placed in the judgments of one who has given in his adherence to a creed. Dartmouth is creed-bound. The idolator does not calmly collect and organize the teachings of his common sense in regard to his idol or his fetish; neither does the orthodox, having pronounced a book divine, proceed coolly and relentlessly to read it in the light of science.

Eleven years ago President Bartlett of Dartmouth was attempting to demonstrate to the then Seniors the harmony between science and Genesis. Development stood in the way. He demolished the theory. He drew from his pocket a dime, a quarter, a half-dollar, and a dollar, and laid them in a row upon his desk. "These coins," he said to us, "resemble one another in shape, markings and material; therefore, the Darwinian would say, they must be developed one from the other. And that is the absurd claim, the baseless theory, of evolution." On another occasion he read to us an extract from the then recently published lecture of Virchow, in which that eminent scientist said that the development of man from non-human ancestors is not a doctrine as yet sufficiently well established to be taught in the schools. He did not read to us the whole lecture, of which a few detached sentences, read in large type, so well served his purpose; he did not tell us that Virchow was a champion of evolution; and he did not tell us that Virchow had expressed many opinions as to science and life which were calculated to shock the orthodox.

I have no reason to suppose that the President of Dartmouth is any more scientific, or that the spirit of the college is any more liberal, to-day than they were eleven years ago. No one can regret this more than I. But, in justice to science, I am constrained to express the opinion that scientific study of an assumedly inspired volume—anywhere absurdly impossible—is at Dartmouth a pretence made in ignorance.

John Cotton Dana.

Three-Mile Ranche, Colorado.

Notes.

The final volumes, III. and IV., of the Life of William Lloyd Garrison by his children have just been given to the printer, with a view to publication by the Century Co. in the fall. They will be uniform in all respects with the first two volumes published in 1885, and a general index will supersede the partial index issued with Vol. II. The supply of portraits will be liberal. Each volume covers the space of about twenty years (1841-1860, 1861-1879).

We are glad to announce, as just about to appear, the fourth volume of Mr. James Schouler's 'History of the United States under the Constitution' (Washington: W. H. Morrison). The period here covered is 1831-1847, and the fifth (and perhaps concluding) volume, which will break off at 1861, is now in active preparation. The boon of having a history of the first class for the whole of the period before the war will be appreciated by a host of teachers and students. The fourth volume, by the way, begins at the date of the origin of the anti-slavery movement in this country, and will therefore furnish valuable collateral reading in connection with Vols. I.-III. of the Life of Garrison.

The *New Princeton Review* has been purchased by Ginn & Co., Boston, to be merged in the *Political Science Quarterly*. The fusion is a natural one, and every one must desire the *Quarterly* to be strengthened and maintained. Prof. Sloane, in relinquishing the editorial conduct of the *Review*, will share in the production of the *Quarterly*.

The Dunlap Society closes its second year by the publication of the biennial reports of its secretary and treasurer, accompanied by a list of its members, which is not as ample as might be wished. In its two years of active work the Dunlap Society has issued to its members new editions, properly prefaced, of three early American plays, Royall Tyler's "Contrast" and Dunlap's "André" and the "Father." It has also published a much needed biography of Thomas A. Cooper, by Mr. Ireland, and an admirable selection of the poetical 'Opening Addresses' of various American theatres, edited by Mr. Hutton. All of its books have been beautifully printed at the De Vinne Press, and all have been adorned with illustrations. We have been surprised to see the names of so few public libraries on the list of members. A publication society like the Dunlap, working solely for the love of its subject, appeals especially to the incorporated library; and yet we do not find that here in New York either the Astor or the Lenox or the Mercantile or the Society or the Columbia College Library has acquired the books sent forth by the Dunlap Society. Among the volumes which the Dunlap has now in preparation are 'Occasional Addresses,' edited by Mr. Hutton and Mr. William Carey, and 'Brief Chronicles,' by Mr. William Winter, this last being a series of biographical and critical sketches of the leading performers of the American stage who have died in the past quarter of a century.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'Chopin, and Other Musical Essays,' by Henry T. Finck, author of 'Romantic Love and Personal Beauty'; 'First and Fundamental Truths: A Treatise on Metaphysics,' by Dr. McCosh; and Prof. Geo. P. Fisher's Dudleian Lecture on 'The Validity of Non-Episcopal Ordination.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons will follow up their series of Hamilton's and Franklin's Works with 'The Writings of George Washington,' edited, in about fourteen volumes, by W. C. Ford. Only 750 sets will be printed.

D. C. Heath & Co. will publish ere long 'Selected Poems of Wordsworth,' for school use, edited by Mr. A. J. George.

The late W. J. Thoms invented the word *folk-lore* for use in English, but it has now been adopted by the French. Among the latest announcements in Paris is a forthcoming 'Folk-lore Brésilien,' by Santa-Anna Néry, to be published by Didier (New York: F. W. Christern), with a preface by Prince Roland Bonaparte.

The house of Hachette & Co., Paris, announce a French translation, by Mme. L. Trigant, of Gen. Greely's 'Dans les Glaces arctiques: récit de l'expédition américaine dans la baie de Franklin (1881-1884).'

In the series of illustrated volumes begun by 'Tartarin sur les Alpes' (of which book nearly one hundred and fifty thousand copies have been sold) M. Daudet's 'Jack' is soon to appear, and so also is 'Uranie,' by M. Camille Flammarion.

M. Daudet's 'Souvenirs d'un Homme de Lettres' (Paris: Marpon & Flammarion; New York: F. W. Christern) is really a continuation or second instalment of his 'Trente Ans de Paris.' It is made up partly out of ten-year old contributions to the *Nouveau Temps* of St. Petersburg, and partly of later contributions to *L'Illustration* and the *Nouvelle Revue*. The 'Histoire de mes Livres' now includes accounts of the genesis of 'Numa Roumestan' and 'Les Rois en exil.' There are sketches of Émile Ollivier and Gambetta to mate with those of Villemessant and Rochefort in 'Trente Ans'; a flattering outline of M. Edmond de Goncourt to match that of Turgenef; half a dozen neatly limned portraits of *gens de théâtre*—Déjazet, Lesueur, Félix, Mme. Arnould-Plessy, Dupuis, and Lafontaine. There is also a little tale

called "Un Membre du Jockey-Club," which seems to have been left over from the 'Lettres de mon Moulin' or the 'Contes du Lundi,' and there are half a score more essaylets of less importance. Obviously, a third volume will be forthcoming in due season, to contain the paper on Mistral contributed to the *Century*, and further instalments of the 'Histoire de mes Livres.' Externally, the 'Souvenirs' resembles the 'Trente Ans' and the 'Tartarin,' but the illustrations are sparser and less tasteful.

Mr. Charles Dudley Warner collects familiar papers of his, 'On Horseback in Virginia etc., with Mexican Notes' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The book is comely and the arrangement of its contents reveals no little skill; there is the tour in Virginia to catch and hold the reader's attention at the start, while as soon as he begins to think of skipping he runs upon the Mexican notes, admirably adapted for that purpose, and then he lights on the bit of Southern California to finish up with and leave a pleasant taste.

Harper & Bros. extend their uniform reissue of Walter Besant's novels with his 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men.' It is dedicated to the memory of his old literary partner, James Rice.

We said lately, of Mr. Edward Eggleston's school 'History of the United States and its People,' that it was well calculated for ordinary voluntary reading. He has, however, concluded that this latter end would be better served by retrenching the questions and expanding the text of the work. Hence we have 'The Household History of the United States and its People for Young Americans' (D. Appleton & Co.). The defects we pointed out in the briefer work have not been overcome. Let any one turn to the index (which, to be sure, misrepresents the work) and see but a single reference to the topic "Tariff" (anno 1887 !), a second being discoverable in the curt account of secession in South Carolina, and he will be made aware of the failure of the author to give any idea of streams and tendencies in our national development. As to the subject of slavery, we will not repeat ourselves.

A little vest-pocket volume, dainty in every respect, and called 'Brilliants: A Setting of Humorous Poetry in Brilliant Types,' has been put forth by the De Vinne Press as a sort of advertisement of the Liliputian resources of this great establishment. Mr. De Vinne has grouped together Goldsmith, Canning, Hood, Thackeray, Locker, Lowell, and other writers of light verse, but has also prefaced his posy with an account of some of the more remarkable ventures in this line of eye-destroying typography. The press-work is admirably clear and the binding very pretty.

The *Photographic Times* (New York: Scovill Manufacturing Co.) issued a Christmas number in token of some promised improvements for the coming year. Illustrations are to be more frequent than heretofore, and in the number just mentioned there are two photogravures, and a plate by Kurtz's process after some detective-camera views made in Italy by Mr. W. J. Stillman.

The November *Studio* is a Verestchagin number, containing several "process" copies of pictures in the gallery now open. Some of these we take leave to think more interesting and pleasing than the originals, and we cannot adopt the editor's laudatory opinion of the collection as a whole.

The entertaining account of the Niger Delta by Mr. H. H. Johnston in the December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains little that is noteworthy, except the statements in respect to the prevalence of cannibalism among the natives. Even among those who are nominally Christians, and live amid factories, schools, and churches, there are occasional outbreaks of this passion for human flesh. Capt. G. Langen describes the Key Islands, a little group to the south of New Guinea, belonging to the Dutch. The inhabitants number about 20,000, one-third of whom are Mohammedans, "who are greatly increasing every year, owing to the influence of Arabs and natives who have returned to Key as 'hadjis' from Mecca," the expenses of the pilgrims being at times met by the village to which he or she belongs. The people show considerable artistic talent: even "children from three to five years of age are seen trying their skill in carving ornamental figures," or "by drawing on a smooth surface of fine sand houses, animals, steam and sailing boats, fishes, etc.; and I have always been struck by the symmetry of their work." Mr. D. W. Freshfield, in a "Note on the Conservative Action of Glaciers," controverts the theory that the "sculpture" of the mountains and the formation of the lakes is due to what Prof. Tyndall calls the "paramount influence" of ice. He especially commends the scientific reports of this country as "models of clearness," with illustrations "in striking contrast to the obsolete old woodcuts and inaccurate caricatures" in many English text-books written by the best authors.

Lieut. H. Wissmann, the well-known African traveller, contributes to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for December an account of the Bashilange, a race living between the Kassai and Sankuru Rivers in the southern part of the Congo Free State, among whom he has lived for six years. This people, numbering about a million and a half, appear to be the most promising of all the Central African negroes. Their first advance from pure savagery dates, singularly, from the introduction of hemp-smoking some twenty-five years ago. The desire for hemp led to commerce, which naturally tended to diminish the incessant village and tribal wars; they became less wild and "made laws." At the coming of the whites, they eagerly adopted civilized ways. They improved their breed of domestic animals, began to cultivate rice and to build two-story houses of clay, to put on clothes, to make tables and chairs, and to eat with knives and forks. They have given up administering poison to the accused, have burned their fetishes and abolished the death penalty. The one deep shadow in this bright picture is the slave trade which they carry on with the neighboring tribes, though it is now forbidden to sell their own wives or children. Franz Hertwig describes a trip on the south coast of Natal and Pondo-Land, made in the interest of the German Pondo-Land Company, which intends to colonize this region.

An interesting feature of the coming centennial celebration, in this city, of Washington's inauguration as President on April 30, 1789, is to be a loan exhibition in the Metropolitan Opera-house in April and May. Portraits and relics of the men of the first Administration, the superior officers of the army, the members of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 and of the First Congress, and the officers of Government in New York State and city in 1789, are desired for this purpose. The manager is Mr. William A. Coffin, No. 280 Broadway.

— *Harper's* for January opens with Gen. Lew Wallace's historical play, "Commodus," a poetical performance of which we only remark that the plot, on the whole strong and developed with success, seems to us to suffer from being made too complex, and that the style rarely attains to the large utterance at which it manifestly aims, while too often marred by elaborate conceits and occasionally vulgarisms. Miss Woolson does not give us enough of her new serial to base a judgment upon, though the scene and one at least of the characters promise well. Of the illustrated articles, the one on "The Ancient City of Wisby" leads us quite off the travelled routes, and has real attractions for antiquary and artist alike. Clarence Cook has a short paper on Russian bronzes, with specimens figured from the collection of the Messrs. Tiffany; a rather sketchy account of amateur photography is embellished with several more than usually fine reproductions of the art; and a very clear and interesting description of the haunts and habits of the beaver, by Mr. H. P. Wells, gives the quietus to several unfounded stories about the sagacity of that animal, while fully proving its remarkable skill and tireless industry within narrow lines of intelligent effort. Nothing in the number is more thoroughly studied or better repays reading than the article on "Manufacturing Industry in Ireland," by Mr. (Land) Commissioner MacCarthy. It is marked by extensive historical research and a wide acquaintance with existing conditions. There is something portending trouble to our protectionists in Mr. MacCarthy's account of the rise of woollen manufactures in Ireland and their seeking a market here. To win and hold Irish votes against Irish manufactures would seem to demand new kinds of obfuscation.

— Probably no article of the railway series in *Scribner's* has conveyed more real information than the paper on "Railway Management" in the number for January. Its author is Gen. E. P. Alexander, himself President of the Central Railroad of Georgia, and its orderly arrangement and condensed lucidity witness to the grasp of the hand of an executive upon the pen. Gen. Alexander makes only glancing allusions to the questions of legislative control, now so fully before the country: his aim is rather to give an idea of the vast complexity of the affairs of railway administration. He makes it clear that the machine is too delicate to bear any off-hand tinkering, at the same time that he shows how the talent required to run it is so rare as naturally and inevitably to command the great rewards actually bestowed. Before thus landing us at the end of the nineteenth century, the number carries us back to the Middle Ages in its opening paper, an intelligent account of life in the great seignorial castles, with many fine illustrations from drawings by E. H. Blashfield. To a still older civilization are we borne in the article of Dr. Griffis on "Japanese Art Symbols." He helps one to understand the shapelessness and often hideousness of the figures wrought into these art products of Japan, which, in total effect of outline and color, have so great a power to charm. Prof. Fisher has an entertaining essay on "The Ethics of Controversy," light and anecdotical more than philosophical. Himself *haud ignarus mali*, he might have chosen from his own generation examples of infinite meanness in ecclesiastical polemics. Edith M. Thomas contributes a poem of thought and finish such as we have come to associate with her name. The number is an excellent example of the type which the magazine has set before itself from the beginning.

— A new serial from the tireless pen of Henry James is begun in the January *Atlantic*. It is to be a study of English life, apparently, and the opening chapters are in characteristic

style. Mrs. Deland contributes a short story which strikingly reminds us of the best parts of her bepraised and buffeted book—we mean, of course, the parts where the trail of theology is not over all. Indeed, she has made us so familiar with the spectacle of an aged heart, thrilling over a suspicion of a live ember amid the gray ashes of burnt-out love, that "Mr. Tommy Dove" will seem almost like a literal copy of the old attorney in 'John Ward.' Prof. Shaler's article on "The Athletic Problem in Education" will be sure to receive, as it deserves, marked attention. Whatever may be one's own views, the careful testimony of a veteran to results worked out under his own eyes cannot safely be overlooked. "Washington's Great Campaign of 1776" is the title of Mr. John Fiske's historical paper for the month. He wears the heavy armor of his learning with customary ease, and with a sure though light foot runs over the series of battle-fields, from Long Island to Trenton, which first convinced Europe that a true military genius had arisen in America. Philip Dymond's article on Von Moltke is written in a strong style. It appears to conceive of the "Great Taciturn" more as a military formula than as a man, and leaves one with a vague and far-away sense of an obscure personality; but perhaps this is unavoidable as yet, and, at any rate, the writer's vigorous grasp of the essential principle of Moltke's method, and his acute reflections upon the necessary effects of Germany's intense militarism upon the life of the nation, make his work of high interest. The ordinary poetical restraint of the *Atlantic* gives way to a real irruption of verse in this number; but this does not imply any letting down of the standard.

— We have noted on several occasions Krummacher's examination of Carlyle's style, in the *Englische Studien*. A worthy successor to Krummacher has appeared in the latest issue of that periodical (xii., Heft 2), viz.: W. Franz, on 'Die Dialektsprache bei Ch. Dickens,' pp. 197-244. The writer restricts himself to Dickens's *London* dialect, disregarding the Yorkshire peculiarities of 'Nicholas Nickleby,' the Americanisms of 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' and the idiosyncracies of Mrs. Gamp and the Debilitated Cousin. His work is thoroughly well done; it teaches us once more how the trained foreigner may note and collect peculiarities that the native is apt to overlook. At one point Franz is misled. He says (p. 221, § 12) that the old participle-prefix *ge-* survives in the form of *a* in such locutions as: "I'd a been drunk four days if I'd *a-had* the money"; again, "you'd never have forgotten it, if you'd *a-heard* him"; still again, "I see him *a-forced* to turn away his own self." That is, *a-had*, *a-heard*, *a-forced*=German *ge-habt*, *ge-hört*, *ge-zwungen*. In the last example of the three, *a-forced* is a formation analogous to *a-fire*, *a-fraid*, where the *a* is a survival of A. S. *ā-* or of *an-*, *on-*. In the first two, the *a* of course stands for 'ave (have), and the phrases may be expanded "I would have had," "You would have heard." In connection with the list of intensives (p. 233), we call the author's attention to the quaint Virginianism "powerful weak."

PROF. BRYCE'S AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH.—I.

The American Commonwealth. By James Bryce, author of 'The Holy Roman Empire,' M. P. for Aberdeen. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols., 12mo, pp. 750 and 743.

THERE are few things for which a civilized people have more cause to be thankful than for an impartial but kindly estimate of their institutions and their character by a thoroughly competent judge. It is now commonly conceded that Americans have outgrown the youthful period when foreign criticism found them unduly sensitive to blame or praise, and have a pretty solid conviction that their country has a sufficient importance in the eyes of the world to insure all the respectful consideration they could desire. Educated men are especially disposed to be quite sober in their views of the present and the future, for they feel the burden of great and perilous problems that must soon be solved. All who have a patriotic and intelligent interest in the country will welcome Professor Bryce's book as one of the most weighty and important contributions ever offered us in the study of the gravest questions of public and social concern. For more than than twenty years the author has been well known to all American scholars by his 'Holy Roman Empire,' a book which showed the rare power of grasping the characteristics of a complicated political organization in its entirety, and of simplifying the results of a great epoch so that their spirit and their drift are not hidden by multitudinous historical details. Many of us date our first satisfactory comprehension of the growth of German nationality from our reading of that earlier work. To know that the same writer was studying our Government and our people was enough to set our expectations upon the stretch, with the assurance that the opinions of so judicious and able an observer could not fail to be full of deep teaching for us.

The book does not disappoint these expectations. Every page gives evidence of the conscientious labor which the author has given to his work. His visits to the United States have been repeated and prolonged. They were not confined to the older States, but took in the basin of the Mississippi and the Pacific Slope of the Continent. His personal observation has been supplemented by a careful study of constitutional and political history, going to original sources for the decisions of courts and the opinions of public men. He has interrogated competent witnesses in all parts of the country when seeking the facts which are most significant in the working of our political machinery and the actual forces seen in the development of our institutions. He tells us frankly how successive visits and fuller observation swept away many broad generalizations he was at first disposed to make, and led him to be more cautious in attributing everything that is striking to the democracy of our institutions. He saw more and more the natural effects of habitat and social circumstances working upon an essentially English character in an essentially English people when separated from the monarchic and aristocratic elements of old-world society. It became plain to him that the necessary self-reliance of the early colonists gave shape to local government when communication with the mother country was very slow and very infrequent. The colonial charter became a written constitution for the State when independence was at last asserted. After the unsatisfactory experiment of a confederation without national functions, the separate State governments became the model for the really national organization which had become a necessity. The law of natural development again showed its force in the preservation of State sovereignty as fully as was consistent with the erection of a federal government with such powers as were necessary to an efficient national existence. Under prolonged investigation the complex federal system ceased to be an invention of the great men who founded the Government, and stood forth as the outgrowth of nearly two centuries of free colonial development. Yet the greatness of the founders did not diminish in the observer's eye as their work lost the character of a bold experiment; for the breadth of their practical sagacity and their full obedience to that self-restraint in innovation which has been the best characteristic of progressive British statesmen, proved that they had inherited the qualities which make liberty safe in the keeping of the English-speaking race.

Professor Bryce's method is thus seen to be that which is now regarded as the only scientific one in history. He broadly investigates the facts to find the law of development within them, and reduces to a minimum the appeal to the *Deus ex machina*, whether in the form of extraordinary personal characteristics of human leaders or of the exceptional interference of supernatural forces. He finds himself forced to conclude that De Tocqueville, great as was his sagacity in political deductions, not seldom propounded theories which time has not justified, and he does not hesitate to declare that he shall be "far better pleased if readers of a philosophic turn find in the book matter on which they feel they can safely build theories for themselves, than if they take from it theories ready made." When to so cautious and thorough a method the author brings a genial and friendly spirit, and an evident love for political liberty and faith in human progress, we have a rare combination of qualities for the work he has undertaken. When such a critic touches the weak places in our governmental organization, or points to sores in the body politic which threaten to become chronic ulcers, every patriotic American ought to take the warning to heart as the advice of a wise physician, and should set himself soberly and earnestly to seek the cure. By far the greater part of what Mr. Bryce has to say is in cordial recognition of the wonderfully successful progress, thus far, of democratic government on this Continent. No American could state more forcibly the triumph over difficulties which at several junctures in our history have threatened to be fatal. No sober-minded American would choose to profess a stronger faith than his, that the same national characteristics of intellect and will may, in the future, find an equally successful solution of the serious problems we have still to solve. All this gives only greater weight to his warning words when he must utter them, and should give greater confidence to his frank indications of the directions in which danger lies in our political methods and customs, and in our social and personal tendencies and habits of thought.

As we read his pages, their suggestive and instructive value to Americans is so great and so patent that we find ourselves concluding the book is written for us. It is, however, addressed primarily to earnest students and thoughtful men of the Old World. To such it should have double value, because it may be safely assumed that all candid Americans will recognize it as a truthful and trustworthy picture of our institutions and our people. The prevailing sentiment regarding it in this country will be wonder at its powerful, clear, and sympathetic appreciation of all that is strong and all that is weak in the phase of human progress which is working out upon this continent.

Prof. Bryce divides his work into four principal parts: first, the framework and constitutional machinery of the nation; second, the same of the several States; third, the methods by which this machinery is worked, including party organizations and the men who "run"

them ; fourth, the ulterior forces which move the whole and give it direction. This last includes (as subdivisions) public opinion, the influence of religion and of various social institutions. Illustrations of the good and bad working of methods and of forces are introduced ; and the whole is supplemented by estimates of the worth of what has been here developed, with some forecast of the future.

In giving an outline of the Federal Government and its origin, the author disclaims the purpose to do more than sketch the leading features of the Constitution and laws. Constitutional history proper is beyond his present field. The Government as it is and as it works to-day is his subject, with only a passing reference to the historical steps by which it grew to what we see it. The actual relations of the coördinate departments to each other ; how Congress works in its two houses and in relation to both executive and judiciary ; what independence is there in these departments and what interdependence ; to what extent either has trenched upon the province of the other ; is either a dominant feature in the Government, or does it threaten to become such?—these are some of the pregnant questions which are treated broadly yet succinctly, and with the sure touch of one who is both a philosopher and a man of affairs.

The State Governments are treated in a similar way, and one of the most successful parts of the book is that in which the relations of the national and State Governments are set forth. The chronic puzzle of casual observers from Europe is the apparent duplication of government. Mr. Bryce has grasped firmly the distinction between the specifically delegated powers by which the Constitution gives to the Federal Government all the scope that is essential to national action, whether in relation to the world at large, to the States as united, or to each State in relation to the rest. He clearly points out how the residue of all the powers not thus delegated resides still in the several States, and is exercised over the whole domain of the ordinary and local relations of man to man, whether in regard to person or property, or in the preservation of the peace and the punishment of crime. The irrevocability of the national organization and its triumph over the theories of nullification and secession are clearly explained. The local dispersion of governmental power, as typified in the town meeting of New England, of which De Tocqueville made so much, is given its proper importance, and interesting chapters treat of the government of cities and its relation to that of the State, its practical working, and the general view Americans take of the sphere of municipal government proper.

We all know that when the frame of government is described, the work is but half done. 'The power behind the throne" is as familiar to Americans as to the rest of the world. The organization of parties is as important a theme, in its way, as that of the Government. Wherever representation, either in the Legislature or in the Administration, is in practice, parties arise, and the control and management of these are hardly second in importance to the responsible direction of the Government itself. No reformer dreams of the abolition of parties. He may hope to see allegiance to party made less blind and unreasoning ; he may aim at turning party action into channels which will accomplish something else than a mere scramble for office ; he may wish for the time when the local interests of the State or the city may be considered and decided apart from the conflict over national issues : but he sees that parties will still exist, and that party action may be regarded as a permanent factor in all public business. As the result of his observation, Prof. Bryce has reached the conclusion that party politics, regarded as "the art of winning elections and securing office, has reached in the United States a development surpassing in elaborateness that of England or France, as much as the methods of these countries surpass the methods of Servia or Rumania." With such an opinion, it was natural that he should devote a score of chapters to the consideration of American parties and their phenomena, their use and abuse. The normal and healthful action of parties is considered, with their effect upon the decision of political questions, both directly through the determination of issues submitted to vote, and indirectly by the election of men to office. The abnormal and baneful action of these parties is traced in the construction of the "machine" by which selfish ends of personal power or profit are substituted for the public good and the determination of great matters of public policy. "Rings" and "bosses" are investigated in their most tempting fields of activity, the great cities, and in their extension upward into national politics. Nominating conventions, also, are part of the working machinery of politics, and the development and management of these have, perhaps, never received so skilful a dissection at the hands of a foreign observer.

Back of all machinery, however, is public opinion, that resultant of multitudinous individual opinions reacting upon each other, which indicates the general wish and will of a people in regard to matters of current interest. Prof. Bryce has reached the conclusion that, as our party machinery is the most elaborate, so public opinion, which makes the fundamental law for parties and connects their aims and methods, is more powerful in the United States than in any other country of the world. In it he finds his strongest reason for hope in our future, because the common sense of a people which is devoted to legal methods and more impatient of anarchy than of any legal wrong, is pretty sure, in the long run, to solve its perplexing problems in a way consistent with the common good. He is not troubled because such a public opinion does not represent the wisdom of the wisest more than the impulse of the most simple. He upholds the truth of "the apparent paradox that when the humbler classes have differed in opinion from the higher, they have often been proved by the event to have been right and their so-called betters wrong." He looks, therefore, with hopefulness to the ultimate action of the American people in the difficult straits that are certainly before them, because they are cool, resolute, self-reliant, patient, and absolutely devoted to a few fundamentals in self-government, which they will apply whenever the necessity arises.

The grim character of some of the problems to be solved is not hidden. The discouraging features of our methods in politics, which make it so easy for corruption to get the upper hand, are drawn with all their hideousness; but many a young American, nerving himself for a courageous fight with these powers of darkness, will take heart of hope when he finds that so able and so judicial an observer of our country's institutions and condition retains strong faith in our future.

This general outline of Mr. Bryce's most important book is given in the hope that it may help create the conviction that no earnest and intelligent American can afford to remain ignorant of it. His education will be incomplete as a preparation for his duties as a citizen if he does not take advantage of the helps to a sound judgment and a noble purpose which are here given. In another paper may be presented a more detailed criticism of minor points, in which, from the American standpoint, varying lights may be thrown upon some of the author's views.

GREAT BRITAIN AND THE SUDAN.

'83 to '87 in the Sudan, with an Account of Sir William Hewett's Mission to King John of Abyssinia. By A. B. Wylde. 2 vols. London: Remington & Co. 1888.

It is a pity that before giving these volumes to the world, the author did not submit his proof-sheets to some one acquainted with the rules of English grammar and the art of treating a subject methodically. Mr. Wylde is a man of intelligence and observation. He evidently had ample means of knowing all that was going on in the Sudan during the eventful years treated of in his book. Unfortunately, his ideas on composition resemble the snakes in Iceland: he has none. His grammar is strange and wonderful. The right use of the relative pronoun is a difficulty which he has still to master. The number of sentences is astonishing which, after a vain struggle with their intricacies, he is obliged to abandon in a ruinous condition. He has, moreover, a very bewildering habit of passing suddenly, without note or comment, from the past tense to the present. This we imagine, is occasioned by shooting into the body of his book copious extracts from his journals in an entirely raw and undigested condition. The perplexity which this causes to his readers is much enhanced by Mr. Wylde's abhorrence of dates. He has, moreover, no sense of the relative importance of things, and chronicles the number of sandgrouse, pigeons, doves, bustards, and other animals which he destroys from day to day with a laborious minuteness that one cannot but wish had been extended to weightier matters. It would also have much increased the lucidity of the book if Mr. Wylde had apprised his readers of the nature of his official position. Probably he is so great a man at Suakim and Massowah that he thought this to be needless; but, as Philip Van Artevelde observes, "the world knows nothing of its greatest men." Now, had he submitted his proofs to a friend possessed of a little literary judgment and aptitude, all this would have been remedied, and we should have had a book possessing three or four times the value of what we have actually got. None the less, even as it stands, it is, so far as we know, the best that has been published on the Sudan since the British intervention in Egypt. It is, indeed, the first and only book which makes the internal troubles of that distracted country in any degree intelligible to outsiders. A sadder and more painful story it has seldom been our ill fortune to read.

When the Gladstone Cabinet determined to send an army to Egypt for the forcible suppression of Arabi Pasha and his party, they were inwardly conscious that it was a proceeding which, had it been adopted by a Conservative Ministry, they (the Cabinet) would have denounced from the platforms of all the railway stations in Great Britain. Consequently, they were nervously anxious to convince themselves that the after effects of their intervention were limited to a narrow and clearly defined area. Arabi being put down and sent away to Ceylon, everything, they insisted, must go on precisely as if Alexandria had not been bombarded or the battle of Tel el-Kebir been fought. Especially were they determined not to be bothered about the Sudan. It was a long way off, it lay far outside the limits of

their intervention, and it was a device of the enemy, for the purpose of discrediting their Egyptian policy, to pretend that they were, or ever could be, responsible for the internal condition of the Sudan. It is amazing that a company of such able men as Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues could have thought to escape the consequences of their own action by this infatuated imitation of the policy of the ostrich; but it is a fact which cannot be denied, and the torrents of blood uselessly shed in the Sudan—the misery, desolation, and barbarism which have revelled there unchecked during the last five years—are directly owing to it.

Mr. Wylde's picture of Egyptian rule in the Sudan is identical with that drawn by Gen. Gordon and, indeed, every European who had an opportunity of witnessing it. It was not government at all, but oppression, pillage, and cruelty of the worst kind. During Gen. Gordon's term of office, according to Mr. Wylde, there was a marvellous transformation; but the very energy and success with which he struck at the evil-doers became a cause of the insurrection which had already shattered the authority of the Egyptian Government when Lord Wolseley landed his troops at Zagazig. The plundering and lawless officials whom Gordon chased out of the Sudan collected at Cairo, and became the nucleus of the party which, in the end, procured his removal from the Government. They imagined that, Gordon once got rid of, the Government of the province would quickly recover the character it had before his coming; but Gordon's vigorous and equitable administration had awakened in the Sudanese a sense of their rights as men—a determination no longer to submit passively to whatever their Egyptian oppressors chose to inflict upon them. Consequently, when the Mahdi appeared, he made his appeal to a population already ripe for revolt. The Cairo authorities, who had vainly endeavored to suppress this movement before British intervention, were, of course, doubly incapable of doing so after the destruction of their army at Tel el-Kebir. It was, in fact, manifest even at that time that for Egypt, as regards the Sudan, there was no alternative to a policy of evacuation; and if the British Government had had the courage of its position in Cairo, the withdrawal might have been accomplished without loss of life, and with no interruption of legitimate trade. Instead of this, the British Government attempted to carry through the absurd and impossible policy of treating the Khedive as a puppet in Egypt proper, but as a powerful and independent sovereign in the Sudan. In that part of his possessions in which he still retained some degree of authority, he was accounted to have none; in that part where his power was broken past all hope of recovery, he was accounted as supreme. A policy thus deliberately founding itself upon a gross and palpable fiction could but result in defeat and confusion.

The Cairo Government took advantage of the liberty accorded to it to send Gen. Hicks and 10,000 men right away to Dafur. These the Mahdi destroyed to a man at a place called Melbeis. The Cairo Government then made a second and notable effort. They sent out into the highways and hedges, seized upon a number of the fellaheen, loaded them with chains, and sent them, strongly escorted by police, to Suakim, to see what these heroes could do against the Arabs of the eastern Sudan. All that they could do was to run with precipitation; and the Arabs, being superior in swiftness, killed about 3,000 of the miserable creatures. The British Government then roused itself to do what Mr. Gladstone described at the time as "a small service to humanity." This consisted in sending a British force under Gen. Graham to Suakim which fought the Arabs at El-Teb, and again at Tamaai, losing heavily upon both occasions, but inflicting enormous losses upon the brave but ill-armed enemies opposed to it. Having rendered this "small service to humanity," the British troops took to their ships and disappeared from the scene.

Up to this time, according to Mr. Wylde, the people of this part of the Sudan had no knowledge of the English except such as was to be obtained from the few Englishmen who came into their country from time to time in search of game. An observation of their habits had satisfied the tribesmen that they were mostly mad; for, after going to an immense deal of labor and expense to shoot deer and gazelle, they neither sold nor ate the flesh of these animals, but gave it away; neither did they make bottles or other vessels out of the skins, and the only part of the animal for which they manifested any care was the horns. This presumption of British insanity was transformed into a fixed conviction by the extraordinary conduct of Gen. Graham and his troops. As neither the Arabs, nor, for the matter of that, any one else, could discover what advantage to themselves the British expected to derive from what they had done, they supposed them to be a race of fighting maniacs, in the pay of the Egyptian Government. Their brief stay and swift disappearance they accounted for by setting them down as a species of marine animal, which could not live, except for brief periods of time, away from their ships.

This first expedition to Suakim was typical of British policy in the Sudan from 1883 until 1888, if indeed it can be called a policy. So far as the Sudanese are concerned, it has literally consisted in nothing but in making periodical descents among them, either in person or by proxy, killing several thousands of them, and then disappearing into space. When the British have not acted in person, they have got the Abyssinians to do it, or certain tribes, known as "the friendlies," who, in consideration of payment received, have undertaken to make raids and attacks upon other tribes. The issue of this policy has been an amount of bloodshed, misery, and devastation quite frightful to contemplate. The eastern and northern parts of the Sudan have become a huge charnel-house, in which thousands of Arabs, Abyssinians, Egyptians, and British have perished in sanguinary battles, fought without any definite aim, and leading to no results. The pages of Mr. Wylde's book teem with these horrors. As a solitary example, we give his description of Osman Digna's camp at Tamaai, after a successful attack upon it by "the friendlies."

"I arrived at Tamaai a little before dusk, and a great deal too late to make a thorough look round. I had seen quite enough ghastly sights, however, on entering, and I shall never forget as long as I live the night I spent at Tamaai, with its attending miseries. Talk about abject pictures of despair, the terrors of the infernal regions, and other horrors! I never could have imagined a more terrible sight than what was before me at Tamaai. . . . Sleep was out of the question: around me the cries of wailing women lamenting the loss of their friends; little children, walking skeletons, crying for food and water; within ten yards of me a wretched little boy of about eight years old, groaning and in delirium of fever, his little frame torn every now and then with a hacking cough, past all human aid. . . . His was only one case of many, and the night I was there eleven women and children died. I sat up nearly the whole night, talking, and not a person that I had any conversation with but said they never wished to see such misery again. It was even bad enough to move an Arab to pity, and that is saying a great deal. There had been but little fighting; the garrison were a great deal too weak to defend themselves, and, after the first rush of the attacking tribesmen, which was met by a volley from the defenders, everything was over except the cold-blooded butchery that ensued. Little or no quarter was given to the men; many women were also killed. . . . Three deep wells had been entirely filled with the bodies of those killed and massacred, and round these wells were crowds of horrid vultures, with their wings spread out and their beaks open, gorged with the feast that they had been making off the protruding limbs of the slain."

Since 1883, whenever a British soldier has entered the Sudan, this is the ghastly legacy which he has left behind as a memorial of his presence. Not that the unfortunate soldier is to blame; he, together with hundreds of his comrades, have had to pay with their lives for the want of courage, of foresight, of reasoned purpose and end in the counsels of Cabinet Ministers at home. And, despite all the blood that has been shed, the future of the Sudan is a problem no nearer solution at the beginning of 1889 than it was in the spring of 1883. It is idle to pretend, as the Ministry and Parliament of Great Britain try to make believe, that the Power which rules in Egypt can wash its hands of all responsibility for what is going on in the Sudan. The action of Great Britain in that very province, ever since her troops entered Cairo, demonstrates the impracticability of any such policy, and sooner or later her leading politicians will be compelled to undertake the pacification of the Sudan. This task, easy enough in 1883, has grown, from long neglect, into a difficulty of the first magnitude. It constitutes a very important part of that great "African question" which Europe is being called upon to settle with ever-increasing urgency, and for the understanding of which we know, notwithstanding their many and great defects, no better guide than these volumes of Mr. Wylde.

THE LAND BEYOND THE FOREST.

Facts, Figures, and Fancies from Transylvania. By E. Gerard. Harper & Bros. 1888.

Madam Emily de Laszowska-Gerard is the English wife of a Polish officer in the Austrian service, who has had the fate common to his colleagues of being often suddenly transferred from one distant part of the Empire to another. Most families curse their luck at being subjected to the trouble and expense of these sudden removals. Mme. Gerard, however, liked the chance of seeing different parts of the country, and laments only the hardship of the poor boys who are obliged to conform to the most opposite requirements of utterly different systems of education; and the question of education in Austria-Hungary is in "a provoking and unsatisfactory" state:

"Thus, the son of an officer," she says, "serving in the Austrian Army may be obliged to study half-a-dozen different languages (in addition to Latin, Greek, German, and French) during a hardly greater number of years. He must learn Italian because his father is serving at Trieste, and may be getting on fairly well with that language when he is abruptly called upon to change it for Polish, since Cracow is henceforth the town where he is to pursue his studies. But hardly has he got familiar with the soft Slav tongue when, ten to one, his accent will be ruined for life by an untimely transition to Bohemia, where the hideous Czech has become *de rigueur*. Slavonian and Ruthenian may very likely have their turn at the unfortunate infant before he has attained the age of twelve, unless the distracted father be reduced to sacrifice his military career to the education of his son.

"It is not of our own individual case that I would speak thus strongly, for our boys, being

burdened with only seven languages (to wit, Polish, English, German, French, Greek, Latin, and Hungarian) would scarcely be counted ill-used, as Austrian boys go, having escaped Bohemian, Slavonian, Ruthenian, and Italian; yet assuredly to us it was a very happy day indeed when we made a bonfire of the Magyar school-books, and ceased quaking at sight of the formidable individual who taught Hungarian at the Hermanstadt Gymnasium.

"O happy English schoolboys, you know not how much you have to be thankful for!—your own noble language, adorned with a superficial layer of Greek and Latin, and at most supplemented by a little atrocious French, being sufficient to set you up for life. Think of those others who are pining in a complicated network of Bohemian, Polish, Hungarian, Slavonian, Italian, Croatian, and Ruthenian fetters; think of them, and drop a sympathizing tear over their mournful lot."

When we read Mme. Gerard's charming novel, 'The Waters of Hercules,' with its excellent descriptions of the savage scenery of the gorge at Mehadia, and of the Rumanian, Servian, Magyar, and cosmopolitan society which frequents that bathing-place, we hoped that the author would some day give us an account of the lovely and interesting Transylvania—the Land beyond the Forest—which lay only the other side of the mountain ridge of the gorge, and yet, owing to roads, railways, and mountain passes, was so difficult to reach. We had hoped, too, that her book would be in the form of a novel, which, when written with a pen so skilled as hers, is such a pleasing way of making acquaintance with a new country and its people, or of reviving the recollections of a place which has left agreeable memories. In the present volume, however, there is so much information as well as so much entertainment that we will not complain of the form.

The novel just spoken of was not read with such pleasure at Bucharest, where patriotic Rumanians thought injustice had been done to their compatriots, and especially to their officials. Full atonement has been made now; for the author has studied Rumanians with care and sympathy, and, out of the number of races that make up the motley population of Transylvania, evidently prefers the long-despised Rumans—the Wallachs, as they were contemptuously called—to the Saxons, "with their wooden, Noah's-ark faces," who consider themselves the lords of the country. A popular legend will give us, in a humorous way, some of the national characteristics:

"When God had decreed to banish Adam and Eve from Paradise because they had sinned against his laws, he first deputed his Hungarian angel Gabor (Gabriel) to chase them out of the Garden of Eden. But Adam and Eve were already wise, for they had eaten of the fruit of knowledge; so they resolved to conciliate the angel by putting good cheer before him, and inviting him to partake of it. In truth, the angel ate and drank heartily of the good things on the table, and, after having eaten, he had not the heart to repay his kind hosts for their hospitality by chasing them out of Paradise, so he returned to Heaven without having executed his commission, and begged the Lord to send another in his place, for he could not do it.

"Then God sent the Wallachian angel Florian, thinking he was less fine-feeling and would execute the mission better. Adam and Eve were sitting at the table when the servant of the Lord entered, shod in leather *opintschen* (sandals) and with fur cap under his arm. After humbly saluting, he told his errand. But Adam, on seeing the appearance of this messenger, felt no more fear, and asked roughly, 'Hast brought no written warrant with thee?' At this the angel Florian began to tremble, turned around on the spot, and went back to Heaven.

"Then the Lord became angry, and sent down the German Archangel Michael. Adam and Eve were mightily terrified on seeing him, but resolved to do their best to soften his heart; so they prepared for him a sumptuous meal of his favorite dishes—ham sausage, pickled sauerkraut, beer, wine, and sweet mead. The German angel was highly pleased, and played such a good knife and fork that Adam and Eve began to feel light of heart again. But hardly had the Archangel eaten his fill when, rising from the table, he swung his flaming sword overhead, and thundered forth to his terrified hosts, 'Now pack yourselves off!' In vain did our first parents beg and sue for mercy; nothing served to touch the heart of the inflexible German angel, who, without further ado, drove them both out of Paradise."

In this legend the Rumanian does not appear as possessing a strong and independent character; but this is but natural after centuries of slavery and oppression. The Rumanian peasantry and middle classes—and there are no Rumanian gentry in Transylvania—have not, even now that they are free, attained to the full consciousness of their dignity as freemen. Indeed, it is by their past history that very many of the faults of the Rumanian character are to be explained. The Rumanians were, until 1848, practically slaves; up to the middle of the last century, Rumanians were forbidden to attend German or Hugarian schools, and their clergy were obliged to carry the Calvinistic Bishop on their shoulders to and from his church, whenever he chose to demand it. This latter was sentimentally not such a hardship as it seems; for Calvinists, Catholics, and Mussulmans alike are regarded by Rumanian peasants simply as heathens and pagans. "They are not of our law," they say.

This use of the word "law" seems to point to the old distinction between Romans and Barbarians, and to hint at that Roman descent of which they are so proud. Argue as we may, and think as we do, that any great infusion of Latin blood is highly improbable, yet the language is clearly Latin, and Rumanian faces still have Roman features clearly cut, such as are seen on old busts, bas-reliefs, and cameos. There is a singular tenacity of race very obvious among the Rumanians of the present, which may show how "a little leaven can leaven a whole lump." Mme. Gerard expresses very well the consequences of this tenacity of race, and we can only add that the same is perfectly true in Russia, Bulgaria, and Servia, and even in those districts of Macedonia and Thessaly where this race has taken root.

"Few races possess in such a marked degree the blind and immovable sense of nationality which characterizes the Rumanians: they hardly ever mingle with the surrounding races, far less adopt manners and customs foreign to their own; and it is a remarkable fact that the seemingly stronger-minded and more manly Hungarians are absolutely powerless to influence them even in cases of intermarriage. Thus the Hungarian woman who weds a Rumanian husband will necessarily adopt the dress and manners of his people, and her children will be as good Rumanians as though they had no drop of Magyar blood in their veins; while the Magyar who takes a Rumanian girl for his wife will not only fail to convert her to his ideas, but himself, subdued by her influence, will imperceptibly begin to lose his nationality. This is a fact well known and much lamented by the Hungarians themselves, who live in anticipated apprehension of seeing their people ultimately dissolving into Rumanians. This singular tenacity of the Rumanians to their own manners and customs is doubtless due to the influence of their religion, which teaches them that any deviation from their own established rules is sinful—which, as I have said before, is the whole pivot of Rumanian thought and action."

"In some districts, where an attempt was made in the time of Maria Theresa to replace the Greek popas by other clergymen belonging to the united faith, the inhabitants simply absented themselves from all church attendance or reception of the sacraments; and there are instances on record of villages whose churches remained closed for over thirty years, because the people could not be induced to accept the change."

The Rumanian folk-tales have already been given to us in English dress, but nowhere that we know, excepting in the original Rumanian, is there such an excellent anthology of Rumanian folk-lore, superstition, and proverbs as in this book. A similar remark might be made about the folk-lore of the Saxons, who, separated from their German brethren by an isolation of centuries, have preserved very many beliefs uncontaminated by the influences of modern civilization. These Transylvanian Germans still have remnants of the old Norse mythology. Not only do they believe in were-wolves and witches (the last witch was found at Maros-Vasarhely in 1752), but not long ago a Saxon woman bitterly complained in a court of justice that her husband had cursed her overstrongly in saying "Der Wärlthangd saul dich frieszen!" literally "May the world-dog swallow thee!" These Saxons, except for their folk-lore, are an uninteresting lot. They are cleanly, economical, God-fearing, selfish, inhospitable, and wooden. The author has evidently much more sympathy and affection for the gypsies or Tsigani; but we rather hold to the opinion of Liszt that none but an Hungarian can really understand and appreciate gypsies and especially gypsy music; and there is an old proverb which says: "The Hungarian only requires a gypsy fiddler and a glass of water in order to make him quite drunk." The Westerner who remains any time in Hungary must be gifted with an especially Oriental taste, if after a time he can repress a shudder when he enters a restaurant or beer-garden, and hears the harmonious see-saw chaos of the gypsy bands with which these establishments are always infested.

But two or three pages are devoted to the Armenians, that interesting colony which, like the Jews in some other countries, has got all the banking business of the province into its hands; and almost nothing is said of the Hungarians, as they have been so fully described elsewhere. As the author's residence was, except for some short excursions, confined to the city of Hermanstadt, she has little to say about the Szeklers, those "cut-off" Hungarians who live in eastern Transylvania on the slopes of the Carpathians; yet this is one of the most interesting regions for the tourist, not only for its wild mountain scenery, but for its sport and for the healing wells and springs and mineral waters endowed with every possible chemical element. There are even fissures in the rocks where water trickles forth supposed to be good for eye diseases, but where the blast of carbonic oxide (or acid) gas is so strong as to afford an almost instantaneous remedy to disappointed lovers, whose bodies are not infrequently found lying at the foot of the rock.

With all its charms, Transylvania is not a country to be entered by the traveller without forethought. Hungarian inns are generally bad; although one can eat for awhile *gulash* and *paprika-huhn*, yet one soon gets tired of the various mixtures of pepper and tomato which form the essence of Hungarian cookery. The wines are good but strong, and should be drunk freely mixed with mineral water, as is the custom among the natives. The hotels at Hermanstadt and Kronstadt leave much to be desired in the way of comfort and cleanliness; at the numerous mineral springs and baths the abodes are mere wooden shanties; and further on, one must rough it. Yet, in spite of all these material drawbacks, after reading Mme. Gerard's book one longs to return to that beautiful country, even when one knows, after two months' experience of Kronstadt in summer, how dreadfully dull even Hermanstadt might be in winter.

KENDALL'S KINSHIP OF MEN.

The Kinship of Men: An Argument for Pedigrees; or, Genealogy Viewed as a Science. By Henry Kendall. Boston: Cupples & Hurd, 1888. Sm. 8vo, pp. 216.

THIS absurd little book is the work of an Englishman, and it is stated to be the enlargement of a magazine article. The author maintains that no one has hitherto dealt with the subject as he has done, although some have blindly stumbled on a portion of the truth. It may be so, for certainly no one will be disposed to dispute with him the merit of a puzzle-headed collocation of figures without meaning. His intellect and his methods are akin to those of the seekers for perpetual motion or the mode of squaring the circle. His hobbies are, first, that all people are akin to each other, meaning literally that every man can trace through some line of ancestry to a progenitor common to him and every other man in his nation or community; secondly, that the system of giving any special importance to the male line of ancestry is an error, both in fact and in theory.

Mr. Kendall, at some period in his career as a great original thinker, awoke to the fact that as a man has two parents, four grandparents, eight in the next degree, and so onward, he could figure out that in the twentieth generation he had 1,048,576 ancestors, and in the thirty-second degree he had 4,294,967,296. At this point, overcome perhaps by the difficult mathematical calculation, he paused to deduce various theories and laws from the result. He found that twenty generations, or seven centuries, brought him to the date of the conquest of England. His number of ancestors was equal to the population of England; hence they were identical. Moreover, every other living Englishman, with a lead pencil in hand, could make the same calculation with the same result; the necessary conclusion was, that all living Englishmen are cousins in at least the twentieth degree.

Fired with this unexpected and truly inspiring revelation, Mr. Kendall has beaten out his gold over a relatively large surface, and has attempted to fortify his position by various diagrams and columns of figures, all of which, however, add nothing to his original discovery. They are at best but melancholy evidences of the tenderness which he has felt for his intellectual bantling. His reasoning is unsound besides being directly contradicted by history. The plain fact is, that his tables merely show the *greatest* number of ancestors a man could have. In eight generations this number is 256. But the least number which an animal can have is two in each generation, and the least that any man requires is four in each generation after the first.

That is to say, with beasts, if one pair have issue a male and female, and these reproduce with like issue, the breed may last indefinitely, yet with only two examples in each generation. In mankind, civilized mankind at least, the intermarriage of first cousins is allowed. If, therefore, two pair exist at any one date, so long as each marriage produces one male and one female, there will be in each generation two pair of first cousins, legally qualified to mate and continue the race. This is absolutely all that is required. Instead of 256 ancestors in the eighth generation, the man of to-day requires only four ancestors in that degree, to have an ancestry free from intermarriage within the forbidden degrees.

But if in any generation we assume the existence in any locality of more than two pairs, say twenty or fifty married couples and if we allow them in some instances more then two children to a marriage, we have a provision for the continuance of a race for many generations, and of very varied numbers in each generation. Some children may have died without issue, families may have been large in one generation and small in another; but there is nothing in natural laws that necessitates any regular ratio of increase or decrease, except, as above stated, that every man and woman alive to-day must have had two parents in each generation, and ought to have had four ancestors after the second generation in each step backward.

Reason, therefore, disposes entirely of Mr. Kendall's absurd logic. History, so far as we know, entirely confirms this. It is not only possible for a race to continue for many generations without admixture of foreign blood, but such has been the rule and not the exception. All traditions older than the most ancient records point to the establishment of races or clans, having one progenitor, and preserving as carefully as possible the integrity of the strain. To come to more recent times, we find in England a race, or portions of several races, Angles, Saxons, Celts, and Danes; the result has not been any thorough mixture, but every county has preserved a marked individuality. The Welshman, the Yorkshire man, and the Kentish man do not find a common ancestor at the date of the recolonization of the island. The Highlander of Scotland is, during the historic period, as distinct from the Englishman in blood as in language.

New Englanders can give Mr. Kendall many facts which would teach him to modify his wild theories. Their history covers nearly the whole period during which pedigrees can be traced. An infinitesimal portion only of the Englishmen of to-day can trace their ancestry beyond 1630, because the parish records in England do not exist, and, in fact, were kept only for two generations before that date. Even for the time since 1630, the facilities for tracing the pedigrees of the common people in England are much less than they are here. But in New England we find little communities established, and we can see just what law has governed their growth. The result is, that in one of these towns the population increased, but the intermarriages were mainly confined to the people of the town; and at the present time nearly all of the inhabitants are connected by blood, and trace back to the few original colonists. But a few miles away a similar community has flourished, and the groups remain entirely distinct. There is no chance for doubt, because the records remain and thousands of people can trace out their ancestry on each ascending line up to the first settlers.

What has taken place there for two centuries took place in England for two, four, or six centuries prior to 1600. Each hamlet there was the centre of a race so long as that race continued; but it was not mixed often with any adjoining race, and never with any remote race. Instead of the vast intermingling of lines in the person of each man now living, which is Mr. Kendall's preposterous surmise, the fact is that no two men, excepting brothers, will possess the same ratio of admixture. In one man whose ancestors have dwelt for five or six centuries in one village, the distinct lines would be very few and often crossed. Another man may possess some approximation to Mr. Kendall's idea, and double the lines in nearly every generation; but this calls for an incredible amount of wandering and wedding, entirely beyond the capability of the poorer classes in early times. Still, in every case, nothing must be taken on surmise; but when the evidence fails, the theorist must strike out the example.

Mr. Kendall makes this wild statement:

"That every Englishman has descended, not only from the Conqueror, but from each of his sixty thousand companions that is still represented by anybody in the land, aye, and from several sixty thousands of Anglo-Saxons besides who were living at the same time, is precisely what is here affirmed, and, it is hoped, made sufficiently clear."

The answer to this is obvious. The greater portion of the lineal descendants of William the Conqueror are recorded. The male lines of course are known. Some of the female lines have probably fallen into obscurity, but a fair conclusion would be that those unknown lines terminated as often as the recognized ones did. Hence we can, with a little trouble, work out the problem, and we shall find that instead of forty millions of descendants, there are at most but a few thousands. Moreover, we must allow that there has always been a tendency in England, since the Norman Conquest, to maintain caste distinctions, especially in marriages. The nobles married in their own rank, and though occasionally, especially in female lines, the rule has been relaxed, the descent has been very gradual. This tendency is exactly paralleled by the restrictions forced upon the lower classes by poverty and restriction of habitat. The serfs around the castle intermarried and kept the race alive. Occasionally, we will allow, the blood of a king filtered through the rank of the higher nobility, thence to the lower nobility, the gentry, the yeomen, the laborers, even to the lowest degree; but it is for the person who claims that such descent occurred to prove its existence and its extent. Wherever it occurred, it affected only one locality or race, and innumerable other races have continued to the present day untouched thereby. In fact, the error of Mr. Kendall's theory lies in one word: he says that every Englishman to-day is descended from *every* Englishman living in A.D. 1100 who has descendants now. The word "every" is wrong. The truth is, that every Englishman is probably descended from one Englishman, or more, who was alive in A.D. 1100; but no one knows how many of such progenitors he had, and the number probably varies in each case.

As to Mr. Kendall's second hobby, that it is absurd to trace pedigrees only in the male line, or to suppose that the paternal grandfather in the eighth degree represents more than one two hundred and fifty-sixth part of the man of to-day, there is a possible truth and a palpable fallacy therein. Pedigrees are traced and names are assumed for convenience in identifying persons. If the name was to show the ancestry, each of the 256 lines would claim a word or a syllable. Therefore some selection must be made, and naturally either the male or the female line must be chosen exclusively. A man or woman is named by his father's surname, and he by his father's, and so on, as far as we can trace. The other alternative would be to trace exclusively through the female line—that is, the husband instead of the wife would lose his surname at marriage, and the mother's name would descend to her posterity. But this selection ignores all but one line out of the 256 as much as our present system does, and is no more scientific.

Yet there is some strong ground for our present custom, viz., the natural desire to trace by the ruling side. When women occupy the inferior place which they do in barbarous communities, the son clings to his father as his protector and benefactor. Hence he desires to be known as the son of his father, and transmits

the tradition to later generations. Moreover, the physical resemblance between two men leads the father to feel that a son is nearer to him than a daughter. The son can take the father's place, and, as all descendants cannot be equally designated, the selection of the male line is easily understood.

Mr. Kendall, however, opens up a line of thought which has never been fully traced out when he argues that each of a man's progenitors, not only is essential to his existence, which is a truism, but also has contributed equally to make him what he is. The first statement is a mere platitude: everything that has been is essential to whatever is. The second may admit of doubt, and it lies at the foundation of the doctrine of heredity. Is it true or not that each of a man's eight great-grandparents contribute equally to make him what he is, bodily and mentally? Or, more briefly, does a man derive his body and mind equally from his father and his mother? Is it not evident that if any type is perpetuated, one side or the other must greatly preponderate? In mankind, if this be true, does not the preponderance vary in different cases, and can we yet discern either the facts or the law governing them? These questions are settled off-hand by Mr. Kendall, but what say the authorities? The most that we can feel warranted in saying is, that the common belief seems to be that the paternal line is the stronger, and is most frequently perpetuated, but that exceptions are numerous. Perhaps it would be fair to allow that different races or families vary, and that the influence of a female of some stock may predominate over that of the male of another stock. In subsequent crossings, indeed, this female line may finally overcome all others, and a man may reproduce, not the image of his paternal ancestor, but of the father of some one in some line of maternal ancestry. In other words, if he have in some generation 256 ancestors, he may most strongly resemble one to whom his relationship is traced neither solely by the male nor by the female line. But this is an idle suggestion, since if we could collect the evidence of the fact, we could not apply the knowledge to any purpose to affect the character of our progeny.

Mr. Kendall calls his work 'Genealogy Viewed as a Science.' For the present, that science will continue to be the mere collection of facts to gratify a certain feeling of pride or affection towards one's relatives within certain narrow limits. The idea that Mr. Kendall's unfounded pretence that all living men are allied in blood is to lead to a millennium, is too preposterous to consider. He throws it in as a moral tag to his essay. It is safe to say that the knowledge by A that he is a cousin in the twentieth degree to B will in no way affect his action towards B. The ties of family are largely sentimental, and perhaps less strong than writers usually assume. Like all other feelings, this one is strong or weak in different persons. But Mr. Kendall will not regenerate mankind by the watchword of universal cousinship.

This book would be utterly unworthy of notice but for the fact that the author has so elaborated his story that some readers might think there must be a basis somewhere. A very little examination, however, will show, as usual, that what is new is false and what is true is old, very old. Mankind can continue to transmit family names exclusively in the male lines, can count up only such cousins as the subject pleases, and may decline to recognize any neighbor as a relative without documentary proof, just as if Mr. Kendall had never muddled his intellect in confounding remote possibilities with unvarying necessities.

OLIVIER RAYET.

Études d'Archéologie et d'Art. Par Olivier Rayet, Professeur d'Archéologie à la Bibliothèque Nationale. Réunies et publiées, avec une notice biographique sur l'auteur, par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Firmin-Didot. 1888. 8vo., pp. xvi and 462.

In the death of Olivier Rayet, which occurred in February, 1887, France lost one of the most brilliant archæologists her School in Athens has yet produced. It has, to be sure, trained men of more profound minds, and men whose original contributions to the science of archæology have been more valuable; but there are few, even in France, whose sympathy for Greek art has been so sensitive, and whose power of imparting their appreciation of it to others has been so great. It is impossible to read his writings without catching his enthusiasm for his subject, and without admiring the exquisite discrimination with which that enthusiasm is tempered. Although not forty years old when he died, he had made himself a name that is familiar wherever there is any interest in Greek art, not only in the narrow circle of specialists, but equally among artists, collectors, and dilettants; and in his short career had attained the highest honors to which the French scholar can aspire, having succeeded Beulé and Fr. Lenormant in the Chair of Archæology at the Bibliothèque Nationale, and Foucart at the Collège de France. Although a victim of malaria, which he contracted in the early part of his career, his energy was equal to his ambition, so that in addition to his duties as lecturer and editor of the antique department of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, he edited the most beautiful work on Greek sculpture we possess, his 'Monuments de l'Art Antique,' a great part of which he wrote himself; he began a history of Greek ceramics, which was completed after his death by his younger colleague, M. Collignon (see *Nation* No. 1213); and when his last illness overtook him, he was preparing a volume on Miletos, (where he had conducted an archæological campaign), a work on the topography of Athens, and a history of Greek sculpture. Besides these, the miscellaneous essays and studies he has left are sufficient to fill two volumes, the first of which is now before us.

Rayet was born at Cairou, in the south of France, September 23, 1847. To his southern origin he undoubtedly owed the impetuosity as well as the enthusiasm which often characterized his writings. He was educated in Paris, first in the Lycée Bonaparte, then in the École Normale, from which he graduated in 1869 as *premier agrégé* in history. This honor entitled him to become a member of the French School at Athens, an opportunity which he improved, although, as M. Reinach informs us in the sympathetic notice which precedes these Études, he was neither archæologist nor epigraphist at the time. Rome was then more interesting to him than Athens, and history more than archæology. Leaving Paris the year of his graduation, he went first to Italy, and was brought face to face with Greek remains in Pæstum and Sicily, whence he went to Athens. The next year seems to have been divided between Greece itself and the shores of Asia Minor. He was fortunate in being at hand when the first discoveries of terra-cottas at Tanagra were announced in Athens, and his fine artistic perception showed him the value of this hitherto neglected side of Greek art long before the fame of these figurines spread through Europe. To this circumstance is due the fact that the Louvre now possesses the finest collection of Tanagras in the world. Rayet bought them when they were first offered in the market, and before the dealers had discovered that it was worth while to counterfeit them. Collector as well as student, he became familiar with the methods and the devices of dealers and clandestine excavators to an extent which is impossible to-day, and was then to all but a very few; and consequently two of his most valuable papers are the essay on the "Figurines de Tanagra au Louvre" ('Études,' pp. 275-324), and that which accompanies plate 77 of the 'Monuments,' in which his account of the first excavations at Tanagra has, as Reinach says, all the value of an original deposition.

While on a trip through Asia Minor, in the summer of 1870, news of the Franco-Prussian war reached him and carried him back to France, where he took some part in the latter portion of the war. His work was thus interrupted until the spring of the following year, from which time until his death he devoted himself to Greek art and archæology. Returning to Athens, he contributed a number of studies to the *Bulletin* of his School. In 1872 he was able to undertake a scheme which he had cherished since his first visit to Asia Minor, and to gratify the natural instinct of every archæologist—the passion to excavate. The opportunity to do this he owed to MM. Gustave and Edmond de Rothschild, whose acquaintance he made that year, and whom he so interested in Miletos as a promising site for excavation that he was charged by them with a commission to investigate the place at their expense. The history of the undertaking is comprised in two of the most interesting essays in this volume of 'Études,' in which, with admirable taste and graphic pen, he has set forth the vexations and hardships which counterbalance the pleasures and triumphs of archæological field-work. To those who wish to form an idea of the perseverance, the courage, and the energy, not less than the knowledge, required for this kind of work, these two essays may be especially commended.

In spite of all the qualities which Rayet, aided by the architect M. Albert Thomas, brought to the work, this campaign cannot be regarded as one of the most successful parts of his career. A number of fine architectural fragments were brought to light, though as a whole not to be compared with the discoveries at Ephesus, which Rayet doubtless hoped to emulate; and enough of the lines of the building were uncovered to enable M. Thomas to make a restoration of it. But the difficulties of bringing their task to anything like a successful completion were insuperable, and in the following summer (1873) they returned to France. Rayet, who had caught the fever of the country, carried away with him, as his most important trophy of the campaign, the germs of the disease which tormented the last years of his life, and caused his premature end. For the next ten years his time and energy were taken up with the literary and professional labors we have described, until, shortly after his appointment as professor at the Bibliothèque Nationale in 1884, he was obliged to give up all work, and yield to the physical exhaustion in which he passed the last two years of his life. Brief as was his career, he has left behind him a record of which a much older man might well be proud, and the excellence of what he had already accomplished renders so much the keener our regret that his life should have been cut off in the first flower of its maturity.

Rayet's greatest ability was as a popularizer and critic of the work of others, rather than as an original investigator; for although a thorough scholar and a careful worker, his

original theories were often of an extreme character, and, ingeniously supported as they were, have usually failed of general acceptance. On the other hand, gifted, as we have said, with extreme artistic sensitiveness, and a thorough master of that style which makes French prose the most delightful reading in the world, few men have equalled him in analyzing the beauties of Greek art, and placing them in their true light before readers who are not archæologists. It is in the artistic side of the science of archæology that the French school has always surpassed the German, for the reason that no modern race has such close sympathy with the artistic instincts of the Greeks; and in this characteristic of his countrymen Rayet was preëminent.

This being the case, these 'Études' show him at his best. They are a collection of occasional essays which have appeared before, most of them in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*. We have referred above to two of them—those on the Tanagra Figurines in the Louvre, and the Temple of Apollo at Miletos. With regard to the latter, it is to be regretted that some reproductions of M. Thomas's drawings and restorations could not have been inserted in the volume, since the essay was written to describe these when they were exhibited at the Salon, and without them it is difficult to follow the description. Of the other essays we cannot speak at length, but there are two which we may recommend especially. That on "Les Antiques de St.-Pétersbourg" contains the best description we know of the marvellous collection of Greek jewelry and ceramics found in the Crimea, of which it is not too much to say that, were all the other museums in the world to select their finest specimens of these arts, they could not make up its equal for beauty; yet in its present abode it is almost as unappreciated by the world at large as before it was brought to light. Finally, the essay on "Les Antiques au Musée de Berlin" contains (pp. 261–267) what seems to us the finest criticism of the Pergamenian sculptures that has yet appeared. In these few pages the brilliancy of his style and the acuteness of his judgment are displayed at their best; and there is perhaps no paragraph in the book that shows these characteristic qualities better than that in which he summarizes the Laocoön as "un acteur qui étudie son rôle, et cherche devant sa glace l'effet que produit la contraction de son visage." What would Winckelmann and the men of his time have thought of such heresy?

Forging His Chains. The Autobiography of George Bidwell. New York: George Bidwell, 124 Nassau Street. 1888.

In one of his inimitable character sketches the late Artemus Ward describes his hero as having been in early life "engaged in business as a malefactor in western New York," and the description applies accurately to the writer of this volume. With sufficient ability to earn an honest living, he preferred to devote himself to the systematic practice of fraud, simply because it seemed to be the easiest way of making money. Even after he had secured a competence by his crimes, and might have retired with the praise accorded by mankind to those who do well to themselves, he continued to steal until justice put a sudden and permanent restraint upon his operations. He was sentenced for life on account of a series of gigantic forgeries perpetrated upon the Bank of England, and, having succeeded after fourteen years of incarceration in procuring his release on a ticket-of-leave, he is now endeavoring to earn a little money honestly by the sale of this book. As his punishment seems to have been both severe and efficacious, we feel justified in commending the work to whom it may concern as interesting and instructive.

We do not feel disposed, however, to concur with the reverend chaplain of a New Jersey penitentiary in commending it to the Presbytery of Jersey City, or—but for its size—to all Sunday-schools. We are aware that the lives of deceased saints are not generally found so edifying as they ought to be, and that there has been a good deal of wit—somewhat cheap wit, it is true—expended upon the memoirs of good little boys who died young; we will even admit with Mr. Augustine Birrell that the life of a rogue like Cellini has irresistible charms: but we think that even the ordinary Sunday-school book might be preferable for boys and girls to the biographies of repentant rascals. Conceding the natural depravity of the human heart, we apprehend that it may better be corrected by the atmosphere of virtue than by the exhibition of examples of even unsuccessful vice. The lives of Abraham, of Isaac and of Jacob, of Samson and David and Solomon, may not have been in all respects immaculate, but they constitute a better propædeutic than those of Dick Turpin and Jack Shepard. Doubtless a Sunday-school concert with recitations from the Newgate Calendar, and with admonitory chants, such as—

> "You've carved your epitaph, Claude Duval,
> With your chisel so bright, tra, la,"

might convey a moral lesson; but, upon the whole, we should select other means of instruction for children of tender age.

There is, however, a lesson of great importance taught very forcibly by this book. It shows, far more impressively than any treatise of jurisprudence, the immense value to society of its penal system. The example of Bidwell and his associates proves that there are many men so devoid of conscience that only the terrors of the penitentiary avail to check their predatory instincts. The discovery of anything like confidence in their honesty is so far from arousing their moral sense that it rather appeals to their rapacity. Any unguarded spot, any opportunity for fraud in the transactions of commerce, affects them as rats are affected by a hole in the meal-chest. It is not the loftiest kind of morality that is produced by reflecting upon or experiencing the consequences of wrong-doing; but if society can get nothing better, it must, at all events, have this. The cruel treatment of convicts, so feelingly described by this writer, is indeed deplorable; but his own story shows how difficult it is to remedy this abuse. He had received the kindest treatment from a doctor, whom he described as a noble-hearted Christian gentleman, and yet he was induced to denounce this benefactor to the prison authorities. The disregard for truth among criminals is so complete that it is in many cases impossible for human ingenuity to discover whether they are lying or not, and the outrages which they falsely declare they suffer prevent the investigation of those which are real. Reading between the lines of this book, we are convinced that the English prisons in the main are well managed, and that most of the cruelties described are occasioned by the wilful misconduct of those who suffer them.

Plutarch's Morals. Ethical Essays translated with Notes and Index by Arthur R. Shilleto, M.A. 1 vol., pp. 408. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1888.

It is a reproach to human nature and a proof of its indifference to ethics that Plutarch's 'Morals' is not as well known and appreciated as his 'Lives.' These essays are characterized by the same learning and spirit as the more celebrated work, and supported by a personal life equal to that of the best and purest men of Greece and Rome. Emerson said that he was more indebted to Plutarch than to all other ancient writers, and the merits of this book show the ground of such a confession. The essays are a perfect anthology of ethical incidents and maxims regarding private and social virtues. They are in no sense theoretical discussions, but the moral reflections of a man equally interested in history, poetry, practical life, and philosophy. It is a tribute to the universality and soundness of his judgment that he could present the maxims of an ideal life without embroiling himself in the controversies about pleasure and pain that so distinguish the philosophy and moral reflections of Plutarch's race, the Greeks, and which everywhere provincialize the subject of ethics. It is not too much to say of his essays that they would be more useful and suggestive to students, not for theories, but for subjects productive of healthy thought, than any of the pedagogical systems of ethics usually dealt out to them.

The course of ethics in our ordinary colleges is a disgrace to the present civilization. No doubt the difficulties in making ethics interesting are great, and perhaps the greatest of these is the instinctive disposition of this individualistic age to resist all hortatory discourse as an attempt to infringe upon personal liberty. Ethics to the ordinary mind have the disagreeable feature of a *duty*, reflected from an age that has given it the color and associations of dogmatism and authority; but the reflections of Plutarch are free from a disadvantage of this kind, because they have no personal interest in the beliefs and assumptions supposed to condition the ethics of the present day.

Into the contents of the book we cannot enter. It is enough to say that the collection of "conjugal precepts" are as interesting material for the study of sociology as they are remarkably humane in spirit, and come up to the level of the best attainments even of the present, if we allow some exceptions which have to be made as a concession to environment. The "consolatory letter to his wife" on the death of a daughter is one of the noblest relics of antiquity, and in piety and purity is equal to anything that Christian thought has produced.

Gibraltar. By Henry M. Field. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1888. Pp. 139.

There is much that is entertaining in Dr. Field's account of his visit to Gibraltar. He naturally begins with the fortifications, saying, among other things, that the increase in the size of the guns and their calibre is greater since 1870, when "there were seven hundred guns in position on the Rock," than in the century previous. A description of the presentation of colors to one of the regiments, a chapter upon the great siege, a few words on the contraband trade and the relations of Spain and England, together with a detailed account of the courtesies shown the author by prominent officials, make up the remainder of the book. If the reader expects to get any real, living picture of the strange town which has grown up under the great cliff, its motley inhabitants, their modes of life, and their occupations, he will be disappointed. Dr. Field has nothing to say of a score of things about which we should have liked and should have looked for information in a book devoted to a single town, as, for instance, the sources of its food and water supply, the trade of the place, especially with Af-

rica, the relative number of the different nationalities living in it, and their position as regards each other. There is not a word even of the inhabitants who antedate all others, Moors, Spaniards, and Englishmen—the historic Barbary apes—nor any mention of the famous caves, with their beautiful clustered stalactites. Despite its attractive appearance and its interesting pictures, the chief impression which the book leaves is that Dr. Field had a very pleasant time in Gibraltar.

Letters to a King. By Albion W. Tourgée, LL.D. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe; New York: Phillips & Hunt.

THOSE who have read the previous works of Mr. Tourgée will scarcely need to be told what qualities distinguish the present volume. There is the same childlike delight in military similes and metaphors, the same tawdry splendor of diction, the same profuse verbiage, the same "bumptiousness," and withal the same flashes of vigorous common sense. If the author would confine himself to the humble office of giving practical advice, he might exert a considerable influence; but he must needs set up as a political philosopher, a part which he is fitted neither by temperament nor by education to assume. Whether he has read the works of Rousseau or not we cannot say; but the theories that he propounds belong to the era of the French Revolution. They have been modified to suit American conditions, but their essence is of unmistakable origin.

The "king" to whom these letters are addressed is the individual voter of this country, and his sovereignty consists in the exercise of the right of suffrage. In plain language, what Mr. Tourgée attempts to do is to urge the voters of this country to discharge their trust conscientiously; but in order to enforce his suggestions he constructs an elaborate scheme of political maxims, the merit of which is open to considerable question. Thus he lays it down that popular government is based upon certain postulates, viz., that a majority of the people will always be wise enough to know what is right, honest enough to demand it, and vigilant enough to secure it. *Vox populi, vox dei.* With such a creed as this, no political morality is possible except the merest opportunism. Equally unsatisfactory is the theory that there always has been and always will be one and the same issue in national politics, upon which there must be an eternal division of the people into two parties. History needs to be violently strained in order to countenance such a theory as this.

Having divided his "kings" into two parties, to one of which it is a religious duty for every man to belong, Mr. Tourgée easily demonstrates that the caucus is as sacred an institution as the party, and thus his constructive work is apparently complete. Every voter must belong to a party, attend the primary, and vote for delegates to the conventions. When the conventions have nominated, it is the duty of the voters to support the candidates of their party. This is simple enough, but Mr. Tourgée's passion for theorizing leads him to introduce some needless complications. The party, it appears, has entered into a contract with every one of its members that the will of the majority shall be honestly ascertained, that it will devote itself to the great issue upon which it was formed, that it will adopt only proper measures, and employ only capable, reputable, and loyal representatives. This "contrat social" is, of course, a mere fiction, and a confusing one. That abstraction, "the party" cannot enter into a contract, nor could there be any sanction for such a contract if it were entered into. Young Americans will get no good by groping among such theories as this, and they will be likely to understand their Government better by bearing it constantly in mind that a party can by no possibility have any existence except in the minds of the men that compose it.

Taking it for granted, however, that Mr. Tourgée only means that when a number of men combine for a common purpose, they must do so upon certain terms, express or implied, he yet seems to become hopelessly involved upon the question of party allegiance. The member of the party, after all, is obliged to support the party only "so far as it is possible to do so without the sacrifice of convictions which he deems of paramount importance to those his party represents." This concession is inconsistent with the theory of the book, and is fatal to strict party discipline. It expresses very nearly the views of the independent voter, and the rant over the Mugwumps might as well have been omitted. Mr. Tourgée would have done wisely to study the history of the Protestant Reformation, and especially the history of the rival doctrines of authority and of individual judgment, before grappling with this question.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Besant, W. For Faith and Freedom. A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Brown, Mary E. and W. A. Musical Instruments and their Homes. Illustrated in Pen and Ink by W. A. Brown. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bryce, J. Two Centuries of Irish History, 1691–1870. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. $4.
Craddock, Charles Egbert. The Despot of Broomsedge Cove. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Davidson, J. W. The Florida of To-day: A Guide for Tourists and Settlers. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Dilke, Lady. Art in the Modern State. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Eugène—Fasnacht. Course of French Composition. I. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Farjeon, B. L. The Peril of Richard Pardon: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Fuller, Sarah. An Illustrated Primer. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Geological Survey of New Jersey. Final Report of the State Geologist. Vol. I. Topography, Magnetism, Climate. Trenton: John L. Murphy Publishing Co.
Gibson, G. R. The Stock Exchanges of London, Paris, and New York: A Comparison. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hale, E. E. Sunday School Stories on the Golden Texts of the International Lessons of 1889. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hill, G. B. Letters of David Hume to William Strahan. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 10s.
Jacob, G. Arabic Biblo-Chrestomathy. With a Glossary. B. Westermann & Co. 90 cents.
Kelton, Capt. D. H. Indian Names of Places near the Great Lakes. Vol. I. Detroit.
Lawrence, J. B. What to Do in Cases of Accident and Emergencies. J. H. Vail & Co.
Leaf, W. The Iliad. With English Notes and Introduction. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Lock, J. B. Elementary Statics. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Matteson, Mrs. Frank. Notes on the Early Training of Children. 3d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Monro, D. B. Homer's Iliad, Books XIII.—XXIV. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 4s. 6d.
Nestle, Dr. E. Syriac Grammar, with Bibliography, Chrestomathy, and Glossary. B. Westermann & Co. $3.00.
Patrick, G. T. W. The Fragments of the Work of Heraclitus of Ephesus on Nature. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Platt, Sarah M. B. The Witch in the Glass: Poems, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Primer, Prof. S. Chamisso's Peter Schlemihl. Boston: Charles H. Kilborn.
Prost, J. C. A. Le Marquis de Jouffroy d'Abbans, Inventeur de l'Application de la Vapeur à la Navigation. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Richardson, B. W. The Son of a Star: A Romance of the Second Century. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Robinson, A. Mary F. The End of the Middle Ages: Essays and Questions in History. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Robinson, C. S. Laudes Domini: A Selection of Spiritual Songs, Ancient and Modern, for the Sunday-School. The Century Co. 35 cents.
Rowell, G. P. New York Charities Directory. Charity Organization Society.
Schreiner, Olive. The Story of an African Farm: A Novel. Rand, McNally & Co.
The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, in German French and English in parallel columns. Laidlaw Brothers & Co.
The Luck of Edenhall. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.
The Nun of Kenmare: An Autobiography. Boston: Ticknor & Co
The Religious Condition of New York City. Addresses in Chickering Hall, Dec. 3, 4, and 5, 1888. The Baker & Taylor Co. 50 cents.
The World of Cant. J. S. Ogilvie. 50 cents.
Thomas, R. Through Death to Life. Discourses on St. Paul's Great Resurrection Chapter. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Tyler, L. Chess: A Christmas Masque. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Walworth, Jeannette H. The History of New York, in Words of One Syllable. Illustrated. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. A Strange Pilgrimage. A. L. Burt. 25 cents.
Wilkie, F. B. Pen and Powder. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Wormeley, Katherine Prescott. The Other Side of War: With the Army of the Potomac. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $2.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 10, 1889.

The Week.

It is, of course, not easy to say exactly what Gen. Harrison meant by his remarks to the Grand Army post at Indianapolis, about "standing shoulder to shoulder as we did during the war to preserve a free and honest ballot," and about the danger of a "corrupt and suppressed ballot." We hope it meant something specific. We have during the past fifteen years heard a great deal of this sort of talk from Republican politicians without its meaning anything at all. When Gen. Harrison talks of a "free and honest ballot" "or a corrupt and suppressed ballot," he most probably means the ballot at the South, and not the ballot in Indiana or New York But, unfortunately, although Republicans talk much about the Southern ballot, they never tell us what they mean to do to improve it. Gen. Harrison does not tell us what he means by "standing shoulder to shoulder" when the bugle blows. What does this figure of speech foreshadow—a Constitutional amendment? an act of Congress or joint resolution setting up a pure ballot at the South? If none of these, what?

We see by a despatch to the *New York Times* from Indianapolis that

"among the politicians, however, it is pretty well agreed that Gen. Harrison means to have a vigorous Southern policy—one that will resemble the policy of Thad Stevens and Ben Wade. Most of the Republican politicians here are in favor of such a policy, and their bias that way perhaps makes them put a stronger interpretation on Gen. Harrison's words than they will bear. It is a fact, though, that the idea which his comrades of the Grand Army post who heard him make the speech gathered, and held when they came out of the meeting, was, that Gen. Harrison believed that the Republican party ought to rule in the Southern States, and that it would be his business to see that it did rule, even if it should take the most rigorous measures."

Is it not too bad that such rubbish should be talked among politicians in the hundredth year of the Constitution? Of course Gen. Harrison does not mean that he will overturn the Constitution and set up a dictatorship at the South, or be any more "rigorous" to any human being than the law of the land allows. The only sternness that he could show the South would consist in filling Federal offices exclusively with the ignorant and disreputable people who, in the Southern States, comprise the great bulk of the Republican party; but how this would help the cause of ballot-reform does not clearly appear. Unhappily, if we may judge from the experience of the past, loud Republican talk about the electoral abuses in the South usually means a determination not to reform abuses nearer home which are completely within our reach. If anybody has a plan for securing free and pure voting at the South, let us see it and discuss it. If he has not, let him give his time and attention to several plans for securing free and pure elections at the North which are now before the public.

The enormous difficulties of this Southern ballot question are well illustrated by the failure now announced of the Northern and Southern Presbyterian Assemblies to agree on a plan of union. The negro has been found an insuperable obstacle. The Northern Assembly wants him to be admitted on a footing of perfect equality in church membership and church government. The Southern Assembly absolutely refuses this, and says that if it were a practical question for the Northern Assembly, it would decide it in the same manner—a view which gets much color from the treatment the negro experiences in Northern hotels, churches, and society and politics. The truth is, that the way the negro question, like the pew question, is settled in church organizations depends largely on how seriously people take their Christianity. If they take it only with such seriousness as will not interfere with their comfort, they will keep both the negro and the ill-flavored white man out of the church. If they accept it absolutely, without qualification or conditions, just as they profess it in prayer and preaching, neither the negro nor the ill-flavored white man will give any trouble.

The Democratic Governor of the Southern State of Georgia shows a much clearer conception of the Constitution than most Republican speakers and writers in the North. The Legislature recently passed a special school bill for the city of Macon, which provided that the taxes paid by white persons should be spent in maintaining schools for white children exclusively, and that the colored schools should receive only the proceeds of taxes paid by colored people. This was undoubtedly an attempt to do what is explicitly forbidden by the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, in the clause declaring that "no State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," inasmuch as the proposed policy would abridge the privilege of such citizens of Macon as are colored to an equal share with other citizens in the enjoyment of the money raised by the taxation of all citizens for school purposes. The measure was also obnoxious to the State Constitution, as well as opposed to sound public policy, and on these grounds Gov. Gordon vetoed it. Similar propositions have been mooted before in other Southern States, but the fate of the Georgia experiment will probably put an end to them.

If this bill had been enacted into law and enforced, there would have been a case for action by the Federal Government under the fifth section of the Fourteenth Amendment, which provides that "the Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article." But it seems not to be understood by most northern Republicans who write flippantly upon the subject of the new Administration's "Southern policy," that in the absence of some obnoxious State action, the Federal Government has no right to interfere when things go wrong in a State. The Supreme Court took the utmost pains to make this point clear in the decision annulling the Civil Rights Act on the ground of its unconstitutionality. "Until some State law has been passed," said the Court, "or some State action through its officers or agents has been taken, adverse to the rights of citizens sought to be protected by the Fourteenth Amendment, no legislation of the United States under said amendment, nor any proceedings under such legislation, can be called into activity; for the prohibitions of the amendment are against State laws and acts done under State authority."

It is very noticeable that Democratic sentiment in other States than New York does not sympathize with Gov. Hill's objections to an exclusively official ballot, printed, marked, and distributed only by sworn State officials. His idea that official and unofficial ballots should both be received at the ballot-boxes finds no advocates anywhere. The Indianapolis *Sentinel* says that no law which does not put the printing and distributing of the ballots entirely into the hands of the State "would be worth the time and trouble involved in securing its passage," and that "a moment's reflection will convince any intelligent person that State-printed and distributed tickets constitute the key to any real reform in our election system." Similar in tone is the utterance of another Democratic newspaper, the Chicago *Globe:* "The law must take the voting paper into its own hands exclusively. The law must initiate it, print it, hold it, guard it, protect it against the touch of any person not its own authorized agent, and deliver it to the voter as he approaches to vote, out of the reach of all other persons." Gov. Morehouse of Missouri, in his message to the Legislature, gives emphatic expression to the same sentiment, and urges as models for a law in Missouri the new Massachusetts ballot act and the one vetoed by Gov. Hill last year. So far as our observation goes—and we have watched the current of discussion very closely—not a single advocate of the reform in any party has sustained the positions taken by Gov. Hill in his latest utterances.

There is now scarcely a Northern State in which active steps are not being taken to secure the enactment of a ballot-reform law, and in a large number bills are either pending before the Legislatures or are ready for introduction. There are bills in some stage of development in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island,

Connecticut, Indiana, Missouri, Maine, Michigan, and Illinois; as well as in South Carolina and Alabama. Massachusetts has passed a complete law, and there are laws in Kentucky and Wisconsin embodying special applications of the law to cities. In every instance in which the experiment has been put into practice, as in the cities of Milwaukee and Louisville, it has worked so successfully as to silence all hostile criticism. There is, in fact, nothing to be said against the reform except that it will destroy the business of the professional politicians who have for so many years managed our elections for their own personal benefit, and to the detriment of the public interest. It is very evident that public sentiment is so thoroughly aroused to the need of the reform that the efforts of the politicians to block the way of it cannot prevail for any long time.

Senator Edmunds's resolution, expressing the serious concern and disapproval with which Congress would look upon any connection of any European Government with the construction or control of any canal across the Isthmus of Darien or across Central America, was passed by the Senate with only three dissenting votes, and would have passed unanimously but for the clause in it which requests the President to communicate "this expression of the views of the Government of the United States" to the Governments of Europe. There is certainly room for difference of opinion among the friends of the resolution as to this part of it. The Executive is the sole organ of communication with foreign powers, and it may be rightfully, or at all events honestly, held that Congress cannot put into his mouth the form of words he shall use in such communications, or prescribe the time and manner of making them. The resolution, as passed by the Senate, strictly interpreted, would require the President to make a fair copy of the text and send it to each of our representatives abroad. It is "this expression," not any different one, longer or shorter, that he is requested to transmit. It would be much more comformable to the line of safe precedent to leave the time and manner of making the communication to the President's discretion. It is altogether likely that the President would choose his own time and manner even if the resolution were to pass the House exactly as it has passed the Senate. Moreover, no harm could come from the exercise of his discretion in the premises, since all the Governments of Europe will be possessed of our views on the subject-matter without any formal communication of them.

A petition has been extensively circulated asking Congress to allow a refund of duties on tin plates imported and used for the canning industries. Under the present law a drawback of such duties is allowed on cans exported to foreign countries. That is to say, if a packer of fruits, meats, oysters, fish, vegetables, etc., has actually exported $10,000 worth of tin cans, he can collect back from the Treasury about $3,400, that being the amount of duty paid for the tin plates of which the cans were made. The petition recites this law, and then argues that, because the domestic use of tin cans is temporary, since they become useless as soon as they are opened, the same drawback should be allowed as in case of exportation. The analogy does not seem to be perfect. A drawback is allowed in exportation because the exporter must meet foreign competition, which is a very different thing from the temporary use of a can in the home market. What is temporary use? The farmer's wife uses a tin pan until it is worn out, but this use is temporary. A roofer uses tin plates until the weather destroys them, but this use, as all householders know, is temporary. The canner uses tin cans until he sells them, or until they are opened in order that their contents may be consumed. All these uses are alike temporary. Is there any reason why the canner for the home market should be preferred above the farmer's wife, the roofer, or the workman who carries his dinner in a tin pail? The petition is a new attempt to get rid of the evils of a tariff without attacking its principles, like cutting a hole in a tight shoe, or "whipping the devil around the stump." It is probably pushed in the interest of those who want the duty on tin plates increased, but who fear the opposition of the canning industries.

It is announced that the movement for the exclusion of foreign stock actors has been practically abandoned by its originators, and that no formal argument for it will be made before the Congressional Committee. Simultaneously with this announcement comes another one, that Messrs. Booth and Barrett, whose names alone made the proposal worthy of serious consideration, were misrepresented when they were said to be in favor of it. It is now asserted that they were never in sympathy with it, and it will give their friends great pleasure to believe that this is true. The future is full of gloom for the incompetent American actor who has been temporarily cheered by the hope that he could force the American theatre-goer to take him or nothing; but he must buckle down to work like other men, and win on his merits or go to the wall—or to the country towns.

The report that the doctors, like the actors, had begun to clamor for protection from foreign competition, has very little foundation. It originated in an article in the last number of the *Medical Record*, which complained of the advent from Germany mainly, but also from France, Italy, and England, of large numbers of medical students who had failed to get their diplomas, and therefore could not practise in their own countries, but who settle down here, put out a sign, and pay visits for twenty-five and fifty cents. The *Medical Record* says the practice of some of the older German physicians has "been seriously curtailed by these interlopers," and calls for the appointment of an independent board of medical examiners in this State who shall pass on the qualifications of doctors, whether they have the diploma of a medical college or not. This is desirable even as regards natives, because, as everybody knows, there is a great difference in medical schools, and consequently a great difference in the value of diplomas. It is doubly desirable with regard to foreigners, about whose diplomas few people here know anything. It will thus be seen that tariff protection for home doctors against the pauper doctors of Europe is not asked for. It is the false doctors whom it is proposed to exclude, and whom no good government permits to practise on the poor within its jurisdiction.

It is a long time since a more perfect specimen of what is known in the speculative world as the "bubble" has been seen than the Electric Sugar Company, which collapsed on Thursday. It seems to have been a fraud of the simplest kind—so simple that it is a wonder of human credulity that men could be found who were willing to invest money in it. A German "professor" appeared here about four years ago with an alleged discovery for refining sugar by a new electrical process, claiming that at least $12 a ton could be saved by it. He kept the process a profound secret, locking the machinery of it in a room which he connected by a shoot with a room beneath. He took raw sugar ostentatiously into the upper room, and allowed visitors to assemble in the room beneath. They soon heard the whir of machinery, and a few moments later saw beautiful refined sugar come down the shoot. They examined it, saw that it had a crystalline beauty superior to that of any sugar they had ever seen, at once went into raptures over the discovery, flooded the "street" with specimens, organized a company, and began to sell stock. The sugar dealers of this country were shy, however, and the stock went slowly till it was taken to England, where it went off like hot cakes, until something like a million dollars' worth of it was taken. When it had been placed, the company's officers began to notice suspicious developments in the conduct of the widow of the inventor—the latter died a short time ago—who was in charge of the secret. She soon had a sudden call to the West. They broke open the door of the secret room, and, instead of a refining process, discovered nothing but some sugar-crushers, through which sugar, already refined, had been run and sent down the shoot to the audience-chamber below. Not a particle of the raw sugar taken to the secret room had been touched. Refined sugar, secretly conveyed there, had been treated to some chemical process which gave it the admired crystalline appearance, and then it had been put through the crushers. That is all there was to the secret. And the victims of this cheap fraud are not only adults, but many of them, in England at least, experienced sugar refiners.

Testimony which is entitled to weight as to the workings of prohibition in Kansas is furnished in a report just made by the Stockholders' Committee of the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, who treat the sub-

ject as "a matter of financial interest and otherwise to our stockholders," and with "no motive other than to apply the deductions obtained therefrom to the value of your Kansas investments." The Committee, all of whom are residents of Boston, give such facts as these upon the authority of the Attorney General of Kansas: In Leavenworth County the saloons were closed in March, 1887, and commitments to the penitentiary sank from 36 in 1886 to 13 in 1887, and 5 during the first half of 1888; in Atchinson County the saloons were closed in 1886, and sentences to the penitentiary decreased from 23 in 1885 to 13 in 1886, 6 in 1887, and but 1 during the first half of 1888; the penitentiary has 104 less inmates than a year ago, and "the jails of the State are practically empty"; the proportion of paupers, which was 1 to every 750 persons in 1880, is now only 1 to 1,350. "Our observations," the Committee say, "lead us to believe that this movement is a grand success in Kansas, which adds, and will continue to add, value to all the lands in the State;" and they conclude by expressing the opinion that the facts cited are "a strong argument in favor of loans in a State advancing so rapidly in moral as well as material progress."

The explanation appears to be that Kansas is so largely an agricultural State, made up of small farming villages, and has so few cities and large towns, that public sentiment generally sustains prohibition, and the law is enforced, as is not the case in Bangor and other cities of Maine. The good effects of stopping the sale of liquor in another part of the country are shown by the experience of Washington County in Georgia—an agricultural county, with a population in 1880 of 12,515 blacks to 9,449 whites. The county was formerly "wet," but "went dry," in 1886, and declared its adherence to the same policy by a larger majority at an election last month. Under the last three years of license, the number of acres of land owned by the colored people remained almost stationary—5,886, 6,001, and 6,046; but the first year of prohibition carried it up to 11,690. In other words, the negroes acquired almost as much land in a single year when the saloons were closed, as they had done in twenty years when the saloons were open. The whites also benefited largely, of course, by the superior efficiency of their colored laborers, to say nothing of what they saved themselves. It is one compensation for the presence of the negroes in the South that it greatly strengthens public sentiment against the saloon among the whites.

The first message of Mayor Grant is a fair-spoken document, and will win for him the approval of his fellow-citizens if followed by an administration equally respectable. In some particulars his views do not coincide with those of his predecessor, as, for example, those relating to new facilities for rapid transit. In so wide a field, there is room for differences of opinion. Mayor Grant invites the public to make suggestions on this subject. He will undoubtedly receive more than enough, but it is possible that some plan may be brought forward that will conform to his views of the financial exigences of the city. This is the most urgent and also the most difficult problem pressing upon the city government. Scarcely less so is that which relates to the water-front and the proper accommodation of our maritime commerce. Here the new Mayor agrees substantially with his predecessor in urging the necessity of acquiring title to all dock property for the city. A measure to accomplish this end would have passed the Legislature at its last session if it had provided for the compensation of present owners for the use of their property during the time that condemnation proceedings were pending, and not merely after they were completed. This is a small matter, and we look to see the difference adjusted on principles of equity this winter. On the subject of overhead wires, the Mayor's position is in happy accord with public opinion. He holds that the law which requires that the wires be placed under ground, must be carried into effect, and not treated as a dead letter. As the Mayor is himself a member of the Board of Electrical Control, he will have abundant opportunity to push the work forward or to find out the reasons why it has been delayed. The city will now look to him for information on this knotty subject, and we trust that it will not look in vain.

The London *Statist*, in its issues of December 15 and December 22, has two very strong articles on the duties which the large financial institutions of Great Britain owe to clients to whom they have sold American railway securities. It contends that the consequences of rate wars among American railways have become so disastrous to the holders of these securities, and the prospect is so gloomy, that some heroic remedy must be resorted to lest the whole investment be lost. Its remedy is apparently very simple. It is that the holders of American railway securities shall be sought out, registered, and "bunched" in such manner as to make them influential in the election of directors of the several companies; that when this is done, supposing that similar steps are taken on this side of the water, the offending railway officers shall be admonished by the voice of authority to desist from the practice of throat-cutting, and that any one who thereafter offends shall be deposed as soon as the voting power can reach him.

This is merely putting in practice a maxim in everybody's mouth, that shareholders ought to look out for their own interests. Why they have not done so heretofore is because they have had no rallying-point, no leaders, no organization. The *Statist* rightly holds that the large banking-houses, and they alone, can supply this want. They have the confidence of the shareholders, which the railway officers have to a large extent forfeited. They have the knowledge which it is impossible for scattered shareholders to possess. They have the influence which the holders of the purse always have in times of financial distress. They are interested in seeing their clients through any crisis which may have supervened through their acts, in warding off any evils which may have befallen those who have, in past times, followed their lead, since their clientage is in a large sense their capital. There is probably no railroad of any magnitude whose shareholders would not come to their call in a case of danger of suspended dividends. There is certainly none whose bondholders would not seek refuge in that quarter in case of default of interest. The remedy proposed by the *Statist* is even more necessary among American shareholders than among English ones, because the interests affected by the railroad wars are enormously larger here than there. When these interests are brought together they will be all-powerful. Of course, some difficulties will be met in bringing them together, but they are not insurmountable. The influences that prompt one set of sufferers to send their voting powers to the large banking-houses will be equally potent with all. That the movement initiated here a week or two ago is coincident with that outlined by the *Statist*, there is every reason to believe.

Lord Salisbury has made all the amends he apparently means to make for his "black man" blunder by denying, in a speech at Scarborough, "that the words 'black man' necessarily involve a contemptuous denunciation." This is probably the least of an apology ever offered. Every one knows the words "black man" do not "necessarily" express contempt, because they might be used as simple description. What they are intended to convey in any particular case is to be ascertained by the context. When, for instance, you are angry with a man, and in your rage call him "a black man," it is inferred from your anger that you think "black" an opprobrious epithet. In the present case Lord Salisbury was ridiculing the Liberals for trying to elect a Parsee to the House of Commons; and the reason he gave for condemning their conduct and being prepared for their defeat, was that the candidate was a black man, showing he thought black a poor color for a legislator. But Mr. Badahai Naoroji is not black, he is simply brown, and not browner than many Englishmen; and as to race, he is as good a Caucasian as Lord Salisbury himself. Lord Salisbury further amended his remark by saying that what he really meant was, that nobody should sit in the House of Commons but "those who have been born in the British Isles," which, as the *Daily News* points out, would exclude Mr. Mathews, the Home Secretary, who was born in Ceylon. We may add, still more pertinently, that it would exclude the famous Mr. Ashmead Bartlett, who was born in Massachusetts, and is a sufficiently absurd person to have been born in the heart of Africa and to be black as the ace of spades.

MARKING THE BALLOTS.

Gov. Hill's remarks on the question of ballot reform, in his annual message, have served the very useful purpose of narrowing the discussion to the really vital points at issue. These are, first, an exclusively official ballot; and, second, such official marking of that ballot as will prevent the use of any counterfeit at the polls. The Governor expresses himself in opposition to the views of leading advocates of ballot reform on both these points, but we are willing to believe that he is open to conviction on both of them. As to the first, the arguments in favor of it are so conclusive that even so devoted a friend of the Governor as the *World* declares frankly that it thinks he "is clearly in the wrong." Nothing can be plainer than that official and unofficial ballots cannot both be received at the ballot-boxes without defeating the most important of the benefits hoped for under the reform system.

Concerning the necessity of marking the ballots, the evidence of experience is so strong that we think the Governor and his friends must admit the force of it. The Governor says in his message that there should not be permitted any marking of the ballots by the ballot-clerks by placing their initials thereon, or otherwise, and adds:

"It is significant that the new election law of Massachusetts which was passed last year, but which does not go into effect until November first next, has omitted all provisions requiring the marking or identification of ballots (except in the case of illiterate electors), thus departing essentially in that respect from the English or Australian system."

This is an error. The Governor appears to have overlooked in his examination of the Massachusetts law the following passage from section 10, defining the form of the official ballot:

"On the back and outside, when folded, shall be printed 'Official Ballot for,' followed by the designation of the polling-place for which the ballot is prepared, the date of the election, and a facsimile of the signature of the secretary of the Commonwealth or city clerk who has caused the ballot to be printed."

This makes the official printer of the ballot the man whose endorsement is the sign of its official character; but the object is the same as that sought by the requirement of the ballot-clerks' initials. The Massachusetts law provides (section 26) that "no ballot without the official endorsement shall, except as herein otherwise provided, be allowed to be deposited in the ballot-box, and none but ballots provided in accordance with the provisions of this act shall be counted." The exception alluded to is found in section 19 of the law, which authorizes the city or town official to prepare new ballots in case the official ballots are found on election day to have been destroyed, or are for any other reason not at the polls. In this case he must take oath to the preparation of the new ones, and the attendant circumstances, and these must be received at the ballot-boxes. In section 29 of the law, forging the signature of the official in charge of the printing, or wilfully destroying or delaying the delivery of the ballots, is made punishable by a fine not exceeding $1,000, or by imprisonment for not more than a year, or both.

Instead, therefore, of "departing essentially from the English or Australian system," the Massachusetts law is in strict accord with it on the principle of marking the ballots. That principle is, in fact, the corner-stone of the whole ballot-reform system. It is found in the Canadian law; and in a very interesting letter which we publish in another column, will be found a detailed description of its successful working furnished by a writer who for many years has had a practical experience as an election officer under it. He shows not merely the importance of the inspector's or some other identifying official mark on the back of the ballots, but also that the Governor's pretence that such a mark destroys the secrecy of the ballot is without foundation in fact. In addition to the inspector's mark, the Canadian law requires also a counterfoil or coupon check at the bottom of the ballot, as a further safeguard against counterfeits of the official ballots; and yet, with both these checks in operation, there is no delay or confusion and no violation of secrecy.

This Canadian letter is an instructive chapter in practical experience of the reformed ballot system on other points than the marking of the ballots. It furnishes a complete answer to the familiar charge of "complexity," and shows that the new system gives orderly elections, abolishes all electioneering and bulldozing of voters at the polls, and secures a really secret ballot. That it does not entirely stop bribery has been said before by observers of its operation in Canada. Undoubtedly it helps to do so; but in Canada and in this country, it will be found that the final remedy for bribery can only be secured, as it was in England, by a law compelling the publication under oath, after election, of a complete statement of all expenditures made.

The first step is, however, the official secret ballot, and any system which is to give us that in effective form must include some provision for marking the ballots. Whether it be in the form proposed by the Saxton bill and in successful use in the Australian, English, Canadian, and Louisville law—that is, by inspectors' initials—or whether it be in the form provided in the Massachusetts law, does not matter. One method would, probably, prove as effective as the other, but the mark must be there in some form.

It is urged by some commentators on this subject, whose views are chiefly interesting as the deliverances of simple ignorance, that an official marked ballot interferes with and even destroys the constitutional right of a voter to mark his own ballot. It does nothing of the kind. Under the new Saxton bill it is especially provided that a voter may not only write or paste any name he pleases on his ballot, but so great latitude is granted him in this respect that if he chooses he may carry into the polling place a complete written ticket of his own, take it into a compartment with him, paste it over the entire face of the official ballot, fold it thus pasted, with the initials of the inspector on the outside, and it must be received and counted. It is also provided that a "reasonable space" shall be left between the names of candidates on the official ballots, in which the voter can write or paste such names as he chooses. What more can any voter ask than this? He can put any names, and as many names as he chooses, upon the official ballot which is handed to him after he has entered the polling place; but he must put them on that ballot by himself in the secrecy of the compartment, and on no other. This is the only way by which an absolutely secret ballot can be secured. Gov. Hill is so strongly in favor of a secret ballot that he says in his message that the elector should not only be *permitted* to cast it, but *compelled* to do so, and he makes the distinction, as we reproduce it, in italics. This is going much further than even the advocates of the marked-ballot requirement; for the Governor would have to guard by fine and imprisonment against the possibility of a voter's voluntarily revealing the nature of his ballot by calling out at or about the polls the name of the candidate for whom he had voted.

NEW YORK AND HER UNIVERSITY.

The discussion over the nature and uses of universities in this country entered on a very sharp phase a fortnight ago, owing to an attack of Mr. A. D. White's in the *Forum* on the present management of Columbia College. He compared the trustees to "savages who have found a watch," and accused them of having proved "blind to their opportunities"; of having failed to make the College "exert a great civilizing and enlightening force in the metropolis and in the country, like the University at Berlin, the Collège de France and the Sorbonne in Paris, the Academy at Geneva, the School of Higher Studies at Florence," etc. To this, and much more of the same kind, one of the trustees, Mr. Harper, made answer that "Columbia is making rapid strides towards the position which we all desire her to fill; but if we had attempted twenty or even ten years ago to push her forward as rapidly as has been suggested by some, it could not have resulted successfully"; and "as to Dr. White's capability for criticism on such a subject, he can no more be compared to Dr. Dix in scholarly ability, sound learning, and a knowledge of educational requirements than an ordinary Western school-teacher can with a German university professor."

These personalities are in one way regrettable, as they throw no light whatever on the matter in hand; but they are in another way valuable, for they show that university management is at last beginning to excite real interest. Acrimonious discussion of such matters is better than no discussion at all. The trustees of Columbia do not at all resemble a savage who has found a watch. They rather resemble a watchmaker who has to modernize an old and badly tinkered time-piece, and has had but little experience in such work. And even if it were true that Mr. White could not hold a candle to Dr. Dix in scholarship and sound learning and so forth, his criticism of the condition of Columbia College would

still be worth listening to, even if put into harsh language. If nobody were to be permitted to criticise Columbia College except people whom the trustees acknowledged to be Dr. Dix's equals, would there not be some danger of their becoming an odious and irresponsible oligarchy? There is no doubt that Columbia College has not exerted and does not exert in New York the influence, or anything approaching to the influence, which the colleges named by Mr. White exert in their cities respectively. One reason of this is—and the trustees might as well admit frankly what every intelligent observer in the city is saying—that until very recently no attempt was made to convert the College into an influence of any kind in the city at large. It was managed, down to about fifteen years ago, simply as a piece of property in the hands of highly respectable trustees. The education it gave was exceedingly poor, and nothing was done to make it better. Its affairs were considered private affairs, and kept as far as possible from the public. It published no accounts, and solicited no gifts and got none, and was hardly any more associated with learning in the public mind than the United States Trust Company.

The present trustees are, we believe, conscious of all this, and are trying to make up for it. Much has been done in the right direction under Dr. Barnard's Presidency. What further progress will be made will depend greatly on the kind of man selected to succeed him. We do not mean to be in any way disrespectful to Dr. Dix when we say that if Mr. Harper's view of Dr. Dix be the one generally held by the trustees—that is, if they think a man like Dr. Dix, or a man who would look up to Dr. Dix as a final authority on university matters, would be, if he could be got, the right kind of President—the further progress of the College would not be what this generation looks for. Dr. Dix is an able and useful man, but he is not what is now known as a scholar, or a man of what is now known as "sound learning," and has had no experience either in teaching or in organizing universities. He is not the kind of man, in short, excellent as he may be in his present position, that is now sought after for the headship of colleges which are meant to make a mark on the culture of the country. It is for the same reason open to doubt whether he could describe the right kind of man, if called on to do so, or has half as clear or correct an idea on the subject as Mr. White.

On the other hand, where Mr. White is distinctly unjust to Columbia College is in assuming that either the Berlin University, or the Collège de France, or any other great European university was made what it is, or converted into "a great civilizing and enlightening force," without any help from the world about them. Universities, like all other things which grow and cannot suddenly be made to order, have to be planted in a congenial soil. They have, in other words, to strike their roots in a sympathetic community which sets a high value on culture, and has a strong sense of its political and social importance. A university is in large part the product of the opinions and aspirations of the people who live around it, so that the Collège de France probably owes as much to Paris as Paris to the Collège de France, and Oxford and Cambridge as much to the English upper class as the English upper class to Oxford and Cambridge. If this be true, Columbia College has been very unfortunately situated ever since the Erie Canal was opened and New York city entered on that astonishing course of material growth which has made her what she is today. During the last fifty years the city has done nothing to foster a university, and the university has, almost inevitably under these circumstances, done but little to influence the city, and would have done but little even if the funds had grown at the same rate as the city's wealth and trade.

There is one other point which Mr. White has overlooked, and which is overlooked in almost all discussions on university making in the United States—and that is, that no university has anywhere ever become a great influence, or anything but a school for children, which was not wholly or almost wholly in the hands of the faculty or teaching body. *The faculty is the university.* If you have the right sort of faculty, you have a university, though you have only a tent to lecture in. If, on the other hand, you try to make a university out of a board of sagacious business men acting as trustees, and treat the professors as simply "hired men," bound to give the college so many hours a week, you may have a very good school for youths, but you will get no enlightening influence or force out of it for the community at large. Instead of speaking with authority on any of the great themes of the day, the college will be sneered at, as colleges are apt to be in the United States today, as the home of theorists and pedants, whose impudence in differing in opinion from millionaires merits and is sure to receive severe rebuke.

THE MORIER AFFAIR.

Nothing so singular and discreditable has occurred in Prince Bismarck's career as the Morier incident. Sir Robert Morier, the present British Minister at St. Petersburg, is a man of the highest personal character—a man, too, of cultivated tastes and liberal opinions. Nobody in the British diplomatic service is more respected or respectable. He was, in 1870, when the Franco-German war broke out, Chargé-d'Affaires at Hesse Darmstadt, and was on terms of intimacy with the Crown Prince and Princess, and much in their society at that time, and so remained until the Emperor Frederick's death. When the Emperor's diary appeared, it showed, or seemed to show, that Bismarck, far from being the chief or only instrument of German unity, shrank, both during the war and after it, from the attempt to create the Empire, as a task too formidable to be then undertaken, and that the chief promoter of the scheme was the Crown Prince, who had to contend with his father's scrupulous conservatism and the Chancellor's timidity. This evidence, if it could not be overthrown, of course struck a serious blow at the Chancellor's reputation and prestige. He met it promptly by reporting, first, that the published version was garbled and partly forged; and, secondly, that the Crown Prince was an incompetent witness, inasmuch as the Emperor and he (the Chancellor) had to keep him ignorant of their policy and plans lest information should reach the French through the English court. He followed this up by arresting Dr. Geffcken, who had given the diary to the public, and ordering his prosecution, on what charge did not clearly appear—sometimes he was accused of falsifying documents, and at others of treason in revealing State secrets. The case against him, however, has been abandoned as untenable, and he has been set at liberty. He could undoubtedly have proved that the diary was authentic, and that he had the legal right to publish it.

This left the Chancellor, however, in rather a humiliating position. Something more had to be said or done to support the charge that the French got information about the German military policy from the Crown Prince's circle through English channels. Accordingly, one of the Emperor's aides-de-camp, a certain Major Deines, was made to say through the *Cologne Gazette* that Marshal Bazaine had told him at Madrid that the first news of the movement of the German troops on the Moselle came to him at Metz from Sir Robert Morier, the intimate friend of the Crown Prince and Princess. It seems that this story was set agoing before the Marshal's death, and reached the ears of Sir Robert Morier, who thereupon wrote to him asking if it was true that he had ever made any such assertion. The Marshal answered that it was a lie made out of whole cloth. When it appeared in print in the *Cologne Gazette*, Sir Robert, knowing, what we believe everybody in Germany knows, that the *Gazette* is a semi-official organ, and is used by the Chancellor to set afloat any stories that he may think serviceable to his policy, wrote a somewhat heated letter to Count Herbert Bismarck, as the Prince's lieutenant in the German Foreign Office, enclosing Bazaine's letter, and asking the Count to repudiate the charge publicly as a slander. To this the Count made answer that the tone of Sir Robert's letter was extraordinary, and that he must decline to step out of the usual official routine in order to oblige him.

The European press at this stage began to ring with comments on the brutality of Herbert Bismarck's manners, and his amazing readiness to insult publicly a man of Morier's standing; so he was directed by the Emperor to say dryly that the story was not credited in the German Chancellery. Morier was, however, not satisfied with this, and he was thereupon promptly slapped in the face with another charge, namely, that the Bazaine letter was forged by Morier, and its French revised in Paris before publication. This came from the Berlin *Post*, and is endorsed by the *Cologne Gazette*. The *Vossische Zeitung* and the *Weser Zeitung*, two of the most respectable German newspapers, both admit that unless proofs of this accusation are promptly forthcoming, its

production "must fill German readers with a feeling of profound shame."

Some of the other journalistic performances of Prince Bismarck, however, make this last one seem less disgraceful than if it stood alone. During the Battenberg affair he explained to the Emperor Frederick and the Empress that the marriage of their daughter to Prince Battenberg, the recently deposed Bulgarian ruler, would undoubtedly offend Russia and destroy the good relations then existing between the German and Russian Governments. They thereupon promptly answered that all thought of it must be abandoned; but this did not prevent his subsequently giving out through his newspapers that the persistence of the Emperor Frederick, and especially of the English Empress Victoria, in forcing on this marriage was likely to compel the Chancellor to resign his office, in order to avoid responsibility for a piece of criminal folly. In fact, when the occasion calls for it, his "journalism" becomes as unscrupulous and mendacious as any on the Island of Manhattan.

INDIA UNDER LORD DUFFERIN.

LONDON, December 24, 1888.

LORD DUFFERIN'S last act before leaving India was to deliver a speech in glorification of himself and his administration. He reviewed the works of his hands and found them all exceedingly good. This vainglorious performance has a somewhat ominous resemblance to the valedictory address of another Viceroy who ruled India a little more than thirty years ago. Lord Dalhousie, when laying down the reins of government, viewed his achievements in the same optimistic light as Lord Dufferin. He left India, so he said, without a cloud in the political sky—the finances sound, the land at peace, the army loyal, the princes and the people contented. This was in 1853; and three years later the English in India were engaged in a desperate struggle for their lives—a struggle kindled by that very policy which Lord Dalhousie had reviewed with so much pride and self-complacency. It is not, perhaps, very probable that Lord Dufferin's eulogy upon himself is destined to be falsified in a like terrible fashion. This, however, is certain, that Lord Dufferin leaves to his successor an India thickly beset with perils from within and without, and that these perils are largely the direct consequence of his policy.

The position of an Indian Viceroy is a most unhappy one. It is not in his power to do much if any good, while he enjoys an almost unlimited scope in the doing of mischief. What British India stands at the present time most grievously in need of, is a thorough overhauling of the whole mechanism of its internal administration. But this is a work which no Viceroy, during his brief tenure of office, could venture to undertake. On his first arrival in the country, and for the greater part of his stay in India, he is engaged in learning his work; and during this educational interval he is, of necessity, a mere tool in the hands of the permanent officials. When he has acquired a sufficient knowledge of the intricate problem before him to form an independent judgment upon it, his first discovery is that he lacks the instruments whereby to carry improvements into effect. All administrative change involves more or less of injury to those who are carrying on the existing system; and where is an Indian Viceroy to get the leverage wherewith to overcome the passive resistance which the Bureaucracy is certain to oppose to his projects? As if to debar their viceroys from ever attempting any such quixotic undertaking, the British people have, in their wisdom, subjected the Viceroy in Calcutta to the control of an Indian Council at home, which, consisting of retired officers and civilians, is always on the side of the services against that pernicious article, a reforming viceroy. But in the field of foreign politics, a viceroy has a free hand. Wars and annexations are always popular with the services. They break the monotony of life; they offer chances of distinction to military men; they are invariably freighted with new and highly-paid appointments for the civilians. At home, too, they command a majority of suffrages. The mercantile world sees in them the prospect of new markets; the religious world, an extension of the light of true religion to regions hitherto unblessed by it; and almost all Englishmen rejoice in them from some confused and unintelligent notion that they are highly disagreeable to the Russians.

In the fields, therefore, of foreign policy, Lord Dufferin has exhibited great activity; and the net result of this activity has been to destroy along its whole length a land frontier which kind nature had made absolutely impregnable. India can no longer be defended in India. He has transferred the struggle for empire from the Indus, where we were invulnerably strong, to the deserts of Central Asia, where we are pitiably weak. This consequence of his foreign policy is not seen as yet in England. It is, indeed, vigorously denied, and from this fact of denial comes the great danger of the future. Lord Dufferin and those who are responsible for this policy know perfectly well that it is an aggressive policy, leaving us no alternative but to annex Afghanistan and attack Russia in Central Asia; but they dare not confess this to the British public. When others demonstrate the fact, they protest that they are being misunderstood or calumniated. No measures for the future are, in consequence, being made, and when the storm bursts upon us we shall be most inadequately prepared to meet it. Meanwhile, the policy of extending the Empire into countries which cannot pay the costs of their occupation is producing in India itself a state of feeling which might easily endanger the stability of the government. It was a saying of Lord Mayo that a foreign invasion would be less dangerous to British rule in India than a large and permanent increase of taxation. Lord Dufferin has practically reversed this dictum. He has largely increased taxation in order to obtain an illusory security against the mere spectre of foreign invasion. And though it is the fashion to cast ridicule upon what is known as the "Congress movement," as representing nothing but a few English-speaking natives, only those can believe this who are content to look at India through the rose-tinted spectacles used in the official world.

The movement obtains its strength and its increasing ubiquity from the prevalence of administrative abuses, which greatly and everywhere sharpen the intensity of the struggle for existence. And here, again, those whose knowledge of India goes back to a period anterior to the insurrection of 1857 cannot but recall that the optimism of the present day is but a repetition of the optimism which prevailed then. Then, as now, the voices of the undiscerning many drowned the warnings of the reflecting few; then, as now, those who had the audacity to declare that our eastern empire was not founded upon a rock, broad-based upon the affectionate loyalty of India's millions, and so forth, were set down as "croakers," "pessimists," and—that most terrible form of human depravity—"un-English." The official world of that day, just as the official world of this, was incessantly engaged in chanting its own praises, and much too self-absorbed to "read its history in the people's eyes." People here at home conceive of British rule in India as if the English officials out there were in constant and immediate contact with the great body of the people. This is not, and never can be, the case. Speaking generally, the administration of the country is carried on by a number of departments, consisting of two or three European superiors and a great number of native subordinates. If the head of a department be a man of more than ordinary intelligence, knowledge, and energy, he may possibly impress his own character upon these subordinate officials; but, in nine cases out of ten, the situation is the reverse of this. The superior leans upon his subordinates, and the action of the department upon the body of the people is then determined by the character, not of the British, but of the native element in it.

The constitution of this native element is peculiar. Probably there is no people in the world among whom the claim of kinship is recognized as so authoritative as among the natives of India. If one native obtains any sort of service, there will always be living upon his charity two or three relatives, who hope, in course of time, to enter through his assistance into some similar post. These men are called "úmedwars," or expectants. Should they succeed in effecting an entrance, then they too will have their "úmedwars" hanging upon them in the hope of sooner or later sharing in their good fortune. Nothing can surpass the noiseless, persistent perseverance with which the man in office will push the claims of those who are as yet outside of that paradise. The "úmedwar" himself is ever on the watch to promote his claims by the rendering of gratuitous service. The reward of all this labor may be long delayed, but it is bound to come at last. And when the process has gone on, as it has done in India, for the better part of a century, the result is that the native element in the state departments represents a kind of trades union, linked together by ties of blood as well as a desire for profit. A native who suffers wrong or oppression at the hand of one of these subordinate officials might as reasonably expect to discover a gold mine in his field as to obtain redress. Even if he got within hearing of the English head, his story could not hold its own against the crushing weight of testimony which the offender could adduce, to prove that it was an utter falsehood, from his departmental fellows. Or, supposing that the victim succeeded, his last state would be worse than the first. The dismissed official would be succeeded by an "úmedwar" pledged to avenge the injury done to the family by fresh injuries heaped upon the audacious complainant.

In the rural districts, in fact, there is but one way in which the peasantry—and even the native gentry—can escape from the power of these native officials, and that is by bribery. This fact it is which makes it impossible for the Indian Government to impose a new tax, or to enter upon any project whatsoever which requires native agency, without inflicting upon the people an amount of oppression and extortion which constitutes a serious political danger. Thus the land tax, the income tax, the irrigation fees, the forest charges, and a host of others have all to be collected by underpaid and irresponsible native agents; and it is no ex-

aggeration to say that for every shilling paid to the Government, two are paid to the collector. The English officials, meanwhile, though they know well that such things are done, have no means of ascertaining when or how they are done, far less of putting a stop to them. They must work with the only tools which are at their disposal. Illustrative of this, I may quote a remark which a retired Indian civilian made to me a few years ago. He had left the Government service in order to practise as a barrister at the Calcutta bar, and, from his knowledge of the inner workings of the former mystery, he rapidly acquired a large practice. This seeing of matters from the native side came as a very startling revelation. "If," he said to me, "when I was a civilian, an angel from heaven had told me the things that I now know are habitually done under our authority in India, I would not have believed him."

Now it is easy enough to demonstrate on paper that representative institutions cannot be set up all at once in India; but paper demonstrations cannot remove or mitigate the actual daily ills which I have sketched above. The people of India are ready to throw themselves into any agitation for political change, not because they desire to overthrow the Government of the Queen, or have thought out any scheme of reform; but because they are suffering from a multitude of evils which, under the existing regimen, they know to be remediless. This fact it is which has won for the party of political reform an abundant measure of support in a surprisingly short time, and which will effectually prevent the movement from dying out. It is objected to the spokesmen and leaders of this party that they do not number among them the landed gentry, or the old aristocracy, or the native princes; but this fact is easily accounted for without supposing that these classes hold aloof because they are at heart opposed to the schemes of the reforming party. One result of British rule in India has been to create an opulent and influential class which, its prospects in life being independent of the Government, has nothing to fear from the hostility of the officials. This class consists of the native barristers and *Vakils* who practise in our courts of law, the editors and writers for the native press, English and vernacular, and the rich mercantile community residing in the great cities and seaports. Any political movement that is set up in India must at the outset derive its recruits almost wholly from these people, no others being in a position to enter upon it without serious inconvenience and even danger to themselves.

The movement is still in its infancy. It has been provoked into life by the intolerable friction everywhere caused by the existing bureaucratic régime. But it is supremely diffident of its own powers; it hardly dares to guess whither it may be going; and there is planted deep in the Indian character a profound reverence for authority. If our English officials would deign to look with a kindly and encouraging eye upon these first attempts to translate into practice the lessons which these Indian reformers have learned from us, they would be greeted with effusion and loyally accepted as leaders. Unfortunately, they are practically unanimous in denouncing the party of reform as disloyal and seditious. The moderation of their projects they hold up to ridicule as a proof of their insincerity, and thus, to the utmost of their power, they are forcing the conduct of the agitation from the party of reform to the party of revolution. Such a party, and in formidable strength, is to be found in every province of British India. In fine, the dangers which menace the future of our eastern Empire, whether from without or within, will spring in the main from the obstinate perversity which deliberately refuses to take account of the actual facts. All our writing, all our speaking about India consists of a nauseating reiteration of self-laudation. Practically, we assume that we are not simply morally impeccable, but that it is impossible for us to make a mistake. We denounce as unpatriotic or seditious or vilely ignorant any one having the audacity to hint at rocks below the surface, or signs of coming danger. We decline to take thought for the morrow. We have no policy—unless to drift blindfolded can be designated such.

ROBERT D. OSBORN, Lieut.-Colonel.

ON GRECIAN SHORES.

ALEXANDRIA, December 1, 1888.

IF the condition of the Greeks, socially, morally, and materially, has improved, as can be demonstrated to be the case—in fact has emerged from darkness since independence in 1832—the visitor at this day is still unfavorably impressed with the many elements of its lagging progress. It requires long years to reproduce forests, to restore watercourses for agricultural purposes, to teach a people modern arts, and long periods of peaceful pursuits to bring back a population. All this, apparently, is being done, if slowly. There is, too, among the better classes a profound faith in the ultimate fate and greatness of Greece. There is a politician in every house, a consuming curiosity for news and political gossip, and, in the islands still in the possession of Turkey, a deep undercurrent of resistance. A striving after improved methods, educational advancement, the erection of imposing municipal and other public buildings for the poor, sick, and orphans, and a well-to-do Church, form the better side of the picture.

There are far more Greeks living under Turkish rule than in Greece itself, the latter numbering but two millions, and there is a well-founded belief in a wide extension of territory northwards, the reclamation of the islands still in painful subjection to large Turkish garrisons, and perhaps ultimately a strip of seacoast in Asia Minor. In these places the money interests, the language, the actual inhabitants are all preponderatingly Greek. Even at Constantinople the Greeks rank second in a mixed population of a million, the Turks numbering 390,000. In fact, much of the wealth and trade, the commanding influence, in a way, of this section of the world has again come to them; and it remains to be seen what they will do with themselves in the approaching political crisis. This element may receive more consideration at St. Petersburg than elsewhere, and may yet precipitate the solution of the Eastern question. The national forces are being gradually strengthened, and this expense, coupled with a growing ambition, may prove too severe a strain upon so poor a country. Taxes upon imports are enormous, and many domestic articles commonly in use in other countries are out of reach of the masses. In this case, home production is not stimulated, for practically there is but little manufacturing or skilled handicraft carried on. There are a few macaroni factories and soap works about the Piræus, and at Syra some ship-repairing machine shops, a marine railway for ships up to 2,000 tons, and a large tannery industry. The wealth of the country is in its natural productions—wine, oil, currants, salt, tobacco, and fruits, and a limited mining industry. The fisheries and shipping interests employ many thousands. In trade and commerce the Greeks surpass in skill all the races they come in contact with, not excepting the Jews, Armenians, and Persians they compete with in Stamboul, and they handle most of the money and products in the Levant. Salt is produced by evaporating the sea-water in shallow basins, and is seen in great pyramidal heaps for miles along the shores of Attica and the adjacent islands. Olive trees are seen everywhere, and the noble groves, some of great age, are greatly sought for shade by flocks and the people. Flowers and color plants grow profusely, and gardens need only irrigation to bloom perennially, while of fruits there is apparently the whole list of semi-tropical and temperate zones.

The Corinth canal enterprise, connecting the Gulfs of Corinth and of Ægina, is progressing slowly, and is being executed by a French construction company. No time can yet be fixed for its completion, certainly not within two years; and even when finished, the saving of the three hundred miles in the water route to the Black Sea, Asia Minor, and Athens may become of less moment than the necessary charges and increased difficulties attending narrow inland waters, though the winter passage around Cape Matapan can then be avoided. The Peloponnesan railway leads up to and crosses the excavation, and gangs of natives, Montenegrins, and Italians can be seen at work. The line of the canal follows the still existing marks of the similar attempt by Nero, and the track over which small vessels have been transported for centuries. It is about five miles in length, and unexpected difficulties are being met with in the rock formations. There is also a "railway development" at hand, judging from controversies regarding privileges, concessions, plans, and projects, formulated by the newspapers. More railways and roads are needed, the latter certainly; the haste in connection with the former, their extension in a grand system conformably to the necessities of modern times and the country, all wear the familiar guise of promoters and speculators. The present railways seem to be fairly equal to the necessities of the country, and the sea washes all sides of a land not a long distance across. The rolling-stock is English, and, according to the usual standard, the service is not what it should be.

One must rough it to some extent when travelling in Greece, and more than primitive accommodation cannot be expected outside of Athens. Even in that city the water supply is lamentably deficient, the springs and wells being often brackish, and potable water is sold on the streets. At this time, however, great improvements are being effected in the capital city; streets are being widened and macadamized, new buildings are going up, and there is a struggling attempt to throw off the inertia and provincialism of the usual dusty town. The new exhibition building erected at one extremity of the royal gardens in honor of the King's twenty-fifth anniversary is a marble-faced portico, with wings in plaster, facing the great Corinthian columns of the old temple of Olympian Zeus, and is sadly dwarfed in the presence of the mute giants in sight on all sides. The dusty slope towards the Ilyssus is more or less parked, containing an artificial basin; but the grounds were, when I saw them, in confusion consequent upon hurried preparation and the work of caring for arriving exhibits. The number of articles of domestic manufacture that will be shown should indeed point a moral.

Excavations on the Acropolis are continuing, and the work at the National Museum and the Polytechnic goes slowly on. The Schliemann collection at the latter is the great attraction, and to the Museum are added the best of the finds as they occur in the country at large.

Half the building is still closed to visitors. In the broad space between the building and the street is enough more material to stock an ordinary museum elsewhere, including sarcophagi, pieces of columns, capitals, reliefs, and figures in considerable numbers. These two buildings are a great credit to the state in every respect, and are well designed to preserve for museum and educational purposes the best of the remnants left of classic Greece. They are spacious, have marble facings or linings, and are of appropriate classic type externally. The Museum has but one floor; the Polytechnic is more elaborate, consisting of two lateral colonnades and a central quadrangle of two floors, with an ornate double marble stairway externally. The material is beautiful Pentelic marble, and the white, gleaming surfaces and numerous columns in a fine open section of the city form an impressive picture.

From Athens to the Piræus the train passes vineyards, lovely gardens and groves, stopping at Phalerum, the summer resort. Phalerum, bay and shore, is a beautiful spot, has now a large, complete hotel, long rows of bathing-houses, pretty groves, and the bluest of waters. From the beach one sees Mt. Hymettus, the Acropolis, and the Theseum, with Athens on the left, and on the right the terraced heights of Elias and Munychia. Piræus is a large, straggling seaport town, with wide busy quays and unclean streets, and surrounds the circular, roomy, and convenient harbor. A few traces only of the old walls running down from Athens seven miles away are found now, unless search is made for them. They enclosed Athens, a strip of country several hundred yards wide, and this magnificent natural basin, besides two smaller ports, Zea and Munychia, over the hill to the left towards Phalerum, where are still seen the stone galley-ways, a theatre hewn out of the rock, and the best remains of the wall itself. A tramway; noisy, dirty shops and cafés; fleets of small trading vessels of quaint old type; motley groups in fustanella, white stockings, and embroidered jackets; black eyes and fine handsome faces; coffee-sipping and mastic-drinking; and the people always in the streets—are passing memories of Piræus. A few hours after leaving this port, in passing Cape Colonna, the remaining upright columns and part of the architrave of the ancient Temple of Athena, splendidly crowning the hill, are plainly seen standing out in the purest white from the green background.

The Greek islands are both richer and poorer than the mainland. Some, like the Ionian group, are of wonderful fertility and healthfulness; others, often mere barren rocks, with miserable remnants of ignorant humanity clinging to them. Corfu is much frequented by invalids, by yachtsmen and sportsmen, and the fall and winter months bring many outdoor livers and wild-boar hunters. The neighboring mainland of Albania and Epirus is also full of game, the climate is mild, and there is every facility and comfort of existence attainable. The Ulysses Rock, a favorite resort of the Austrian Empress, beautifully conserved by a few monks; the mulberry and olive groves; the great variety and profusion of fruits; the drives, and King George's residence and park, all combine highly to favor the island. Among the monuments is one of Capodistrias, the first President of Greece. The exportations of figs, oranges, olive-oil, wine, honey, currants, silk, and cotton continue large, and the sea fisheries are of importance. The stout old walls and citadel that successfully withstood Islam, the Italian element in the population, and the peculiar dialect give the city a character quite its own. The city has a population of 28,000; the island, 85,000.

Cephalonia and Zante are in many respects also favored islands, and are much sought by winter yachtsmen and invalids. The former has in recent years been the rendezvous of the English fleet in the Mediterranean under the Duke of Edinburgh, as offering superior facilities for the many needs of the force. Zante, the southernmost of the group, does not greatly differ from Cephalonia in the character of its population, its fertility, and healthful environment. A part of the island is composed of blue mud and clay—in places whole hills are of this material—and in the interior are found bubbling wells of mud mixed with a crude bitumen or asphalt. The town is on the shore of an open bay, the hill behind it being crowned by a large old Venetian fortification, now used as a general prison. The late Minister of the Interior of Greece was from this town; and upon his decease (at Athens of malarial fever) the people omitted for some weeks all amusements, music on the promenade, and theatricals. Like nearly all Greek towns, the necessity of public sanitation is a matter not yet entertained, and white-faced children with diseased eyes are far too common. In 1887 there were exported 8,000 tons of currants, and a great quantity of wine, much of this appearing in Europe as port. These wines are sweet and heavy, as a rule, and, with the introduction of better methods, could be improved, beyond doubt.

Crete, still under Turkey and hardly yet recovered from the last insurrection and its repressive horrors, is vainly hoping for the morning. For the present it remains undeveloped, with a suspicious, uneasy people, living in fear of the ill-paid, ragged garrison of 10,000 soldiers. It is, from its position and superior natural resources, capable of supporting a large population, and has even now a considerable trade in silk, wine, oil, fruits, and chestnuts. Candia, the largest town (30,000 population), and the Governor's residence, is an agricultural community. The roads are bad, excepting near the principal port of entry, Canea, and Suda Bay on the northern side of the island. The latter is one of the finest and largest harbors in the Orient, but is lacking in life and activity, containing only a small, desolate village and a decaying naval arsenal. Steamers come to this bay in winter, in summer lying off the shallow small basin of Canea. The Ottoman steamers from Tripoli to Constantinople stop here, and slaves are occasionally found aboard and set free by the English consular authorities, whose cavass, or dragoman, keeps track of the business. The considerable number of blacks about are said to be of this description: they have in such cases the option of returning to Africa. The old Venetian walls, moats, naval arsenal, and citadel are still of imposing strength and appearance. Canea has about 12,000 inhabitants, and its roughly cobbled, narrow, unclean streets, fish markets, leather workers, and motley crowds render it unattractive, though it has a decidedly Oriental appearance. Passing up a street to the Governor's palace, I noticed a hive of notaries and lawyers, and upon inquiry learned that these men of the law and pleaders have sprung into existence only since 1878, previous to which time justice inclined towards the longer purse. It is believed that Crete will richly reward future efforts at excavations, the people as a rule observing great secrecy in regard to this matter, especially in the disposing of such articles as they may have from time to time in their possession.

Syra, the centre of the Cyclades, is the second port of the kingdom, and is noted for its shipping and tannery interests. The town is built along the bay shores and on two cone-like hills, each surmounted by a large church—one Roman Catholic, the other the Greek Church—and in its blue and white limewash gleams like a stage picture. In the time since the independence it has risen from a mean village to be the chief port of the whole group. Activity is noted in its little shipyards, and all the steamers to the East touch here. New roads about the island are being constructed, the city is erecting a large, pretentious municipal building of marble, and there are hospitals, asylums, and schools. A good water supply is lacking, five cents the gallon being the cost of pure water on the streets; each house has under it a rock cistern, collecting the year's supply in the few rainy months of the year. The lower levels and streets almost rival a Chinese city in uncleanliness and smells. Mount Pyrgos, immediately back of the town, gives one a view of the whole group of the Cyclades and Greece itself. At certain seasons, migrating quail rest on Syra to such an extent that they are slaughtered by the thousands. The rocky island is treeless, has but little rainfall and a warm climate. Smallpox has recently found many victims, and still exists, and fevers are common.

Milo contains the largest perfectly enclosed harbor in the Mediterranean, but one meets here with a desolate picture. The straggling little town of Castron clings around the peak of a considerable hill far above the ruins of the ancient Melos, whence the celebrated Venus was taken in 1820. In this great bay the Venetians annihilated the Turks in a memorable sea fight in 1661. The island is volcanic, has a small mining, sulphur, and fishing industry, and contains not over 3,500 inhabitants. Samos, though a principality tributary to Turkey, is wholly Greek. It is fairly prosperous and content under its Christian prince, Alexander Kara Theodora, who was one of the Turkish Commissioners at the Berlin Congress. Since that time he has taken no further part in Turkish imperial affairs and has resided here—a kind of polite banishment. The annual tribute is £2,000. Samos is rich in classical remains, and, like many of these islands, has not been completely investigated. It is a curious fact that the natives generally in this part of the world have a greatly exaggerated idea regarding the character and value of the still undiscovered remains of antiquity. The principal ruins here are a Temple of Juno, and the rock aqueduct described in the *Nation* at the time of its discovery some seven years ago (Nos. 908, 909). The port of Bathi, the Prince's residence, has a picturesque, rock-bound harbor and the quaintest of broad ancient quays. The trade is mainly in the superior wine and tobacco produced, the former rivalling the best port, and the latter ranking with the best grown in Yenidge and Latakiya. Tenedos and Rhodes still retain their mediæval features, the latter especially, with its tunnel-like passages and streets, enormous walls, bastions, and defences, and crowded town. Rhodes is among the most fertile and beautiful islands in the Levant, and, like Samos, has many pretty little villages scattered about on its verdant slopes.

Many of the islands are mere barren rocks, some with villages clinging to the highest peaks crowned by crumbling castles and fortifications, or with groups of white clusters of houses far up on the rare green pastures. The skies are seldom unkind, there are no extremes of climate, the mariner sails on for months without losing sight of land, threading the wonderful storied archipelago with its traces of the

old time. The scenes of to-day seem to belong to another world. C. A. SIEGFRIED.

Correspondence.

A PATRIOTIC PROTEST FROM ABROAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Reports have reached Europe since the recent election at home which reveal such widespread and shameless bribery that every honest American cannot but feel disgusted and indignant. Something *must* be done, and the *Nation* thinks something *will* be done, to prevent further disgrace and secure better methods and laws governing our elections.

It is with this hope and assurance of yours, Mr. Editor, that a number of American teachers and students in Berlin and Leipzig, irrespective of party, wish to express their sympathy, pledging at the same time their hearty coöperation with all who will help on reform. We believe that continued indifference would bring us to a condition more wretched than that of any nation in Europe. We should not even be so fortunate as to fall into the hands of pedantic and military bureaucrats, where we should at least be safe, much as we might fret under their paternal guardianship and their martinetism; but, as the *Nation* has said, we should be at the mercy of political auctioneers who would sell our Government to the highest bidders.

Against running such risks we protest. We will no longer be cheated out of the full value of our votes by the corrupt of any party whatever. We call for a strictly secret ballot, for stringent laws against bribery, and for their vigorous enforcement; and we hope to unite with our fellow-teachers and fellow-students at home—in fact, with the honest and intelligent of all parties—in securing these safeguards, whether it be by joining reform clubs already in existence and organizing new ones in every county and town, or by other practical agitation.

At present, our boasted universal suffrage is laughed at in Europe. The papers and intelligent observers see clearly that it is the bribed legions and their "bosses" who hold the balance of power in our national elections, and the purchasable "blocks of five" who can turn the scale in many a State and county election.

Of course, there are those who will call us doctrinaires or academic idealists; but we are not quite ready to succumb to the realism of fraud and rascality simply because the rascals are wide awake and the honest seem hard to rouse.

[Signed by 27 American teachers and students in Berlin and Leipzig, representing 4 different political parties, 13 different States, North and South, East and West, and 11 different colleges.]

BERLIN, December 25, 1888.

INSIDE A CANADIAN POLLING-BOOTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Canada the Australian ballot system has been in force for the past fourteen years. We have grown familiar with it, and what astonishes me most is how any one can call it complex, or, having once seen it, could possibly endure to work with any other. It was adopted in the Dominion in 1874, and for the provincial elections of this province a couple of years later. The first election held under it in this city was in January, 1877. I was one of the presiding officers there. Since that time we have had fully a dozen elections, Provincial and Federal, and at every one of them I have spent the day in some capacity, either as presiding officer or candidates' agent, inside a polling-booth, generally in a city district, but sometimes in a rural one. Possibly a description of the practical working of the act may be interesting to readers in the United States.

Our nominations are now in the simplest form. Twenty-five electors can nominate a candidate by nomination in writing provided a deposit of $200 accompanies it. This sum is forfeited in case the candidate fails to poll half the vote of the successful candidate. If only as many nominations are made as there are seats to be filled, the returning officer returns them as elected by acclamation. If more, he issues a proclamation that a poll will be held, and containing the names of the candidates in alphabetical order, with their occupations and residence. The day of polling is fixed by the act for the seventh day from nominations. Then the returning officer proceeds to make his preparations for a poll. Of course he has known long beforehand whether or not the regular parties intend making nominations, and has made his preparations accordingly. The district has already been divided off into polling-sections by the revising barrister who makes up the electoral lists. These polling-sections must not contain more than 300 electors, and in practice (here at least) it has been found most convenient to keep them smaller than 200. These small polling-sections are the most effectual safeguard against disturbance and disorder yet discovered.

In each of these sections the returning officer hunts up a conveniently situated house or shop to serve as a polling-booth, and arranges the space inside so that one portion is completely guarded from observation, both from inside and outside. Then he appoints a presiding officer and a clerk for each district. He swears in the presiding officers and furnishes each with his ballot-box, a certified list of the electors in his district, a poll-book, a supply of ballot-paper and lead-pencils, and a number of printed directions (given in a schedule to the act), directing voters how to mark their papers, which the presiding officer sticks up about the booth. A constable is appointed for each booth. The booths open at nine and close at five. A little before the time of opening the presiding officer and his clerk arrive. The former swears in the latter. The agents, if they are wise, will also take care to be on hand sharp on time. Each candidate appoints two agents in writing. In practice the appointment is left with the committee of the district: the candidates sign a number of blanks, the committee arrange who are to be agents, and fill in their names. Of these two agents one requires to be sworn not to reveal the names of the candidates for whom any of the electors may mark their ballot-papers in his presence. This is for the protection of the illiterates and other incapables. The sworn agent is obliged to remain in the booth till it closes. The unsworn one can go in and out, and practically serves as the medium of communication between the sworn man and his party outside. Each agent of course has been "posted" by his district committee, and furnished with a list of electors marked with hieroglyphics to designate "for," "against," "doubtful," "dead," etc., etc. The presiding officer, poll-clerk, constable, and agents are the only persons allowed within the booth. There are no provisions preventing persons congregating about the polling-booths—a matter which I see most of your correspondents attach great importance to. There are one or two provisions for the suppression of disorder, conferring the powers of a magistrate upon the presiding officer, etc. But in practice it is found that the small polling-district and the secret voting do away with all temptation to riot. In former times here, with open voting and a few large sections, we had furious fights about the booths. Now the only signs of a booth are three or four men talking about the door and a couple of cabs drawn up. There is nothing to do outside, and the "worker" who could find no better employment than standing all day outside a booth watching the voters go in and out the door would not find much appreciation of his services in the party. Last of all, the presiding officer opens his ballot-box, exhibits it to the agents in the manner of a stage conjuror, opens the slide, locks the box up, and deposits it on the table.

These preliminaries over, the constable is directed to open the doors, announce the poll open, and admit the voters one at a time. One enters and presents himself at the table. The presiding officer asks his name, and looks to see if it is on his certified list. If it is not, as sometimes happens, the voter goes off to hunt up the right district; but this seldom happens. If the name is on the list, the poll-clerk enters it on his book, with the occupation and a number, and if no objection is taken by the agents, the presiding officer hands him a ballot-paper. The ballot is in a form prescribed in the act. Here is one of the official papers from the last Dominion election in this city:

Election for the Electoral District of Halifax, 1887

FULLER.

I. H. H. Fuller, City and County of Halifax, Merchant.

JONES.

II. Hon. A. G. Jones, City and County of Halifax, Merchant.

KENNY.

III. Thomas E. Kenny, City and County of Halifax, Merchant.

STAIRS.

IV. John F. Stairs, of the Town of Dartmouth, Manufacturer.

The portion below the perforated line is the counterfoil. Its use is to counteract the device mentioned by your Louisville correspondent, viz., putting in a blank and bringing out the official paper. The presiding officer puts his initials on the back of the ballot so as to be visible when the paper is folded up. The poll-clerk numbers the voter on his poll-book, and the presiding officer puts the same num-

ber on the counterfoil. In practice I have always found it the best plan to fold the ballot before handing it to the voter, and tell him to fold it in the same creases. He is apt to fold it up in such a tangle that it is necessary to open it to tear off the counterfoil.

The names on the ballot are required to be printed in alphabetical order. There is no envelope. At first we had them; but they were after one trial unanimously voted an unnecessary nuisance, affording an opportunity to commit frauds such as your Louisville correspondent describes. If no objection is raised by the agents, the voter retires with his ballot into the screened-off apartment, where he finds a table, a couple of lead-pencils, and, pasted on the wall, the official directions how to mark his ballot. He puts a cross to the right of the name or names he wishes to vote for, taking care not to cross the lines or to mark more names than there are seats to be filled. Then he folds up the paper and brings it back to the presiding officer, who looks at the number on the counterfoil to see that it is the same paper that the voter received, and then tears off the counterfoil and puts the ballot into the box. Then the voter must leave the booth.

Of course, things do not always go as smoothly as this. Your voter may be unable to read. If so, he declares his inability and his desire to have his ballot marked for him. The officer swears him to the truth of his statement and retires with him, accompanied by the sworn agents, to the private compartment, where he marks the ballot for the names told him by the voter; or a man may come forward claiming to be some one whom you have been instructed is dead or away. Thereupon, you, being an agent, act according to circumstances. In the last resort, you can ask the officer to put the oath to him. You can also challenge and swear on suspicion of bribery. It is not common to do either without just suspicion, as retaliation is inevitable and unpleasant. The poll-clerk makes a minute in his poll-book opposite the voter's name of whether he voted, and of any objection, and whether he took the oath or refused it.

At five o'clock the poll is closed, the box opened, and the votes counted in the presence of the agents. If any paper appears marked so that it is not clear for whom it is intended, or for more names than there are seats to fill, or with a "distinguishing mark," any agent can take an objection. Thereupon a number is put on the ballot, and a record of the objection made in the poll-book, and the presiding officer has to decide whether to count it or reject it, a record of which decision is also made. Then the presiding officer puts the ballots for each candidate — those spoiled, those rejected, and those unused—into separate envelopes and puts them back into the box. He makes out a statement, for which official blanks are provided him, showing the votes cast for each candidate and the number rejected; gives one to each candidate, keeps one himself, and pastes one in the back of his poll-book. Then he and his clerk swear before some justice of the peace, who has been notified to be on hand, that they have duly discharged their duties; and a certificate of this oath also goes in the back of the poll-book. Then poll-book and voters' list go into the box, the box itself is locked and sealed and taken back to the returning officers.

There seem to be a good many details here, but in reality they are very simple, and very few mistakes are made. You want honest and fairly well-educated men for presiding officers. On the practical working of the system:

(1.) As to secrecy, there can be no two minds. No one can have the least notion how any voter has marked his ballot.

(2.) As to preventing disorder, it is equally effectual, both outside and inside the booths. Election day with us has become absolutely one of the quietest days of the year until night.

(3.) As to simplicity of working, there can be no just complaint. There was a little difficulty at first, though nothing like what was predicted. But now very few mistakes are made or votes thrown away. Even the illiterates nearly all learn to mark their ballots without making mistakes.

(4.) As to preventing bribery, it is not such a success as we should like. It has done a good deal; nevertheless, the most of our bribable electors, especially in the country, make it a curious point of honor to vote the way they have been paid to. As a preventive of corruption, the Corrupt Practices Act, taken from the English act, with its speedy trial by a judge sitting in the constituency, is far and away more effectual than the ballot.

BLUENOSE.

HALIFAX, N. S., December 28.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL VILAS AND CLEVELAND'S DEFEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The friends of civil-service reform should not fail to hold up continually the fact that one of the efficient causes of Mr. Cleveland's failure of reëlection was that he did not live up to his pledges with regard to the civil service, notably in the Post-office Department. The pressure brought to bear on him from the political machine was, doubtless, overwhelming; but the changes made materially impaired the efficiency of the service, thus discrediting the Administration with many who would otherwise have been disposed to look favorably upon it. Many instances of this have come under my notice. A florist, doing a large business by mail, stated to me the other day that half his catalogues sent to one of the "pivotal States" had gone amiss this year, very much to his loss and to the great disgust of his regular customers. He explained this on the ground that the State was a doubtful one, and that the Administration had made so many changes in the post-offices throughout the State in order to make itself "solid with the boys." Over a year ago a leading business firm of this city mailed a draft on a customer to a bank in another city for collection. On the envelope was printed the firm name and the usual "to be returned in five days if not called for." For upwards of a year they could get no trace of it. Finally it turned up. Some new clerk had sent it off to another State than that to which it was plainly directed, and there it had lain. Efficient and popular carriers on city routes have been displaced to give green "henchmen" a job, to the great annoyance of the public. A "clean sweep" was made in the post-office of a town of say six or eight thousand inhabitants in this State. The aged mother of the wife of a fairly well-known citizen sent a letter asking to be met a week later at the depot, as she was coming on a night train. The letter lay in the post-office because neither the postmaster nor his clerks were acquainted with the people of the town, and the old lady was put to the annoyance of finding her way about a strange town at night.

These are things to which the public was not accustomed under the old régime—at least to any such extent; and every such occurrence has made votes against the Administration. So much trouble has been made by these changes in at least one town in northern Ohio, and so many are the aspirants for the place under the new Administration, that the people of that town are asking that the candidates be voted on, and that all except the one receiving the highest number of votes withdraw their application.—Sincerely,

L. B. TUCKERMAN.

CLEVELAND, O., December 27, 1888.

A PLEA IN ABATEMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On Tuesday last, Collector Saltonstall of Boston was the recipient of a simple but eloquent testimonial from the employees of the Custom House. In responding, the Collector referred to civil-service reform as follows:

"There is one word for the Civil-Service Law which I must say, and I hope I shall not be misunderstood. It is absolutely impossible to take so broad a departure as this law and expect perfection in the first place; and it is impossible to expect that this law should be supported and carried out in the great portions of the enormous territory of the United States where no sentiment of that sort has as yet been planted. But it has been planted here. It is in Boston that we expect all these great movements of reform to take their origin, and I may say that it is Boston that in the future people will point to as the place where the planting of this great reform took place with effect. No thanks to me—not at all. In doing this and in saying this, I take no credit to myself. It is the community which demanded it, and no one who fills my shoes hereafter will be permitted to go back upon that reform."

The reason I call your attention to this significant quotation from the utterances of a man respected alike by Republicans and Democrats is, that nearly a year ago I gave you my reasons for believing, contrary to your expressed views, that President Cleveland *could not if he would* effect the changes demanded of him in Maryland and elsewhere. These reasons referred to a public opinion that was sufficient to support the President in his appointments, and to furnish evidence of that support in the nomination and election of State and city officials in favor of the reform in the service. This has never been possible in Maryland or Indiana, or advocated with success in any State except Massachusetts, where a State law has been in force for several years past, and the people know the worth of the President's efforts in this direction. It seems now that here is better authority for taking this view of the President's position and so-called failure to carry out his promises.

If there is any truth in Collector Saltonstall's observations on this point, I would like to see the *Nation* publicly admit it, since it has seemed to me inconsistent that President Cleveland should be the only one who has been aware of the difficulty of enforcing this law and reform, while the *Nation* has, during the past fifteen years that I have subscribed for it, shown a general and sound understanding and impartial fairness in its criticisms of the national administration.

Respectfully, BENJ. SPAULDING.

BOSTON, January 5, 1889.

[We must still think that our correspondent's mind is not quite clear on this subject. Does he mean that the President was bound to gauge the public sentiment of the locality before making any given appointment in the Federal service? Does he think Collector Saltonstall's appointment proved a sentiment adverse to the spoils system on the part of a majority of the voters in Massachusetts, any more than Postmaster Pearson's retention here had a like significance? Does he feel sure that evasions of the law by Mr.

Saltonstall's successor will be impossible? Will he deny that every one of this Administration's shortcomings will serve as a precedent for Gen. Harrison's, without regard to locality; or, in other words, that the appearance of a Republican Rasin in Boston can be justified by the appointment of a Democratic Rasin in Baltimore?—Ed. Nation.]

TURKISH MISSIONS ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read the very satisfactory replies made by your correspondents to a paragraph in the *Nation* of December 13, regarding American missions in Turkey, and would only ask to correct (from my personal knowledge) certain statements of fact.

I think a false impression will certainly be made by the reference to missionary funds as devoted to the "conversion of one sect of Christians to another" and to "proselytizing Armenian Christians." It should be remembered that the first missionaries had no thought of introducing a new sect. They aimed to work for the enlightenment of the old churches and for the promotion of reforms within them. Only the act of the old churches themselves caused any departure from this plan. The Gregorian Church persecuted and excommunicated all sympathizers with evangelical views, and, by maintaining this attitude of intolerance, forced the formation of a new church organization, which has since been steadily developing; and even now—while missionary work is, and must be, mainly along the lines of the Protestant organization—a constant and beneficial influence is exerted over the old churches, and this influence is a legitimate and desirable result of American missionary effort.

It is said of the Protestant communities in general that they are disposed to break with the missionaries and "threaten to return to the Orthodox American Church, unless they are allowed the management of the funds collected for them in America." Now, there is absolutely no movement in favor of a return to the old church; and disaffection and ill-feeling towards the missionaries is by no means the spirit of the communities anywhere, and is limited to a few isolated individuals, whose influence is very slight.

Again, we are told that Robert College, "in order to preserve its freedom of action, has been obliged to cut itself loose from all connection with the missionary societies." The facts, however, are that Robert College was founded by a New York merchant (the late Mr. C. R. Robert), it never had any formal connection whatever with any missionary organization, and has never received a cent from any missionary funds. It was, however, established as a distinctively Christian college, and has always been in sympathy with missionary work.

Respectfully yours, F. M. Herrick.

New York, January 3, 1888.

FRENCH LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEES AND BUREAUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A passing reference on the first page of the fifteenth chapter of Mr. Bryce's book, 'The American Commonwealth,' calls to my mind a subject upon which information may be of interest to some readers of the *Nation*, viz., the system of Bureaus and Commissions in use for the expedition of business in the French Houses. Mr. Bryce speaks of the Bureaus as being somewhat similar to the American Committees of Congress. This, if not explained, would convey a false impression, although most of Mr. Bryce's references to French constitutional and political matters are as accurate as was to be expected of a writer of such power, clearness of mind, and wealth of information. Under the general name of "bureaus" Mr. Bryce evidently alludes to both the bureaus and commissions, the latter much more important than the former. In fact, except in one important particular, the bureaus are merely the agency employed for the appointment of commissions—nothing else.

What is most likely to strike an American or Englishman as strange in French parliamentary life is, that the bureaus are the creation of chance. At the beginning of every month both the Senate and House are divided into a number of bureaus, always an odd number—now nine in the Senate, eleven in the House—fixed by the rules adopted by each house in its first session. The formation of the bureaus is a perfect lottery, the name of each member being drawn in turn, and assigned to some bureau by the rank it occupies in the drawing. This drawing, formerly a very tedious operation, is now performed by a very ingenious contrivance, the invention of a late member of the House, M. Tamisier.

As soon as their membership has been fixed the bureaus meet, and organize by the election in each of them of a president or chairman and a secretary. They also elect the members of the three monthly commissions or committees, viz., on Parliamentary Initiative, on Furloughs, and on Local Bills. Then, whenever a special commission has to be appointed for the examination of a Government bill, a bill brought from the other house, a bill introduced by a member and for which urgency has been declared, or which has been *taken into consideration* after being reported, favorably or not, from the Commission on Parliamentary Initiative, each Bureau elects one, or two, or three members of that Commission, as the house may direct. Such election is usually preceded by a summary discussion, in which the members who desire to be elected members of the Commission take part, and state whether they are for or against the bill, or non-committal.

The real work is done in the Commission. As soon as it is elected it organizes by the election of a chairman and secretary, and, if large, like the *Commission du Budget*, which usually consists of three members per Bureau, divides into sous-commissions. Bills are not necessarily reported by the chairman of the Commission, but by a special *rapporteur;* but it often happens that the Commission elects the same member as *rapporteur* who was originally elected chairman. The *Commission du Budget* usually elects several *rapporteurs*—first, a *rapporteur général*, second, one *rapporteur spécial* for the budget of each ministry.

It thus appears that most of what is done here by the Committees of Congress is done in France by the Commissions, and not by the Bureaus. In one instance, however, the Bureaus act as real committees, viz., in examining the credentials of new members. The departments and colonies of France are allotted among the Bureaus, and each Bureau reports to the full House, through a specially-elected *rapporteur*, on the admission or non-admission of each member returned as elected, fulfilling thus somewhat the same duties as the American Committee on Privileges and Elections.

Yours truly, A. C.

Harvard University, Dec. 30, 1888.

COMPLETE PROTECTION FOR ACTORS

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust that in framing the proposed law for the protection of American actors Congress will not fail to make it complete, by adding a section compelling the American people to buy tickets to the theatrical performances. Curiously enough, an analogous omission is invariably made by legislators in "usury" laws. They always omit a section compelling the capitalist to lend his money to those in whose interest the law is supposed to be made.—Respectfully, T. H.

Philadelphia, December 29, 1888.

SHORTCOMINGS OF THE 'ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number you review the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' and conclude with: "The 'Britannica' is a highly undigested work for scholars." The criticism I think is just. It is a most valuable work, but not abreast with the times. Many subjects are treated at too great a length, and others not at all. As an illustration may serve the subject "Algebra," to which in my edition forty five pages are devoted. Any one who possesses the Encyclopædia is supposed to have received a fair education; and as elementary algebra is taught in the public schools, there is no occasion to go into such details as giving the rules for addition, subtraction, etc. Undoubtedly every possessor of the Encyclopædia is possessor of a text-book on algebra also. On the other hand, I have been frequently disappointed in turning to the work for a certain subject in not finding it. For example, "Photogrammetry" is not to be found therein, although it is an art that has been actively pursued for more than fifteen years, and is of the highest import. Why it should be found in 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon,' a less pretentious work, and not in the 'Britannica,' I fail to see. Many more examples could be cited.

Yours truly, Otto J. Klotz.

Preston, Ont., January 2, 1889.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. have in press a new work on Darwinism, by Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, which promises to have much scientific significance.

Longmans, Green & Co. will shortly issue 'The Great War Syndicate,' by Frank R. Stockton; and 'Social Progress,' by Daniel Greenleaf Thompson, President of the Nineteenth Century Club of this city.

Harper & Bros. make an important and welcome announcement of a 'Latin Dictionary for Schools,' by Charlton T. Lewis, who has not abridged the larger dictionary edited by him in connection with the late Dr. Charles Short, but has made an entirely new and independent work. In choosing illustrations, the earliest books read by schoolboys have been preferred, as, Cæsar's Gallic War, Cicero's Catilinian Orations, Virgil's Æneid, etc. Such a work has been long needed and will be a great boon.

The late Laurence Oliphant's 'Scientific Religion; or, Higher Possibilities of Life and Practice,' is to be reprinted forthwith by Chas. A. Wenborne, Buffalo, N. Y., in an authorized edition.

Two new volumes in the "Canterbury Poets" series come to us from Walter Scott (New York: T. Whittaker), viz., 'Poems of Wild Life' and Milton's 'Paradise Regained and Minor Poems.' The first collection has been made by Mr. Chas. G. D. Roberts, and aims to exhibit the unconventional muse who flourishes on the border between barbarism and advanc-

ing civilization. As a matter of course, he draws mostly from our American anthology, but without confining himself to Joaquin Miller or Walt Whitman (from Bret Harte he was precluded by copyright): Bryant, Fawcett, De-Kay, Lanier, Gilder, John Boyle O'Reilly, Stedman, Stoddard, also occur, among many Canadian versifiers, like the editor himself, and even Thomas Pringle and the Swedish Tegnér. The flavor of this little volume, as may be judged, is fresh and pronounced. The Milton is another happy selection, with the sonnets and translations appended, "On the Morning of Christ's Nativity," "Il Penseroso," "L'Allegro," "Comus," "Lycidas," "Samson Agonistes," and "Paradise Regained"—the *pièce de résistance:* all in pocket compass.

From the same London and American publishers we have two more volumes of the "Camelot Series"—translations of the 'Encheiridion' of Epictetus and of some of the 'Dissertations' and 'Fragments,' by T. W. Rolleston, with a rather discreditable list of errata, English and Greek; and essays on Spenser, Shakspere, Milton, Wordsworth, and Keats, on Lessing, and on Rousseau and the Sentimentalists, by James Russell Lowell—all, save the Lessing, originally lectures for his college classes. Mr. Lowell furnishes "an apology for a preface," in which he confesses to small experience in preface writing and no great regard for what, after all, is an art like any other. Thirty years have, as he says, made the Professor bearing his name a stranger to him; but the public know that a much longer period is required to make his literary criticism antiquated or charmless.

From Lowell to Dante is a natural transition, and we proceed to remark a flattering notice of Fay's 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia,' by A. Pagliani, in the Florence *Nazione* for December 6; "ottimo libro," "non dubbia utilità," "non poco importanza filologica," are some of his phrases. Further, we observe in the Milan *Perseveranza* of December 19 mention of a youth's commentary on the "Purgatory"—'Il Purgatorio di Dante dichiarato ai giovani da Angelo De Gubernatis' (Florence: Luigi Niccolai). De Gubernatis published last year the "Paradiso" in a uniform style of typography and exposition, believing that the best introduction to Dante for the young is in the order he pursues. The enterprise was undertaken for the sake of his son and namesake. Finally, in the *Perseveranza's* monthly *Rivista Scientifico-Letteraria* for July, Policarpo Petrocchi discusses adversely Stefano Grosso's dissertation on three variants in a codex of the 'Commedia' recently discovered in Udine by Vincenzo Ioppi.

Prof. Paolo Mantegazza, the famous Italian scientist, has just issued the first part of his work on the nervousness of the present age and its causes. The volume is called 'Il Secolo Tartufo.' The immediate publication of another work by the same author is announced—the latest of a series of metaphysical studies—'Fisiologia dell' Odio.'

In the fourth number of the Journal of the British and American Archæological Society of Rome is printed a paper read by Mr. W. J. Stillman on "Prehistoric Walls in Greece and Italy," beginning with Monte Leone, concerning which fortified peninsula he has written in these columns. He classifies the varieties of construction in these walls (by the aid of which he assigns antiquity in this order to Tiryns, Mykenæ, Argos, and Corinth), and indicates their distribution on the Italian peninsula, in the Peloponnesus and the isles of Greece, and on the shore of Asia Minor. His theory is of a civilization autocthonous in Italy, and spreading southeasterly, instead of a counter current from Egypt or Phœnicia, the absence of metal tool-marks on the stones being conclusive in his eyes.

Mr. Edward Roth's 'Complete Index to Littell's Living Age' reaches the word *Tale* in the department of Fiction (Philadelphia, No. 1135 Pine Street.)

Nos. 2 and 3 of the Publications of the American Statistical Association contain a paper on "Park Areas and Open Spaces in American and European Cities," by E. R. L. Gould, and a very useful "Key to the Publications of the U. S. Census, 1790–1887," with occasional references to other statistical works, and an historical sketch of our census, by Edward Clark Lunt.

Mr. Christern sends us the first number of the illustrated paper, *L'Exposition de Paris de* 1889, conformable to its predecessor of 1878. It contains a bird's-eye view of the grounds and buildings in their final shape, portraits of Eiffel and other engineers, views of the great tower, etc., etc.

From this date, beginning its eleventh volume, the *American Chemical Journal*, issued by the Publication Agency of Johns Hopkins University, will appear in eight numbers a year instead of six—or monthly save during July, August, September, and October. This enlargement will permit the revival of reviews, reports, and abstracts discontinued for want of space. The price will consequently be raised from $3 to $4 a volume.

Great variety and interest characterize the contents of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January. Mr. H. F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" whet the appetite with a copy of the will of Lawrence Washington, grandfather of our first President, which seems to indicate a northern county of England as the hive of the family, rather than Northamptonshire. The descendants of Thomas Palmer, one of the early and best citizens of Boston, are concerned with Mr. Waters's batch of Palmer wills. There is a list of the alumni of Princeton who have held official positions. But the literary gem of the number is the late Alvan Clark's autobiographical sketch, written at the age of seventy-four. There are passages here which have the stamp of Defoe. Mr. Clark's account of his career as an engraver and miniature painter will surprise many. He tells of going abroad in 1859 with one equatorial mounting and two object glasses, on which he had paid 30 per cent. duty when imported as rough glass into Boston. "Nor was that all. The glass was warranted first quality, and when I informed the Deputy Collector that a large portion of the amount in invoice was in consideration of the warranty, and asked him if any allowance would be made in case it turned out worthless, he said, 'No, not a cent. If you buy the devil, you may sell him again.' The crown *did* turn out defective, and I had to import another and pay 30 per cent again. But we were then under a Democratic Administration," he adds naïvely. Mr. Clark never sued but one man, and that was the Collector, and he won his case.

Under the title of 'Physical Development' (Boston; Lee & Shepard), Dr. Nathan Allen of Lowell has rearranged many of his essays published in the last twenty or thirty years on that and kindred subjects. The idea around which all the discussion centres is the modification of the race for better or worse by care—or the want of it—in breeding, with constant insistence that the children of pure American stock are steadily declining in numbers.

Dr. G. A. Evans has "compiled and arranged" a 'Handbook of Historical and Geographical Phthisiology' (Appletons). A very careful examination fails to discover any sufficient reason for it, notwithstanding the fact that consumption is an ever-present terror at our doors. The book is not indexed.

Two interesting books were issued last July from the Weidmann'sche Buchhandlung, viz., the third edition of Blass's 'Aussprache des Griechischen,' and the second edition, enlarged and improved, of 'Grammatik der Attischen Inschriften,' by Meisterhaus, of which we may speak hereafter. Blass has made his enlargements chiefly in the notes. He calls special attention in his preface to an interesting appendix containing the Lord's Prayer in modern Greek—not in the literary language, but in the language of every-day intercourse. This is followed by a carefully marked and accented transcription in Roman letters. Blass confines himself mainly to the theoretical side of the question. In contrast with this is an interesting lecture that deals with the practical side of the matter, viz., what pronunciation is to be adopted as the one to be taught in schools ('Die Aussprache des Griechischen: Vortrag gehalten im wissenschaftlichen Verein zu Breslau, von Dr. Konrad Zacher' (Leipzig: Teubner, 1888). The lecture, of forty-two pages, is supplemented by five pages of notes.

A novelty in calendars is that distributed by Thurber, Whyland & Co., in which each day of the year is set in a circle standing for the moon, and showing the appropriate phase of that luminary. The calendar prepared by Francis & Loutrel is elegantly simple and distinct, and has on the back of each monthly leaf a memorandum diary.

—"Round as Giotto's O," with much else in the master's life and work, acquires new significance under Mr. Stillman's fine historical treatment in the January *Century*, while Mr. Cole's reproductions, five in number, are enough to vindicate the high praise that a just criticism bestows upon the painter who first substituted true dramatic expression for the conventional faces that had gone before him. Mr. Frederic Remington has a subject which he has already made his own—"Horses of the Plains"—writes about it with great intelligence and from a full experience, and is his own illustrator. Nearly all of his blocks are good, some of them excellently spirited, and in almost all it is not hard to trace the influence of the instantaneous photograph. Fine illustrations also accompany Edward L. Wilson's Syrian paper. Charles de Kay has the first of what is to be a series of articles on Ireland. He lays out his work with great thoroughness, writing in this number of pagan Ireland, and giving with sufficient detail an account of Irish mythology and pre-Christian society, the aim of all being to enable us to understand the Irishman and the Ireland of to-day. Mr. Kennan breaks off the thread of his narrative so as to group in a single article details of the life of what are known in Russia as "administrative exiles," that is, men who are hurried into Siberia without a trial, without even knowing of their offence, deprived of the rights of a citizen without being accorded the privileges of a criminal—victims, in short, of the Government's most brutal and intolerable cruelty. What may be taken for a tapering-off of the war-papers is given in an article on "The West Point of the Confederacy," a slight but entertaining account of the Military School at Lexington, Va., and of the honorable part borne by the cadets in the battle of New Market.

—A series of photographs bearing the name of "Raphael's Hours" is brought home by many Americans who travel abroad. These

representations are general favorites. The same designs when colored are considered still more charming. Curiosity has been naturally roused regarding the origin of these graceful and fairy-like creations. At least eight articles on this matter have appeared in the London *Notes and Queries*. The "Hours" have been traced to the studio of a celebrated painter in Rome, Nicola Consoni. This artist, born near Perugia in 1814, was employed at Rome in frescoing the Vatican as well as the Corsini Palace, and in England was engaged for decorating the Albert Memorial at Osborne. But at an earlier day he had been commissioned to paint the "Hours" on panels at the Queen's residence, Buckingham Palace. Did the "Hours" originate with Consoni? By no means. He owed them to certain engravings which appeared in the seventeenth century in the style of Marc Antonio, the only artist who was allowed by Raphael to engrave his designs as soon as they were drawn, and before he had begun to paint them, and in whose engravings some lost works of Raphael—notably the "Lucretia"—still survive. These seventeenth-century engravings were universally called "Raphael's Hours." This is the testimony of Alexander Mantovani, the court painter of Pius IX., and of his successor. Moreover, Signor Consoni told Miss Busk, an English sojourner in Rome, that in his youth he had seen a print of that Borgian apartment of the Vatican where the signs of the zodiac still remain, in which room the twelve "Hours" "were roughly indicated as having been at one time there also." The lady's conclusion was that the "Hours" once adorned that room, but that, having become damaged, they were painted over, as the portrait of Dante was in the Museo Nazionale at Florence. What we still desiderate is to know the date at which the "Hours" began to be called Raphael's, and evidence that those engravings, though they lay hid till the seventeenth century, were possibly the handiwork of Marc Antonio himself in the sixteenth. The Zodiac Room was painted by Pinturicchio after designs, as is said, of Raphael. When the Pope shall permit the whitewash to be removed, traces of the "Hours," though long buried, may come forth to newness of life. Such a consummation must be devoutly desired by Mary Cowden Clarke, who has had the "Hours" frescoed on the entrance-hall of her Villa Novello at Genoa, and of all others who have loved to gaze on those aerial nymphs, which we should say had been copied from Pompeian panels had they not been well known before Pompeii was discovered.

—The Sixth Annual Convention of the Modern Language Association of America was held December 26, 27, 28 at Cincinnati, under the auspices of the University of Cincinnati. For the first time in its history, the Association met west of the Alleghanies. The result of this new departure was extremely gratifying. The Convention was largely attended, a series of interesting and scholarly papers was presented, many of them by Western men, spirited discussions were had, and the members of the Association were royally entertained by the citizens of the Queen City. In the absence of President James Russell Lowell the Convention was called to order by Prof. James Morgan Hart of the University of Cincinnati, who, after a few words of welcome, read a letter from the absent President in which the latter expressed his profound interest in the progress of the Association, and his regrets at being prevented from attending this meeting. A formal address of welcome was then delivered by Gen. J. D. Cox, President of the University, who pointed out the marked advance in the method and scope of teaching modern languages and the growing interest in the study of modern philology and literature. This address was followed by a discourse from the Rev. E. D. Morris, D.D., upon the "Language and Literature of Wales."

—The business meetings of the Association extended through Thursday and Friday, December 27 and 28, with both morning and afternoon sessions. Among the papers read and debated, the following were of special interest: "The Allegory as Employed by Spenser, Bunyan, and Swift," by Dr. H. E. Greene of St. Paul's School, L. I.; "On the Origin and Development of the Story of Reynard the Fox," by Prof. A. Gerber of Earlham College, Ind.; "Italian Poetry and Patriotism at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century," by Prof. F. M. Page of the University of the South, Tenn.; "The Origin of Separable Compound Verbs in German," by Prof. H. von Jagemann of Indiana University; "The Study of Modern Languages in some of our Secondary Schools," by Prof. C. Zdanowicz of Vanderbilt University, Tenn.; "Dante's Paradiso, Cantos XXIV-XXVI," by Prof. E. Walter of the University of Michigan; "The Huguenot Element in Charleston's Pronunciation," by Prof. G. Primer of the College of Charleston, S. C.; "On the Impersonal Verbs in German," by Dr. J. Goebel, New York; "La Naissance, Le Chevalier au Cygne, and the Cycle of the Crusades," by Dr. H. Todd of Johns Hopkins; "The Anglo-Saxon House at the Time of Cynewulf," by Prof. H. Schilling of Wittenberg College, O.; "The Creste of Auberi le Bourgoing," by Dr. Thos. McCabe of the University of Michigaa.

O'CONNELL'S LETTERS.

Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell, The Liberator. Edited by W. J. Fitzpatrick. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

ORATORS who make no attempt at perfection of form, or who do not, like Burke, deal with the philosophy of politics, are soon forgotten in our day. This generation, both in the United States and in Great Britain, knows so little about Daniel O'Connell that it is difficult to believe that it was of him that even Greville, the keen and somewhat cynical contemporaneous observer, said in his Memoirs, "History will speak of him as one of the most remarkable men who ever existed; he will fill a great space in its pages. His position was unique; there never was before, and there never will be again, anything at all resembling it."

To understand the impression O'Connell made on his contemporaries, and the large space he filled in English politics between 1829 and 1843, one has to remember two things. The first is, that before his day the popular orator, the man who swayed vast audiences by mere eloquence, was unknown in England. Before the passage of the Reform Bill, the only oratory known to Englishmen was the oratory of Parliament, of the bar, and of the pulpit. The great politicians part of the eighteenth century and of the early part of the nineteenth—Chatham, Pitt, Fox, Sheridan, Burke, Grattan, Canning, Windham—made their mark in Parliament only. The machinery of agitation, which plays so large a part in the politics of our day, had not been thought of. Large meetings held to criticize the Government were almost unknown. Attacks on the established order of things were made on paper, mostly in pamphlets, and were answered in pamphlets. Defoe, Wilkes, and "Junius" furnished the type of non-parliamentary defenders of the people against the abuses of power. Moreover, the voters were so small a body that great assemblages composed of them were hardly possible in any part of the country. A large public meeting, if held, would necessarily have consisted in the main of non-voters, who passed in the political nomenclature of that day as "the mob," whom it would have been undignified for a statesman to listen to or address. The appearance of O'Connell in an arena of this sort, with a huge crowd of followers behind him clamoring for rights denied them by the Constitution, and swayed by his eloquence to an extent which, to the phlegmatic English temper, seemed incomprehensible, was a very startling phenomenon. Nothing of the kind had been witnessed in English political history, and it excited mingled astonishment and indignation among the ruling classes.

The second thing is, that O'Connell may be said to have introduced the Irish people to the modern political world. Englishmen knew something of the Protestant Anglo-Irish gentry, who had achieved parliamentary independence under Grattan and Flood, sent members to the English House of Commons after the Union, furnished officers in considerable numbers to the army, and figured in London and at Bath as adventurers, fortune-hunters, and duellists; but of the Irish Catholics, forming the bulk of the Irish people, they may be said to have known nothing—indeed, they were hardly aware of their existence. Nor was this surprising when we remember how little the real Irish were known to their Protestant countrymen. There is a short passage in Burke's letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe which has been much quoted in recent controversies, and which throws a flood of light on the place which the conquered race occupied at the close of the last century in the eyes of their masters. He says:

"Sure I am that there have been thousands in Ireland who have never conversed with a Roman Catholic in their whole lives, unless they happened to talk to their gardener's workmen, or to ask their way when they had lost it in their sports, or at best who had known them only as footmen or other domestics of the second and third order."

When O'Connell was admitted to the bar—one of the first of his creed and race to be so admitted after the relaxation of the Penal Laws—there had been considerable change for the better in the political and social status of the Catholics, but hardly any diminution of English ignorance of all that concerned them. Their feelings, their aspirations, their condition, their history, were all hidden from the ordinary Englishman. That they were "papists" and priest-ridden was nearly all he knew or cared to know about them. This accounts for what may be called the O'Connell sensation in English politics and society when he came to London after his election for the County of Clare—a sensation of which his letters in the present volumes give very interesting glimpses. It accounts, too, for what, to this generation, which is very weary of the Irish question in all its aspects, now seems somewhat puzzling—the great success which attended the earlier Irish novels, such as Carleton's 'Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry' and Mrs. S. C. Hall's sketches of Irish peasant life and manners, between 1830 and 1840.

O'Connell's private correspondence with his family and friends, now for the first time published, will furnish a very complete defence of his memory against the charge of insincerity and self-seeking so freely made against him by the English press in his lifetime. They abound with proofs and illustrations of his single-mind-

edness and independence. They show, to begin with, that he was, during his whole public life, laboring under pecuniary difficulties caused by early imprudence in endorsing notes for friends —a folly which the exuberant generosity of his nature seemed to make natural. His earnings at the bar from the very first were extraordinary for a young man in a poor country. During the remainder of his career they might have had no limit except what was imposed by his physical ability. But, although he drew but a small income from an hereditary estate in Kerry, and had a large family to provide for, he completely neglected his professional business for politics, and bore the total expense, then very considerable, of numerous contested elections, not only his own, but those of brothers and friends enlisted in the same cause with himself. He was most generous with his purse as well as with his professional services; and if he had not had, in a certain Mr. Fitzpatrick—a business man in Dublin to whom a very large proportion of the letters in the present volumes are addressed—a devoted friend, who looked after his financial affairs for him with untiring assiduity, he would probably have come to serious grief before his career was half over.

O'Connell had, when he first went to London in 1826 as counsel of the Catholic Association, a great success socially, but it was a *succès de curiosité*. As the leader of the movement for Catholic Emancipation he was not a bad lion for the drawing-rooms and dinner-tables, and received an amount of notice by which his letters to his wife show he was much flattered. This lasted down to his entrance to the House of Commons after the passage of the Emancipation Bill; but his social popularity in England died out very soon, under the violence of his own language. The virulence of the abuse which he heaped on political opponents was something new in the upper circle of English politics. "Scoundrel" was about his mildest term of condemnation—"scoundrel aristocracy," "scoundrel reporters"; but that he was unconscious of its force is made probable by the fact that he applied it to himself in moments of self-reproach over a blunder or piece of negligence, in cases in which other men would have called themselves fools or blockheads. Tho English newspapers paid him back in kind. He had a row with the reporters of the London press very early in his parliamentary career, over incorrect or garbled reports of his speeches, and revenged himself and forced them into good behavior by having them excluded from the galleries, under the rule as to "strangers." In this conflict, however, he had the support of the then editor of the *Times*, Carlyle's friend, Captain Sterling. This good understanding did not last very long. In 1841 the *Times* described him in a leading article as "an unredeemed and irredeemable scoundrel," and the priests who supported him as "surpliced ruffians." But seven years before this, in 1833, when he was first beginning the repeal agitation, he had been planning retribution for these attacks by a series of personalities which he describes as follows:

"You are aware that we must show up by real names and characters the persons who write for that paper. At the first leisure moment, I will give you sketches of the two principal writers, one a thin-skinned adventurer of the name of Barnes; the other with something of a tougher hide of the name of Stirling (*sic*). We will trace him through his different changes, now an Irish barrister, then a captain of militia, then a parson, and lastly the Great Unknown of the *Times*, who is saluted with awe by the *ci-devant* Whigs and now beplaced Tories of Brooks's Club. Mr. Stirling is not known at the *Times* as the stage falsehood of the scene. Nor do I see why old Walter himself should escape. He uses an engine to assail others as under a masked battery."

It does not appear that this exploration was ever carried out, but the warfare continued as long as O'Connell's health and vigor lasted. The resemblance between his relations with the *Times*, as indicated in the above extract, and those which exist to-day between the same journal and O'Connell's successor, Parnell, is a curious illustration of the vitality of the "Irish question," and of the smallness of the progress made towards a solution of it.

The exuberance and impetuosity, and one may say recklessness, of O'Connell's temperament are brought out more clearly in his letters than in his speeches. Everything in his character overflows—his affection for his family, his devotion to the Catholic Church and to the Irish cause, his hatred of his enemies, his gratitude to supporters, and his fidelity to friends. There is a vein of exaggeration in all his political writing and talking. His eulogies and his abuse are both fervid to the last degree. All the traits ascribed by ethnologists to the typical Celt were produced in greater or less fulness at every stage in his career, and they were made the more prominent by the fact that he was not only a Celt, but a Celt all aflame with the passion of a great struggle, who felt that the fortunes of a downtrodden race depended on his tongue. That there was, too, as there often is in Celtic heat, a good deal of method in his heat, there is little doubt. He came early to the conclusion on which his successors in Irish agitation have continued to act, that the best way to get the ear of Englishmen about matters which do not concern them personally is to shock them, to offend their sense of propriety, to alarm them about their persons and their property, and make them believe that they are dealing, not simply with ruffians, but with dangerous ruffians.

That O'Connell produced some such impression as this on English opinion, in spite of his belief in and enjoyment of peaceful agitation and his real horror of violence, there is, unhappily, little question. Its effect in separating him from Englishmen of whose sympathy with him in Irish matters he could feel sure, is curiously illustrated in a passage of Richard Cobden's diary, reproduced in John Morley's biography of the great apostle of free trade. O'Connell supported the free-trade cause steadily from the beginning. He opposed the Corn Bill of 1815, and stood by the Anti-Corn-Law League from 1838 down to its triumph in 1846. He had rendered the same service to every good cause of his day, including the anti-slavery cause in the British West Indies and the United States; and yet here is what Cobden says of him in 1848, when explaining his own silence on Irish questions in the House of Commons:

"I found the populace of Ireland represented in the House by a body of men, with O'Connell at their head, with whom I could feel no more sympathy or identity than with people whose language I did not understand. In fact, *morally*, I felt a complete antagonism and repulsion towards them. O'Connell always treated me with friendly attention, but I never shook hands with him or faced his smile without a feeling of insecurity; and as for trusting him on any public question where his vanity or his passions might interpose, I should as soon have thought of an alliance with an Ashantee chief."

This passage probably throws more light on the question of "Home Rule" than any other of equal length in recent political literature. O'Connell's private letters fortify the proofs afforded by his public career that Cobden was absolutely unjust to him, that he not only did not understand the Irish temperament, but was incapable of doing so; and yet Cobden was an unusually candid, fair-minded, well-meaning Englishman. O'Connell's letters show that he was really a valuable and perfectly trustworthy ally in every good cause, provided it did not interfere with his service to Ireland; that he was, for his time, a man of unusual political light and liberality; that his devotion to the Irish cause was sincere, and was marked from first to last by self-sacrifice, and was maintained under considerable private trials and difficulties. And yet, here is an Englishman of the very best class who avows that he could not sit comfortably in political council with him, owing to prejudice against his looks and manners. Could there be a stronger argument in favor of some sort of separation, be it little or great, between the legislators of the two countries?

PROF. BRYCE'S AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH.—II.

The American Commonwealth. By James Bryce, author of 'The Holy Roman Empire,' M.P. for Aberdeen. Macmillan & Co.

THE general conclusion which Prof. Bryce reaches is, that the faults which need correction are not so much in our constitutional frame of government as in our methods of working it. In this most of us will cordially agree. It is, however, interesting to note some of the differences of view which come of the different standpoints occupied by Englishmen and Americans. Habit makes almost any system easy, and a stranger is apt to be mistaken in selecting the parts which chafe.

Nothing is more common than to contrast our fixed and "rigid" Constitution with the so-called unlimited powers of the British Parliament. It is commonly said that Great Britain has no Constitution in our sense of the word. It may be questioned whether our use of it is as strict as is supposed, or their system as unlimited. Recent writers are prone to drop the once venerable and oft-recurring phrase "the British Constitution"; but, vague as it was, it had real meaning. Every people recognizes the fact which Cromwell put to his Parliament: some things are fundamentals. These fundamentals may be as firmly fixed when part of the common law of custom as in a written charter. The barons' declaration, "We will not have the laws of England changed," could not have meant that all making of statutes and decrees should cease, but that those fundamentals should not be meddled with on which the organization of the kingdom and the liberty of the subject depended. Magna Charta, from this point of view, was simply a deed of confirmation of these fundamentals under the King's great seal, and generations of Englishmen for seven centuries have regarded it as irrevocable. So far as it put in written form the fundamentals to which the nation was attached, it is hard to see how it differs from any other written constitution. The Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Mutiny Act, etc., seem to us amendments of the Constitution. In ordinary times the discussion may have little importance; but let us suppose a parliament to abolish all these safeguards, to enact, as in Henry the Eighth's time, that proclamations of the King should have the force of a statute, and to reinstate the Star Chamber. From our American point of view, we should expect the British people to treat this as exactly such a violation of the Constitution as if an American Congress should set up a king. We should not expect them to say that Parliament was acting within its lawful powers, and could only be reached by a revolution: we should rather look to see them declare that Parliament

had made a revolution against the nation, and that the people must sustain the "fundamental" law by squelching that Parliament in the swiftest and most thorough way possible. It would be the people who were acting within their constitutional powers, and the Legislature who were illegally usurping despotic functions. The difference seems to us very great; and in a critical time, the lawful rights of the contestants count for much. The fiction that Parliament is the nation would be found to have died long ago, and to have been quietly but solidly replaced by the doctrine of national representation. Such considerations make us doubt if the difference between Great Britain and America is that the former has no constitution; but, rather, to hold that it is to be found in the fact that our Constitution is separately written, while the British is partly written and partly founded on established custom which hereditary public opinion has declared to be "fundamental."

The independence of the coördinate departments of our Government is another subject which European observers find it hard to grasp. The relation of the judiciary to the other departments is especially difficult for them, though they have often unduly exalted the office of the Supreme Court in declaring laws unconstitutional. We do not remember any foreign writer who has so neatly and clearly shown, as Mr. Bryce has done, that the judicial judgment, in determining what is the law of the case at bar, necessarily includes the determination of the prevailing law, if the Constitution and a statute are in conflict; yet he seems to have yielded a little too much to the tendency to assume that the judgment of the court of last resort in effect repeals a law declared unconstitutional. It cannot be too explicitly understood that in the United States the judgment is strictly limited to the decision of the issue between a plaintiff and a defendant; the authoritative thing is the judgment for plaintiff or the judgment for defendant. The grounds for the Court's opinion form a precedent, by which lawyers will advise their clients as to the probable result in a like case; but there is nothing to prevent the lower courts, whether Federal or State, from deciding contrary to the precedent, and sending up fresh cases, to give the Supreme Court the opportunity to overrule the former decision.* So there is nothing but the probable futility of the result to prevent counsel from taking up cases decided below in exact accord with the precedent, and it is in fact often done.

The Legislature may differ in opinion from the Court, and often leaves laws upon the statute-book which the courts do not enforce, waiting for the results of further discussion, or for a change in the personnel of the Court. In the legal-tender cases cited by Prof. Bryce, the law for a time was thus judicially suspended, but the same law was again enforced under the later decisions; it had remained in the Revised Statutes all the time. American lawyers do not feel that this contingency that decisions may be overruled is a harmful thing. It is usually in questions of a political character that the change occurs; and we find no insecurity resulting from the understanding that a change of judges on the bench will bring the court into harmony with the prevailing public opinion on important public questions. Changes made for the purpose of reversing a judgment shock us as violent and abnormal; but those which come in the usual course of events are taken to be part of the natural progress of history. It would have shocked none of us to have the Dred Scott decision overruled by a contrary one after the civil war, had the question not been disposed of by general emancipation. In like manner, we should fail to see how the respect for law would have suffered if English courts had overruled the old decisions that it was the province of the court, and not of the jury, to decide whether a publication were libellous. If Parliament had chosen to declare and interpret the common law so as to reverse that rule, as they might, it would have been a conclusive determination that the courts had erroneously decided, and the theory of infallibility would be as really overturned as if the courts had themselves done it. We fully recognize the historic truth that decisions have changed, are changing, and ought to continue to change (to paraphrase Dunning's celebrated resolution), and only ask that the change shall be judicious, as well as judicial, as the logic of events draws new conclusions from human experience.

The relations of the Judiciary to the Executive are not more difficult than those with the Legislature, if we only follow the right clue. We need to remember (1) that the Executive (like the Legislature) is its own judge of constitutional power and duty; (2) that the Judiciary as such is absolutely dependent upon the Executive for the execution of its judgments. Identical as is the proposition, it is often forgotten that execution is executive.

As to the first of these propositions, it is clear that if the Judiciary could by precept determine for the Legislature and the Executive the limits of their duty, both affirmatively and negatively, the courts would be the supreme power of the land, and the other departments would be subordinate, not coördinate. As to the second, it needs to be remarked that the judicial function properly ends with the award of the writ after judgment; the Executive must then take up the task, and see that the laws are executed. In ordinary cases between man and man, the routine of executive action by the sheriff or the marshal is so much a matter of course that men forget that the court is not acting. It is only when the gravity of the occasion calls in the chief executive, or the judgment of the court is one the chief executive alone can execute, that the coördinate independence and discretion are necessarily revealed. Jackson's mode of speech was rough and not official when he said in the Cherokee case, "Let John Marshall enforce the judgment himself"; but the *thing* was constitutional, and every way as legal as the judgment in question. It was a high political question whether he would use the army of the United States to coerce the people of Georgia. Waiving all question as to the legal accuracy of the judgment of the court, there was no mere ministerial duty to enforce it, cost what it might, but a coördinate responsibility to use his high political discretion in doing so. This responsibility was to the people of the United States and not to the court.

So in the action of Lincoln, when he refused to allow his military officers to obey the habeas corpus issued by Judge Taney. He distinctly assumed as indisputable his own right to interpret the Constitution, and the absence of all right in the judge to dictate his interpretation. That Taney was suspected of sympathizing with the rebellion cuts no figure in the matter. It was the assertion of the right of the President to use his own judgment, subject only to the perils which the Constitution itself declares, among which attachment for disobedience to a court is not one. It would be absurd if it were, for he and his subordinates would have to execute the attachment! In the Hay and Nicolay biography is Lincoln's draft of his message to Congress on the subject, and it leaves no doubt as to his position. He asserts his discretion, under his solemn responsibilities to the nation, to determine which to omit if he finds it impossible in such a time to enforce all the laws; but as to the right to suspend the habeas corpus, which Taney had denied, he said: "I decided that we have a case of rebellion, and that the public safety does require the qualified suspension of the writ of habeas corpus which I authorized to be made." His reason for his opinion that he had the power, he finds in the absence of any denial of it in the Constitution, and in the fact that the danger which made the suspension necessary could not be assumed to wait for the assembling of Congress.

Prof. Bryce would seem to go too far in assuming that these executive acts were violations of the Constitution, and, as we think, has not fully seized upon the independent character of the departments of the Government. An old legal maxim says, it is the quality of a good court to enlarge its jurisdiction. Students of our laws naturally look to the judicial interpretation of Constitution and statutes for their guidance; but in this delicate province of executive independence it should be remembered that the language of the courts is apt to lean in favor of their jurisdiction, and we have to look to historical acts like those of Jackson and Lincoln for the rules of constitutional action which have been enforced in perilous times, when alone such questions are at all likely to arise.

Our author, however, very accurately touches the spring of ultimate power which prevents clashing in the great departments of the Government. Each, as he well says, is appointed by the people to its special work, for the express purpose of harmoniously coördinating their action. Their business is to work together and not at odds. Behind them is that intelligent and omnipotent public opinion which will apply the penalty to the one which in the public judgment may be at fault. This sense of direct answerability to a watchful master is what prevents, and may safely be trusted to prevent, a dead-lock between them.

It also tends to preserve the proper balance between them; for with public opinion on its side, either department may speedily reconquer anything it may seem to have lost. As all are sovereign in a sense, the old maxim, that Time does not run against the King, applies to each. Precedents have practically no weight when the letter of the Constitution may be appealed to. When public opinion sustained them, the houses of Congress constrained Johnson to submit to undue limitations on his power to appoint officers and to remove them. When Grant's popularity was thrown into the other scale, the Tenure-of-office Law was first changed and then repealed. The consciousness of this is a powerful influence against strife, because defeat is almost certain if one goes counter to public opinion.

After noting in turn many points in which, to an Englishman, our system seems to lack coherence and unity (which space forbids us to examine in detail), Prof. Bryce still concludes that perhaps no other organization of government would be found, on the whole, more de-

*What we are saying, of course, holds equally true of State Supreme Courts. Here is an authentic anecdote from the Life of the late Senator B. F. Wade of Ohio, when on the bench of that State: "A case arose before him of considerable difficulty. He gave it full consideration and decided it. It was taken to the Supreme Court of Ohio and there reversed. On mandate it came up before him. He disregarded the mandate and followed his own first decision, and such was his judgment. 'But, your Honor, the Supreme Court reversed your former judgment!' exclaimed the now re-beaten counsel. 'Yes; so I have heard. I will give them a chance to get right,' was the quiet reply. It was again taken to the Supreme Court and re-presented there, and this time with Judge Wade's reported opinion. On reconsideration, this was found to be the better rule. The Court, instead of attaching him for contempt, reversed itself and affirmed his last judgment."

sirable or freer from grave objections; certainly, he thinks, no other would be likely to suit so well the conditions of American life and character. It is in the political methods of working the system, after all, that we must find the evils which do most mischief, and to which the people must apply the cure lest worse things befall us.

A careful reading of the shameful list of abuses done in the name of liberty still leaves the impression that it would be hazardous to conclude that a remedy can be found in this or that statutory expedient. As public opinion is found in the last analysis to be the source of strength for every department of the Government, for every officer of it, for every party which succeeds, it is a public opinion enlightened and aroused by looking at abuses without a veil, that must be trusted to apply the remedy. From whatever point we start our examination, we are pretty sure to come back at last to the one conclusion, that the spoils system has so degraded and corrupted politics that our ordinary methods of political action are completely overslaughed. When we have rooted out this evil, we shall be able to see how our system works under normal conditions, and not till then. Ballot-box stuffing, repeating, forging tally sheets, bribery, are simply the methods by which political criminals work out their end, namely, to get possession of offices and enrich themselves by the plunder of the public. When the people have learned that no party platform offers any advantage at all to be compared in importance with the suppression of the corruption and plunder that make our politics a bye-word whilst our Constitution extorts admiring praise, they will subordinate party for a time to the radical cure of this chief cause of their woes and their disgrace. After that will come a time when the working of our institutions may be studied under favorable conditions to learn whether this or that change of method will improve the general system. Their working under the control of rings and bosses, big and little, affords us no criterion of their value or their capability of securing the common weal. As we can hardly conceive of any influence more likely to help in forming a right judgment on these momentous subjects than that of so wise, so temperate, and so able a discussion of American institutions as Prof. Bryce has here given us, we repeat the wish that it may find its way to the library of every patriotic citizen, and be studied with earnest care.

VIRGIL IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Master Virgil: The Author of the Æneid as he seemed in the Middle Ages. A Series of Studies, by J. S. Tunison. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. vii., 230.

THAT the author of the Fourth Eclogue should have been considered throughout the Middle Ages as a prophet of Christ, and taken his place upon the mediæval stage with Isaiah, Simeon, and Elizabeth, is not remarkable. That he should have figured in mediæval legend as a magician is not so easy of explanation, and has occupied the attention of many students of myths. A considerable amount of material designed to illustrate the varying character assumed by the great Roman poet in the Middle Ages was collected in Germany and France prior to 1872; but no one scholar attempted to cover the whole field, or to offer a satisfactory explanation for the legendary elements in the mediæval Virgil. In the year above mentioned Professor Comparetti of Pisa issued his work 'Virgilio nel Medio Evo,' which has generally been considered to be the last word upon the subject. In this remarkable book, the author traces the vicissitudes of Virgil's fame in literary tradition down to the time of Dante, and in popular legend down to the present day. With a minuteness of which we can give no idea, he has studied the history of the poet in his own and succeeding times, until at the close of the Middle Ages Virgil appears as the guide of Dante, and receives from him a double immortality.

In this exhaustive history, Comparetti is careful to distinguish two currents, one of literary tradition, the other of popular legend—although he confesses that the two categories of fabulous products have a common basis, since both arise from an exaggerated idea of the wisdom of Virgil. The genesis of the myth of Virgil the magician the author finds in certain Neapolitan local traditions based upon the poet's long residence in that city, the presence of his tomb, etc. The fundamental idea of the legend in its origin was that Virgil had not only lived in Naples, but had shared in its government and displayed the greatest love for the public good of the Neapolitans. There existed besides in Naples monuments of ancient or mediæval art to which were ascribed wonderful and talismanic properties, and these were naturally attributed to Virgil. The two vital questions—when the Neapolitans first entained the notion of the talismans, and when Virgil's name was connected with them—Comparetti is unable to answer.

This theory, supported as it was by Comparetti's amazing erudition, was generally accepted by scholars in all countries. In Germany, exception was early taken to the author's separation of the popular legend and literary myth; but it was not until five years after the appearance of Comparetti's work that a serious attack upon his theory of the rise of the Virgil myth was made by Professor W. Vietor in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* I, page 165 ("Der Ursprung der Virgilsage"). It is impossible within our limits to cite the arguments by which (using Comparetti's own material) Vietor shows that the distinction between the popular and literary tradition is unnecessary and groundless, and that the legend is of learned and literary origin.

It is interesting that an American student should have reached the same conclusion independently, and have embodied it in a work which reflects great credit upon its author. Mr. Tunison has modestly entitled his book 'A Series of Studies,' and arranged his material in nine chapters, which treat of Virgil's connection with diabolism, literary tradition, magic, science, the legend of the Salvation of Rome, Virgil the lover, the prophet, and Virgil in later literature. A preliminary chapter, needlessly termed an apology, states the problem to be solved and the author's theory of its solution. This theory, and the method by which it is applied to the various phases of Virgil's fame during the Middle Ages, constitute the originality of the book. Mr. Tunison does not profess (with one slight exception) to have discovered any new material, and his debt to Comparetti is largely and fully acknowledged. He has, however, by the thorough assimilation of his material, won a right to speak with authority, and his theory is the outcome of independent research. It has always seemed a matter of regret that Comparetti's book had not been translated into French and English (there is an excellent abridgement in German), for a working knowledge of Italian is not so extensive even among scholars as might be supposed. Mr. Tunison's work will diminish that regret, for it contains all that any but the specialist will need, and is more attractive for the general reader in form and style than the original work.

The problem of Virgil's legendary character in the Middle Ages is a most interesting one. A well-known historic person, whose individuality is never obscured, appears in the works of scholars in the twelfth century, invested with the character of a magician, and later becomes the hero of the more popular French and German romances. The problem is not so difficult as at first sight appears, and the key to it is to be found in a combination of two factors—the exaggerated idea which scholars gradually formed of Virgil's wisdom, and the tendency during the Middle Ages to explain exceptional learning as the result of magical practices. It must not be forgotten that the works of the poet themselves contributed in no small degree to their author's peculiar renown. The Fourth Eclogue was sufficient to rank the writer among the prophets of Christ, and the Eighth Eclogue led at least one learned author, in a MS. of the fifteenth century, to attribute magical powers to Virgil (Comparetti, vol. i, p. 196, n. 1): "Et fuit magnus magicus, multum enim se dedit arti magicæ ut patet ex illa ecloga 'Pastorum musam Damonis et Alphesiboei.'" The influence in the same direction of various parts of the 'Æneid,' notably the Sixth Book, must also have been considerable. It must further be remembered that Virgil is not the only poet of ancient Rome who has undergone this transformation, which Comparetti (ii, p. 15) declares to be so rare. In No. 1151 of the *Nation* was noticed briefly De Nino's 'Ovidio nella tradizione popolare di Sulmona' (Casalbordino, 1886), in which the poet of the 'Metamorphoses' has undergone the same transformation as his greater countryman. We must therefore differ entirely from Comparetti when he says (ii, p. 15) that the scholastic type of Virgil alone, without any other occasion, could not, by natural transformation and association of ideas, be changed into the type of magician we are now considering.

Comparetti believes this "other occasion" to be the popular Neapolitan legends referred to above, which he supposes to have grown up about Virgil's name. These arguments, after all, rest upon the literary tradition; and Comparetti himself confesses that the people of Naples did nothing but draw material inferences from the literary conception of Virgil, which was such that the cultivated themselves were not surprised at these popular legends. The diffusion of the Virgil myth in European literature took place earlier and more extensively out of Italy than in Italy. It was little known beyond Naples, and little attention was paid to it there, while it was collected by foreigners who visited that city, and transported from the sphere of popular tradition to the sphere of literary tradition, and passed contemporaneously into works of a romantic nature in the vulgar tongue and into Latin works of a learned nature. It appeared from the twelfth century on—that is, at the time of the origin of romantic prose and poetry, properly speaking. These are the words of Comparetti himself (ii, p. 19), and they contain the refutation of his own theory. We may add to the above the significant fact that the contents of the Virgil myth belong, not to the Neapolitans, nor even to the rest of Italy, but constitute the commonplace of popular legend everywhere.

Such is a bald outline of the confutation of Comparetti's theory which Mr. Tunison has rounded out into a compact argument, presented in a clear and attractive manner, and forming part of an agreeable narrative of the various phases of Virgil's renown during the Middle Ages. Mr. Tunison has done his work

so thoroughly as to leave little room for criticism or suggestion. The name of the great scholar of the thirteenth century, Vincent of Beauvais, is uniformly given as Vincent of Beauveis—for what reason we do not know; the name of the Italian poet Cino of Pistoia appears (p. 193) incorrectly as Cinoia of Pistoia. With the literature of the subject since 1872 Mr. Tunison is not so well acquainted. He has not seen the important article of Vietor mentioned above, and is not aware that the Latin original of the French 'Dolopathos' (p. 56) was discovered by Oesterley and printed in 1873 (Strassburg: Trübner) under the title: 'Iohannis de Alta Silva Dolopathos sive de Rege et Septem Sapientibus.' This discovery was of great interest and importance, as it proved (what had long been suspected) that the 'Dolopathos,' which occupies such a unique position among the versions of 'The Seven Wise Masters,' rests upon the basis of oral tradition.

These criticisms detract in no way from the value of Mr. Tunison's work, and are offered as corrections for a second edition, which we trust the book will speedily reach.

The Origin of Floral Structure through Insect and Other Agencies. By the Rev. George Henslow, M.A., Professor of Botany, Queen's College. Pp. 349, with many illustrations. D. Appleton & Co.

THE author of this work disarms criticism in good measure by frankly stating that his observations "with reference to the origin of existing floral structures will not profess to be anything more than theoretical, and at most only a working hypothesis for future investigations." This candid admission is emphasized by the statement which immediately precedes it on page 3: "To attempt any theoretical exposition of the evolutionary history of flowers considerable caution is required; for the causes of variation are generally so obscure, the chances of seeing them in activity so small, and experimental verification so well-nigh impossible, that speculations on this subject cannot altogether escape the bounds of hypothesis so as to become demonstrable facts." In our view, the admission might have been carried further still by saying that speculations of this character can hardly, at this stage of knowledge in regard to the genesis of flowers, pass beyond the bounds of hypothesis into the domain of reasonable theory.

Prof. Henslow seeks for a cause of that variation which appears in the succession of organisms from generation to generation, and which lies at the foundation of the Darwinian theory. Admitting that organisms vary, and that of the variant forms those alone survive which are best fitted for their surroundings, we still need light on the origin or cause of the variation itself. It is well known that, long anterior to the time of Darwin, attempts were made to account for the genesis of diverse forms on the ground of the surroundings. And since the time of the publication of Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' there have been many endeavors to point out the relations of the surroundings to variation; for instance, in this country, much of a highly suggestive character has been brought forward by Cope, Hyatt, and Ryder, while much has been published abroad. The explanations dwell chiefly on the supposed response of organisms to their surroundings, resulting in the production of changes in form or structure which may be transmitted to offspring. These hypotheses of "effort" or "stress" and the like have shown clearly that evolutionists are in search of an adequate cause of that tendency to vary which we see everywhere. The present volume is the outgrowth of studies by Prof. Henslow in precisely this direction.

There is some vagueness in his use of terms, but in general he succeeds in rendering his subject clear and readable. It is unfortunate that he should at any point have weakened the effect of excellent work by the employment of such careless statements as the following (page 142): "If a particular locality be perpetually irritated, so to say, for generations, all analogy shows that the effect may become permanent and hereditary; at least, as long as the irritation is persistently renewed year after year." The general reader inclines at once to apply this statement to the particular case of the feet of Chinese women, where the dwarfing becomes "hereditary" provided the bandaging is undertaken early enough and in every generation. And the general reader seriously questions whether that can be Prof. Henslow's view of "permanent" and "hereditary." Aside from occasional faults of this kind, which it is difficult to condone, there is no adverse criticism to be urged either against his statement of facts or the greater part of his reasoning. He has gathered many of the results of recent work in morphology, particularly in the field of histological morphology, and turns the materials to good account in the presentation of his views.

Starting with a general description of an ideal flower, composed of circles made up of regular parts, distinct from each other, and having certain proportions, he traces in the ordinary way the innumerable deviations from the type. The deviations are attributed by him largely to disturbances of nutrition by irritation or by other mechanical causes, notably strains. In the ideal flower all the parts are assumed to be distinct from each other: the whorls, made up of sepals, petals, stamens, and carpels, are wholly separate. Now, as matter of fact, there are very few flowers of which this is true: there are various unions between parts of the same circle (cohesion) and between the parts of different circles (adhesion), and the question is plainly this: In what way did all this come about? The author's answer is here given in his own words:

"Differences of floral structures depend largely upon different distributions of nutrition in the several organs. The irritation set up by insects themselves is one of the most potent causes of a flow of sap to certain definite places, which encourages local growths, thereby inducing unions to take place between the parts of any whorl, forming 'cohesions,' and also between different whorls, or 'adhesions.' Other causes may determine them, for hypertrophy may set in through a purely vegetative stimulus" (p. 86.)

What experimental evidence is there that such irritations as those caused by insects can give rise to abnormal forms? That distortions innumerable can be produced by the sting of insects is too well known to need further reference; but can the mere visit of an insect, clinging to a blossom and withdrawing a little nectar, produce any marked irritative effect? Probably not. Any effect following could be more reasonably assigned to *strain*, from the weight of the insect or by his thrusting the parts of the flower aside. That strains result in change of form is well known, and the study of these effects has been one of the most interesting contributions of Herbert Spencer to botany.

Granting that, through strains of various kinds and degrees, marked modifications of floral structure can take place in an individual, we are brought back to the fundamental question, Can this modification, originating through an outside influence, be transmitted to posterity? Unfortunately, there is no direct experimental evidence of an unquestionable character, although there is some which points in that direction; and therefore the reasoning must be analogical. Prof. Henslow adduces for this process of reasoning a great number of instances which he interprets as bearing on this cardinal question; but while his speculations are ingenious and are very honestly put, there are many unsatisfactory gaps, and probably no one would more willingly admit this than the author himself. It appears to us that he finds his strongest analogies in certain cases of disturbed nutrition among animals, in which various maladies seem to many to be directly transmissible from parent to offspring; but it must be remembered that to many others some of these maladies appear to come upon given individuals because of an inherited susceptibility to external influences. Here, to be sure, is the hair's breadth which divides.

While we are not convinced by the reasoning of the author that the effects of mechanical and other disturbances are transmissible, it seems to us highly probable that to some degree they are; and his interesting work has deepened a conviction long entertained that the question ought to be attacked by botanists in an experimental manner. What has been observed in the animal kingdom is well known to our readers, and it is plain that plants offer a better field for this investigation than do animals. The response to the environment can be better watched in most plants than in most animale, and the question of direct transmissibility be perhaps answered there. The belief that this volume may do something towards stimulating research in this field, inclines us to give it a hearty welcome.

Cinque Ports. By Montagu Burrows. [Historic Towns. Edited by E. A. Freeman and William Hunt.] Longmans. 1888. Pp. viii., 261. 8vo.

THE federation of towns in Great Britain is one of the many subjects relating to English municipal history that have suffered great neglect. Most scholars who are familiar with the Anglo-Saxon period have doubtless heard of the league of the five Danish boroughs; but few, we may venture to assert, even among the best students of history, are aware that there was a league of Irish towns in the thirteenth century, and that Scotland also had a powerful municipal federation, the Convention of Royal Burghs, which is still in existence. Few, likewise, are acquainted with the important rôle played by the Cinque Ports of England in the Middle Ages. True, the strong central government of England after the Norman Conquest would not brook the growth of such potent federations of towns as arose in Germany, Italy, and Scotland; but the Cinque Ports, the only prominent federative union of English boroughs, exercised considerable influence upon the fortunes of the nation, and performed important functions as an adjunct of the State. Just what these functions were, however, it has hitherto been difficult to ascertain, so slow is the progress in bringing to light the many hidden treasures of English town history. We heartily welcome Professor Burrows's book as the first comprehensive treatise on the Cinque Ports, though he gives us only an outline of their history.

The author informs us that the federation of the Cinque Ports—Hastings, Sandwich, Dover, Romney, and Hythe—originated under Edward the Confessor. To these five places the "two Ancient Towns," Rye and Winchelsea, were added in the twelfth century. The name

of "Cinque Port" came soon afterwards to be applied also to the so-called "Members" or "Limbs," various towns dependent upon and affiliated with the seven "Head-Ports." After the Norman Conquest the confederation remained for a time in a "state of suspended animation." "With the advent of the Angevin House, there are signs of fresh vitality; but not till the reign of John does their distinct military service, performed at the will of the Crown, project itself plainly before us as a part of the national history." During his reign the confederation became the chief support of royalty on the seas, being bound to stated services. The author styles it "the right arm of England," "the parent and exemplar of the Royal Navy itself." John and his successors frequently called upon these ports "to guard the seas." Their most important charter, which was granted by Edward I. in 1278, requires "their full service of fifty-seven ships, at their own cost, for fifteen days, when summoned by ourself or our heirs." In 1347 they furnished 105 ships and 2,140 men. Edward III. adopted the plan of placing the whole of his fleets under the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. "It was not till the end of Edward III.'s reign that the disasters of the Ports, from which they never recovered, began; but even in the previous half-century their preëminent place in relation to the naval service was not so marked as it had been under John, Henry III., and Edward I. . . . The decay of the originally fine harbors of the Cinque Ports lay at the bottom of this gradually declining position." Most of the harbors became silted up, owing to what the author calls "The Law of Eastward Drift," which he describes in detail. In the fifteenth century the confederation continued to decline, and was thenceforth of little national importance.

In return for their ship-service the Cinque Ports enjoyed various franchises, the most important of which were exemption from the ordinary assessment of national taxes, and the right to be impleaded in no courts except their own. They also had charge of the "Yarmouth Fair," and thus exercised control over the herring-fishery, a principal industry and food-supply of the English people in the Middle Ages. They had a central judiciary and court of appeal, originally at Shepway, afterwards at Dover. At an assembly called the "Brodhull" or "Brotherhood" (originally held, it is supposed, at Brodhull, later at Romney), they met to appoint bailiffs for the Yarmouth Fair, to make provision for their ship-service, and to assess taxes. The confederation is still in existence, though shorn of most of its ancient functions; the last meeting was held in 1887. "Speaking generally, the Cinque Ports and their members are still independent of the counties in the matter of roads, licenses, and police, and free from county juries and county rates."

We have not much fault to find with the way in which the author has done his work. Every part of his book displays painstaking study. He has not contented himself with giving us a mere compilation based upon other printed works, but has evidently consulted the original records in many scattered local archives. Only the few who have attempted similar investigations in England can appreciate what labor this involves. The author's arguments regarding the foundation of the confederation by Edward the Confessor (pp. 55-59, 62) are not convincing. His main ground for this inference is the vague allusion in the charter of 1278 to previous grants of Edward the Confessor, William I., etc. The more one has to do with records of English towns, the more one feels inclined to treat such references to the remote past with distrust; they should never be made the sole basis of an argument. Similar allusions to previous grants of Edward the Confessor, William I., and William II. are to be found in many town charters; and yet neither in local archives nor in the Confirmation Rolls of the Public Record Office do we ever succeed in unearthing any of these eleventh-century grants, with the single exception of the Conqueror's charter to London. We know, too, that municipal charters often contain accounts of the "great antiquity" of a place that are clearly as untenable as Fitz-Stephen's declaration that London was built before Rome—*Urbe Roma [Londonia] satis antiquior est.* The organization of the Cinque Ports into a confederation for national defence was a plan more apt to emanate from the constructive mind of William I. or Henry II. than from the inert and prayerful Confessor.

It is wrong to call the charter of 1278 an "Inspeximus" (p. 55); this technical term has a definite meaning, and ought not to be applied to a grant that contains merely allusions to previous grants. The *firma burgi* was an important municipal franchise, but the author exaggerates its importance when he calls it "the coveted sign of self-government," and asserts that to secure it was the main reason "why towns desired to possess a mayor" (pp. 112, 202). The mayoralty did not necessarily presuppose the existence of the *firma burgi*, or vice versa, though the two often went together. On page 118 we are told that after 1278 the additional franchises granted by later charters were "trifling," but on page 125 mention is made of two later charters "considerably extending their franchises." The author speaks of the grant to the Merchant Adventurers in 1617 as though it were something entirely new, which "broke up the trade of the Ports with the Low Countries" (p. 184); and yet the Adventurers had become invested with all their principal privileges by a patent of Henry VII. in 1505. But these few mistakes only slightly mar the general excellence of the book. Mr. Burrows hopes that his "sketch will be the means of eliciting a desire for a complete work" on the Cinque Ports. We join him in this hope, and trust that he will undertake it.

The Satires and Epistles of Horace, edited, with notes, by J. B. Greenough. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1888.

THE long-expected beginning of the "College Series of Latin Authors" is made in this volume of Prof. Greenough's. The scheme of the series, which (in this respect differing from the companion Series of Greek Authors) is to be the independent work of the several editors, presumably accounts for the very different rates at which the two series have progressed; for the *vis inertiae* of authorship is naturally greater where the starting-point is not provided in the form of a foreign edition.

A glance at the Harvard announcement of courses will show that the study of Horace is now placed in the Sophomore year (an example much to be commended), and that the teaching of the Satires and Epistles is in the hands of Prof. Greenough. This edition is, therefore, the work of an editor who, constantly dealing with the subject treated, knows well the difficulties of the—not too immature—student mind. Yet the difficulties of the student mind are determined largely by the ways of the mind of the instructor. One man loves grammar, another textual criticism, another history; while a happy few, not loving these less, love literature still more. No one who remembers the preface to the recent edition of Cicero by the same editor will be surprised to find in the preface of the present book the tenet—which includes a word for the intellectual emancipation of the youthful learner—that "college students sufficiently advanced to undertake Horace ought no longer to 'get and recite lessons,' but to study the literature, and understand and enjoy it."

The details of the book are consistent with this conviction. The young reader will find it unsatisfactory or excellent, according to the spirit which he brings to it. If his best aim is to "get his lesson" with a large economy of thought on his own part, we can imagine him complaining that he finds too little direct translation; and, if his teacher happens to lean toward grammar at second-hand, too infrequent references to the text-books on that subject. (There are but about twenty in all—a remarkable abstinence on the part of an editor who is himself a distinguished grammarian.) But if he wishes to read his author, and brings to his work some natural aptitude of taste and comprehension, he will owe the editor his gratitude for giving him for the most part, instead of translations, illuminating paraphrases of the contents of passages, and happy expositions of the links of thought, and, instead of references to grammars, clear and brief statements of the force of the constructions noticed. It follows from what has been said that the other party in the case, the teacher, will, with no relaxing of insistence upon sound scholarship, find himself aided in leading his students out of that way of looking at classical authors which furnishes the most dangerous weapons to the opponents of classical studies, and into the way of looking at them first as men of letters and delightful commentators upon human life.

These are the essentials. Having granted them, we must add that, if the book errs, it is on the side of repression. We should have been glad to know the editor's opinion on a few matters on which he has not touched, *e. g.*, the force of *catulus* in Ep. I, 2, 67, which surely cannot be the inert stop-gap which a number of editors have practically taken it to be. In the rather full statement of possibilities in regard to the "troublesome passage of which nobody can find the key," Sat. I, 1, 108, the opinions of Palmer and of Kiessling might well have been added, both of whom accept *qui nemo ut*, the reading of V, instead of *nemon' ut*, but interpret differently, the latter reaching a sense which, if not without difficulties, yet seems less forced than any other. That the reason of the omission is not a low opinion of V is shown by the note on *lusumque trigonem*, Sat. I, 6, 126. If, in Sat. II, 3, 262, *vocat* is read, against the weight of manuscript evidence, on the strength (insufficient, it would seem to us) of the parallel *arcessor* in the Terentian original, the student is in need of help with regard to the construction. Technical terms are generally explained, but not *spectatum*, in Ep. I, 1, 2. The references to the Odes are less full than the cross references in the Satires and Epistles. The notes are also occasionally too condensed in expression. Misprints are few, even for a first edition. We have noted especially *adunctum* for *ad unctum*, Ep. I, 17, 12, and the omission of *Hor.* in Sat. II, 3,326, which gives the verse to the wrong speaker. The spelling is so careful throughout that one is surprised to find that the editor, like Prof. Wilkins, appears to prefer *quodsi* to *quod si*, in spite of the *quod tibi si* of Catullus, the *quod mihi si* of Propertius, and the evidence of *quod utinam* and the like.

The notes, as in the Series of Greek Authors, are at the foot of the page. We are still so ac-

customed to the other arrangement in American text-books that many may fear that the school-boy will have too easy a time of it; but, for ourselves, we hope that the system of interposing manual and visual difficulties in the student's way will be brought to an end through the example of these two series. The Germans, whom we do not accuse of being our inferiors in the art of teaching, are of one mind in this matter, and, where they have occasion to speak of our way, characterize it as unpractical, as was done recently by a reviewer of an American text-book.

A comparison of this edition with the corresponding editions of Palmer and Wilkins and of Kiessling shows interesting differences of purpose. The German edition is larger by more than a half, while the notes alone in the English edition occupy three times as much space as the sum total of notes and text in the American edition. The American and the German editions dispense almost wholly with textual criticism, which in the English edition is a prominent feature. In both these points we subscribe to the decision of the American editor. Textual criticism, for example, is an indispensable part of a complete collegiate training in the classics. But let everything have its place. The boy who takes his Horace well mixed with textual criticism in his Freshman, or even in his Sophomore year, is thereby the more disposed to want nothing further of classical literature in subsequent years. The innermost defences of classical study, which today are thought to be threatened, are the charm and power of the literature; and the way to keep the young student faithful to his classics until the time arrives when, in the course of nature, he will be glad to know about the transmission of texts and the evidence of manuscripts upon this or that passage of the author he is reading, is first to make him feel that charm and power. And to the same end there should be a judicious repression in the volume and the scope of the notes. Palmer's edition of the Satires, then, a work of remarkable learning and point, should rather be called a sketch for a great edition for the purposes of advanced study than a well-adapted volume in a "classical series for schools and colleges," to which it purports to belong. Prof. Greenough, who has done much for the scientific side of classical study in America, but much also for the humanistic side, has set himself the true aim in his edition, and, though possibly with an excess of self-restraint in a few places, has produced an admirably helpful book.

The Architecture of Provence and the Riviera. By David Macgibbon, [joint] author of 'The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland.' Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1888. Pp. xx., 467, many illustrations.

THIS is an account of the ancient buildings to be found along a line of travel easy to describe and not hard to follow—from Lyons down the Rhone, through Vienne, Valence, Orange, Avignon, and Tarascon, to Arles, then westward to Nîmes, St. Gilles, Aigues-Mortes, and along the coast to Carcassonne, and as far as Perpignan; then back to Marseilles, and along the coast eastward as far as Genoa. In a curious fashion, which may be noticed in other writers than this one, all Languedoc and Roussillon with a bit of Dauphiné is treated of as if belonging to the geographical "Provence." It is a fascinating county, Provence, for those who love the south, with its white glare and its blue glow and the pale grayish-green of its foliage: and more than all fascinating to those who love the large carelessness of its picturesque towns and untended monuments. But it only reaches as far north as Orange, at the largest interpretation, and from the Rhone eastward to Nice: most of the buildings with which this book deals are beyond its narrow borders, and unless our author defines "Riviera" as the whole coast from the Pyrenees eastward, his title seems insufficient.

He has been wise, though, to see the characteristic independence, architecturally speaking, of this region, and its capability of being treated apart from other districts of France and of Europe. There are, first, the Roman buildings, and second, the mediæval buildings, each class peculiar and worthy of treatment by itself. There are at Nimes the finest Roman temple extant, and at Vienne perhaps the second finest; at Nîmes and Arles two large amphitheatres, showing between them about all a Roman amphitheatre can show; at the river Gard, just north of Nîmes, a nearly unique Roman aqueduct-bridge, and at St. Chamas a quite unique road-bridge with commemorative arched portals; at Orange a Roman theatre, with one at least of its peculiar features preserved in an elsewhere unequalled fashion, and at the same town and at St. Remi two fine "triumphal arches," as we have to call them for want of a really descriptive appellation—the one at St. Remi standing beside a Roman monument in remarkable preservation. These are the showiest buildings of classic times, but these are by no means all, or even the only very interesting ones, in this region of wonders. It is as important to study this region after studying Rome as it is to study Rome after this region. The western spirit of the great Empire has left to our times traces less grandiose but quite as precious in the southern Gaulish provinces as in the capital itself.

All this Mr. Macgibbon describes, or at least enumerates, in rather a perfunctory way, as if he took little interest in the buildings. He cites Prosper Mérimée and M. Viollet-le-Duc for opinions as well as facts, like the compiler of a guide-book rather than an architect recording his personal observations. He seems to think it a general characteristic of large Roman buildings to be built with "enormous blocks of carefully cut stone, set without cement," and, indeed, calls that "the Roman manner," as if forgetful that there is very little of such cut-stone dry-walling in Rome itself, and that the quarries of Languedoc, and not Roman traditions especially, are the causes of the lithic construction of these great buildings. He does not distinguish between the very unusual and therefore precious monuments of antiquity and those more familiar and matter-of-course; and his nomenclature is very odd sometimes, when it is mixed with Latin, or what is meant for Latin.

Of mediæval architecture the most important, in Provence and Languedoc, is Romanesque, or round arched work of the centuries preceding the thirteenth; and next to this the military architecture of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The Romanesque is not, indeed, comparable to that of the north, nor to that of Pisa and Verona, for it seems rather the result of detached efforts than a developed and well-understood architectural style; moreover, much the greater part of it is of small scale, not decorative, not very elaborate; and the three examples of great richness of sculptured ornament—the front of St. Trophime at Arles, the cloister of the same church, and the front of St. Gilles—are feeble and purposeless in design when compared to the finest of north French or north Italian work. But it is well worthy of study, and it is especially rich in oddities, in curious devices for solving the problems of plan and construction which all buildings offer to the architect.

The mediæval military architecture of this region is especially valuable. It is too generally the case throughout Europe that of its Middle Age fortresses great and lofty walls remain, mere meaningless masses, bereft of their characteristic features. The guide-book bids you expect to see "walls of the fourteenth century, nearly intact," or the like; and you find what might be the walls of a garden, for all the defensive character they have. The whole interest and character of a castle or a town wall, built before gunpowder came in, is in the crown of battlements, with or without machicolations, which of old afforded the means of defence, and which for us afford picturesqueness of effect. And the walls of Avignon; of St. André at Villeneuve-lez-Avignon; of the lofty tower close by, which, dominating the famous bridge, still looks down on the spot where

> "Sur le Pont d'Avignon
> Tout le monde y danse,
> Tout le monde y danse en rond";

of Aigues-Mortes, and, most famous of all, Carcassonne, are almost perfect. Restoration, indeed, has passed along the Avignon ramparts, and the whole *cité* of Carcassonne has been renovated by Viollet-le-Duc and his successors; but so much existed intact before restoration began that this last was generally obvious and easy. Moreover, there is nothing impossible in such restoration, nothing ineffable to try to say, nothing unseizable to try to grasp—only plain, squared stone-work and simple mouldings. There are no warlike buildings more worthy of study than these, and none more impressive to the non-student. Moreover, there is one great fortress which, although shorn of its battlements, is still one of the buildings of all Europe the most impressive—the vast Palace of the Popes at Avignon. There is no such combination of the princely dwelling and the stronghold as this. Yet is King René's castle at Tarascon a structure not to be disregarded, and that at St. Honorat is even more of a treasure. More nearly unique than these are the strange fortified churches and monasteries—Les Saintes Maries, Montmajour, Agde, and Maguelonne; and they are all in fair condition for study and comparison.

This mass of mediæval art is treated by our author with a little more spirit than is the classical architecture, but still the value of the chapters devoted to it is rather in full enumeration and geographical indications than in analysis. It is strange that one of the two authors of 'The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland' should write so cursorily and so little to the point of these interesting buildings.

Three hundred illustrations, apparently drawn by the author, add to the value of the book as a guide to the traveller and to the student. The complete inadequacy of the index detracts from this again, and prevents the book from being even as good a guide as it might be. Neither text nor pictures are very inspiring nor very attractive; both text and pictures may often serve your turn when you visit, and also when you cannot visit, the beautiful south of France.

A Blockaded Family: Life in Southern Alabama during the Civil War. By Parthenia Antoinette Hague. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS little book has a worthy aim, and succeeds to a considerable degree in realizing it. The

paralysis of trade, the forced diversion of agriculture into unaccustomed lines, the starting up of rude domestic industries, as if under the magic wand of protection, the system of makeshifts in food and apparel—all these incidents of the war, far away from all actual fighting, it is the author's attempt to set forth or illustrate. Not unnaturally, considerable space is given to the devices to which the feminine instinct for ornament had to resort, in the absence of the usual shopping; but much is also told of the ways in which articles of stern necessity in dress were provided, and of the improvisations which a ready wit made in the sphere, not only of dyes and weaving, but even of medicines. For the most part, the writer's style is pleasant enough, though a thought heavy-footed; but her political and moral reflections are in bad taste, and there is something almost absurd in her seeming effort to make out a case of great hardships for a family which did not see a Federal soldier or hear a gun all through the war, and which had abundance of supplies and the faithful service of slaves throughout.

Yone Santo, a Child of Japan. By E. H. House. Chicago: Belford, Clark & Co.

'YONE SANTO' is a study of contemporaneous Japanese life by an author thoroughly acquainted with his subject by a long residence in the Mikado's empire. With a firmer touch and truer coloring than in any work of fiction treating of the far East, he delineates the lovely character and the misfortunes of a young girl of gentle birth, who has been bred to the lofty ideas of honor peculiar to the *Samurai* or gentry of Japan. These misfortunes, in their order, are as follows: Her home life broken up by political revolution; poverty, cruel treatment by the elders of her own sex at home, a forced marriage to a low-born and stolidly ignorant husband; but first, last, always, and worst, the tribulations suffered at the hands and malevolent tongues of two or three American missionary ladies living in the foreign quarter in Tokio, called Tsukiji. A considerable portion of the book is taken up with description, dialogue, and remarks about these destroyers of the young lady's peace. Dr. Charwell, who seems filled with equal proportions of hatred to the traders, the British, the clerical and the female missionaries, an adroit questioner, but easy in conscience concerning fibs, is Yone's constant friend, not to say worshipper. Miss Gibson, his own and Yone's friend, is a Boston lady, who has fathomed the true character of the atrocious missionary women, and who escapes from their thrall to assist Dr. Charwell in his philanthropic plans. Yone is a marvellous character, absolutely unselfish, guileless, noble, and of a sort more rare on earth than in the airy realms of romance. Escaping the temptations of a European lover, she sinks under the burdens of sore mental trials and the stress of toil in house and hospital during the cholera visitation. The epidemic results from the shameless violation of quarantine by an infected German vessel convoyed into Yokohama by a war-ship in defiance of Japanese law. After Yone's death, Dr. Charwell finds his chief happiness in visiting her tomb.

This is the story that was published as a serial in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and which, though a novel in form, is rather a series of sermons, and cannot well be spared from the list of tracts for the times. The author, having pleaded his cause in magazine and review articles, correspondents' letters, pamphlets, and otherwise, now employs the vehicle of fiction to preach the wickedness of foreigners in oppressing Japan by treaty. As an eloquent prophet, he sets forth, in this burden of Japan, the wrong which even good men and women, trained in alien systems of morals and education, may inflict even when most intent on doing good. Above all, Mr. House preaches to men on chastity, honor, and the duty of treating a Japanese woman as a woman, a sister, and, under certain circumstances, a wife. Herein he is not excelled in cogency and clearness even by the "sainted" Dr. David Abeel in his address "To the Bachelors of India, by a Bachelor"—now a classic, but not read as much by the men intended to be reached as it should be. The defect of the book is its manifest unfairness to the American men and women who have made Japan their field of work, with motives at least as pure as those of Dr. Charwell or his thinly disguised original. The literary critic demands that a professed painter in words use other pigments besides tar and whitewash. To transfigure into almost unearthly loveliness of character a native girl, and to heap all sorts of ridicule on the women of one's own country, is not fine art, though it may be fiction. "Experienced wolves disguised as ancient lambs," "old maids," thinkers and plotters of nearly all things diabolical, are the females who, alas! are also missionaries; while among all the scholars, philanthropists, and gentlemen who happen, though Americans, to have received, among other lines of culture, a theological training, not one is found or known whom Dr. Charwell can trust or refrain from abusing. All this seems to us inartistic—ranting, but not elocution.

In other respects, the novel has notable merits. Finely drawn are the contrasting pictures of British rudeness and Japanese high-bred grace. The eloquent outbursts of passionate eloquence in defence of Japanese womanhood are noble passages, both as to style and truth. The satire upon Americans who make all native ladies of gentle birth "princesses" is fine. The incidents in the lives of the male characters in the story are like windows, and open to our admiring gaze a world of honor and chivalry almost unknown in our commercial days. These are told with a pathos that must draw tears to the eyes of those who know their intrinsic truthfulness. In short, we have in 'Yone Santo' a work of high literary art, disfigured by its own author, who has been unable to control his personal prejudices and keep out his dogmatic opinions. The novel is strong in what the author knows and weak in what he believes. Since publication in the Boston magazine, his doctrinal views are set forth in the Chicago reprint in a "postscript" of thirteen pages. Like that interesting addendum to a lady's letter, it contains the root of the whole matter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer, W. Masks or Faces? A Study in the Psychology of Acting. Longmans, Green & Co.
Balzani, U. The Popes and the Hohenstauffen. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Comba, Dr. E. History of the Waldenses of Italy, from their Origin to the Reformation. F. W. Christern.
Conkl n, B. Y. A Complete Graded Course in English Grammar and Composition. D. Appleton & Co.
Cox, G. J. Run Down: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Cox, Rev. S. The House and its Builder, with Other Discourses. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Edwardes, C. Rides and Studies in the Canary Isles. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 10s. 6d.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports of Cases Decided in Courts of Last Resort of the Several States. Vol. III. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Goodwin, Prof. W. W. Plutarch's Miscellanies and Essays. 5 vols. 6th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $10.
Greenough—Kittredge. Allen and Greenough's Latin Grammar for Schools and Colleges. Revised ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Hunt, W. The English Church in the Middle Ages. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
James, T. Æsop's Fables. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Julliot, F. de. Mademoiselle Solange (Terre d France). William R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 179. October—December, 1888. Boston: E. Littell & Co.
Lowell, James Russell. The English Poets; Lessing; Rousseau: Essays. London: Walter Scott.
Mantegezza, P. Testa: A Book for Boys. Translated from the Italian. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Marx, K. Capital: A Critical Analysis of Capitalist Production. Translated by Samuel Moore and Edward Aveling, and edited by Frederick Engels. D. Appleton & Co.
Merchan, R. M. Estudios Criticos. Bogota.
Merchan, R. M. Evangelina: Cuento de Acadia por H. W. Longfellow. 3d ed. Bogota.
Milton, J. Paradise Regained; Minor Poems. London: Walter Scott.
Mulholland, Rosa. A Fair Emigrant: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co.
Mullinger, J. B. A History of the University of Cambridge. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Paulsen, Prof. F. System der Ethik. 2 vols. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Poems of Wild Life. Selected by C. G. D. Roberts. London: Walter Scott.
Preuss, H. Gemeinde, Staat, Reich als Gebietskörperschaften. Berlin: Julius Springer; New York: Westermann.
Rolleston, T. W. The Teaching of Epictetus. London: Walter Scott.
Runkle, Prof. J. D. Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Saunders, F. Stray Leaves of Literature. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Sharp, W. Life of Heinrich Heine. London: Walter Scott & Co.
Smissen—Fraser. The High School German Grammar. D. Appleton & Co.
Stedman—Hutchinson. A Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. Vols. V. and VI. Charles L. Webster & Co. $3 per volume.
Stedman—Lee. A Chinese and English Phrase Book in the Canton Dialect. William R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Taylor, H. W. Wickly's Woods. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Taylor, J. The Thumb Bible. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Ten Brink, B. Geschichte der Englischen Litteratur. Zweiter Band, bis zur Thronbesteigung Elisabeths Erste Hälfte. Berlin; Robert Oppenheim: New York: Westermann.
Vatke, W. Religionsphilosophie, oder Allgemeine Philosophische Theologie. Bonn: Emil Strauss; New York: Westermann.
Walker, J. B. A History of the New Hampshire Convention for the Investigation, Discussion, and Decision of the Federal Constitution, &c. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Weaver, Emily. Dialogues and Scenes from the Writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
White, Prof. H. S. Lessing: Ausgewählte Prosa und Briefe. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Wrigley, E. A Practical Treatise on Building Associations. Philadelphia: James K. Simon.
Yule-Tide Stories and Pictures. Christmas, 1888. Harper & Bros.
Zola, E. Le Rêve. Paris: G. Charpentier.
Zola, E. Le Rêve: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 17, 1889.

The Week.

THE deadlock between Mr. Weaver of Iowa and the people of the United States did not reach a conclusion until Saturday, when it was brought to an end by a bargain or "compromise." Mr. Weaver got—so he tells the newspapers—all he wanted, but the people of the United States did not get back the twelfth part of the second session of the Fiftieth Congress, which had been wasted and thrown away. All that Mr. Weaver conceded was that if he could get what he wanted he would get out of the way, and leave to the people of the United States what might remain of the session. It is idle, however, to quarrel with Mr. Weaver, unprincipled and audacious though it be for a legislator to sacrifice the general welfare for his particular measure; for so long as the people of the United States tolerate a system which is a hot-bed for "deadlocks" and "one-man power," they must expect such results. This particular deadlock was but another product of "the short session." If there were no impending cataclysm absolutely certain to bring the present House of Representatives to an end on the fourth day of March—if the House, like the Senate, could continue *organized and in session* until its legislative business should be finished—Mr. Weaver never would have thought of his deadlock. Its efficacy lay in the fact that he was able to destroy one of the twelve working weeks of the short session of Congress. What is wanted is, not an indignation meeting over Mr. Weaver, or a revision of the often-revised rules of the House, but a legislative system which will not be irremediably knocked to pieces on every alternate fourth of March. The reformation of the House of Representatives has been a frequent subject of consideration in these columns, and, if our readers will turn back to the editorial in No. 1171, they will see that the present illustration is but a new phase of the inherent evil.

The clause in the Senate Tariff Bill which imposed a duty on fish if frozen or packed in ice, the same being now free, was a sectional measure of a very contemptible sort. It proposed to favor the people within easy distance of the Canadian border, at the expense of all the rest of the country. Senator Plumb was right in objecting to this discrimination, but his opposition resulted only in getting all fresh fish, frozen and unfrozen, put on the dutiable list at one-half cent per pound. The clause in question throws much light on the meaning which the Republican party gives to the phrase "revision of the tariff." Years ago, when the party was in easy possession of all branches of the Government, and there was no Treasury surplus menacing the business interests of the country, it put all fresh fish on the free list. At that time frozen fish and fish packed in ice was a common article of commerce in the chief markets of the country, but no distinction was made in the law between frozen and unfrozen. Now, with a Treasury surplus on hand, and with a mouthful of promises to revise the tariff, we find the party going back to ways and practices once discarded in order to add a new tax on the many for the benefit of the few.

The sugar-bounty amendment to the Senate Tariff bill has some noteworthy features, apart from its general character as the introduction of a new Governmental policy of very grave import. It proposes that the bounty of one cent per pound shall be paid for the production of sugar from cane, beet, or sorghum, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. Nothing could be easier on paper than this mode of paying bounties. Nothing can be more difficult in practice than the payment of bounties on any one variety of sugar without the risk of frauds on the Government. Twenty-five pages of the Revised Statutes are filled with Draconian legislation to prevent frauds on the revenue by distillers and rectifiers. This mass of legislation is none too minute and none too severe to accomplish its end. It has been worked out by the experience of a quarter of a century. In spite of all this carefulness on the part of Congress, enormous frauds have been perpetrated at times, and great scandals have been exposed in the courts of justice. Now it is deemed sufficient by the Senate Finance Committee, in dealing with a still more complicated matter, to refer the whole subject to the wisdom of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. Sugar from cane, sugar from beets, sugar from sorghum are all produced by different means; they are also of different degrees of excellence. The payment of bounties on each requires different machinery. What is to prevent the introduction of foreign sugar into the manger from which the bounty is fed? What is to prevent the payment of bounty for glucose? Some kind of machinery, of course. But, what machinery? Is Congress not to know beforehand? Perhaps it was believed by the Committee that the bill would not pass, and therefore it would be best not to waste time in providing safeguards against fraud.

It was a deft use of words to provide that the bounty shall be paid out of the duties on imported sugar. This carries the suggestion that the money in the public Treasury is of different kinds, viz., one kind derived from taxes on the people, and another kind derived from duties on sugar. During the war and the suspension of specie payments, it was customary and necessary for Congress to make distinctions between money received from customs and money received from the internal revenue, because the one was payable in gold and the other in greenbacks. No distinction was ever before made between two kinds of gold revenue. Imagine the Secretary of the Treasury keeping a separate strong-box under this bill to hold the receipts from sugar duties, so that he might not make any mistake by paying the sugar bounties out of any other description of funds. Another provision of very questionable character is that the bounty shall be paid till April 1, 1900. This is an attempt to tie the hands of future Congresses for a period of eleven years, and would of course be unavailing if any Congress in that period should repeal the bounty law or refuse to make an appropriation to pay the bounty. Altogether the sugar amendment is a Pandora's box of coming ills, and we fancy that its supporters are more troubled by it than its opponents.

The National Wool-Growers' Association has "materialized" again, and has been holding a séance in Washington, for the declared purpose of getting higher duties on wool than are provided for in the Senate bill, and of conferring with the wool manufacturers "if deemed advisable." The end which they seek is set forth in one of their resolutions, viz.: "that duties on wool and on woollen and worsted goods shall be adjusted and maintained so as to secure to them the American market." This modest demand, that sixty millions of people shall have no clothing except what the Association can supply, and at such prices as they choose to ask, is not likely to be granted in a hurry, for the reason, if no other, that the demands of the wool-growers, if conceded, would put it quite out of the power of the manufacturers to do their part in furnishing the supply. The requirement of Pharaoh that the Children of Israel should furnish bricks without straw, was not more unreasonable than the demand of the alleged Wool Growers' Association that the manufacturers shall supply the American market with all the woollen goods needed under the severest restrictions as to raw material. We are now importing $45,000,000 worth of woollen goods yearly because the American manufacturers cannot get their wool on as good terms as the foreigner gets his; yet we are admonished that in order to produce all the goods we need, we ought to make it still more difficult to get wool.

The absurdity of this demand of the alleged Wool-Growers' Association is matched by its impudence. For years they have been strutting before Congress as a great political power, pretending that they could make and unmake parties, and have actually inspired terror among both Democrats and Republicans; but when a crucial test came last November, their political importance collapsed in the most signal manner. In the three great wool-growing States, Ohio, Texas, and California, they lost votes heavily on the very issue that they have invited.

Free wool was the first and foremost question of the Presidential contest. It was not a question of a small reduction, like that in the tariff of 1883, but of total abolition; and these bullies of the political field, who have been threatening for a whole generation that if their slice of tariff plunder was lessened, nobody else should have any, were beaten ignominiously on their own ground and in their own territory. The alleged Association is, for all political purposes, a myth, a jack-o'-lantern, a scarecrow. It consists of a handful of persons who sign themselves "Presidents" and "Secretaries," and who go about here and there, pretending to represent other people who care nothing about them or what they do, so long as they pay their own board and room-rent, or get the manufacturers to pay it for them.

If the present weather continues much longer, there will be a serious deficiency in the ice crop, and the result will be that the country next summer will be deluged with foreign ice. It would seem, therefore, as if the native icemen were entitled to protection for the little ice they will have on hand, so as to maintain those high prices which are the greatest blessing a community can have. The cheapness of ice for many years past has been a deplorable feature in our industry, but it has been impossible for Congress to prevent it by legislative restrictions on production. It would have been easy enough, of course, to forbid unlicensed frost, but it would have come just the same in the remoter regions. The result has been that for several years there has been little or no profit in the ice business. The prices have been extremely low, and the dealers have only been protected from foreign competition by freight and insurance. Under these circumstances, the condition of the icemen has been pitiable, and they have had the extreme mortification of peddling ice at prices which put it within everybody's reach. This winter, unless there should be a speedy change in the weather, they will enjoy the benefits of a great scarcity, which surely nobody will begrudge them. Even the sick and the poor will, for the poor ice-dealers' sake, rejoice at the thought that ice at last is going to be beyond their means. But if the Canadians and Nova Scotians are allowed to bring ice here free of duty, as at present, of course these pleasing dreams will not be realized. Low prices, with all their attendant horrors, will prevail. Many icemen's wages will be cut down, and some drivers of ice-carts will have to drive soda-water and root-beer carts instead. We therefore respectfully suggest that a duty of one cent per pound be placed on all foreign ice imported in American bottoms, and two cents a pound on all imported in foreign bottoms, the latter to be required in addition to prove the presence of a lighted stove in the hold during the entire voyage.

Judge Barrett's decision in the case of the People vs. the North River Sugar Refining Company is the first important deliverance of the courts against Trusts in any part of the country. The gist of the decision is, that when a corporation abdicates its charter powers, or turns them over to be exercised by third parties, it commits suicide. This is in pursuance of the general principle of the law of corporations that the act of incorporation is to be construed strictly, and that powers not granted expressly, or by necessary implication, cannot be exercised. The decision does not invalidate Trusts in general, but it breaks up their continuity. The property remains unaffected by the decision. The parties composing the Trust can buy it in and keep it together, and carry on business to all intents and purposes as before; but their relations *inter se* are very seriously disturbed. Their position becomes somewhat analogous to that of the railroads under the anti-pooling clause of the Inter-State Commerce Act. They are deprived of a means, which they deemed essential to their purposes, for holding themselves together. They are no longer endowed with perpetuity, and therefore the individual members are put upon their vigilance to protect and secure their private interests. Having compared the opinion of the Court with the very able argument on the other side by Prof. Theodore W. Dwight, in the *Political Science Quarterly* for December, we are constrained to say that Judge Barrett's reasoning seems to us to be the better of the two. We may add that it is, in our judgment, more conformable to public interests and more in harmony with public opinion. The latter is an element which lawyers most commonly cast out of the reckoning, but it is of all elements the controlling one in the long run, as it ought to be.

Mr. Fairchild's reason for removing Mr. McMullen from the Appraisership is "his general belief that, either through age or some other cause, he [McMullen] could not properly judge of the qualifications of his subordinates, or supervise their work." A belief of this sort by an appointing officer can hardly be criticised or found fault with by any outsider; but any bystander can safely say that a man of seventy-two years, who has thirty-six years of faithful service behind him, deserves, even if he has become incompetent, to have reasonable notice given him, and to have his retirement from the service soothed by a little kindly explanation. If a servant of as long standing as Mr. McMullen were got rid of in this peremptory way by a private employer, the latter would be visited with the severest kind of social reprobation. Why the laws of social morality are not considered applicable to the relations of the Government to its subordinate officers is one of the greatest mysteries of politics, and it is deepened when we see as kindly and upright a man as Mr. Fairchild "decapitating" with so much ruthlessness of manner. One's wonder is increased by the fact, too, that if great reforms are needed in the Appraiser's office, Mr. Fairchild should have left himself only six weeks for their accomplishment, and that he should seriously expect that anybody whom he puts in Mr. McMullen's place will be retained by the incoming Administration. Surely, the cause of reform would suffer no grave discredit, and the public Treasury no perceptible loss, if Mr. McMullen were allowed to stay in office till March 4, and if Gen. Harrison were allowed to pass on his defects. We make this remark with the less hesitation because we see no sign of any desire to get rid either of Surveyor Beattie or Deputy Collector Davis, both of whom, in the general belief of this community, have been prevented "by age or some other cause"—most probably the latter—for four long years from serving the Government faithfully or reflecting any credit on the Administration. It is rather late to dismiss them, we admit; but to save the public even six weeks of them would be a patriot's work. Their prompt decapitation by Gen. Harrison will be some compensation to those who are sorry, as we are, that such an honorable career as Mr. McMullen's should end in such a way. Thirty-six years of honest service for poor pay and without promotion has a great deal of real glory in it.

Mr. Schurz's speech before the Commonwealth Club on Saturday evening is the most important political discussion since the Presidential election. Of course, there will be differences of opinion as to the causes of Mr. Cleveland's defeat. Mr. Schurz thinks that the Democrats gained more than they lost by the tariff issue, and that if the educational campaign had begun two years earlier the result would have been very different. But, however people may disagree as to the *vera causa* of the election of Gen. Harrison, scarcely anybody will differ from Mr. Schurz in the conviction so pointedly expressed by him, that the first duty of all good citizens is to put a stop to bribery in elections, and to take up this work by a candid admission that the evil is not confined to one party alone, but has penetrated both to a dangerous and alarming extent.

Mr. John Wanamaker denies distinctly to a reporter that he has destroyed any accounts of the Business Men's Advisory Committee of which he was Chairman, and which raised money for the National and Quay's Committee. He says he has all the books and accounts of his Committee, and has done nothing in connection with it which he is ashamed of or regrets. His partner, Mr. Ogden, added that while he could not trace the money paid over to Quay, the Advisory Committee "knew in a general way for what purposes the money was expended," and Mr. Wanamaker would not countenance a misappropriation. The Quay Committee on their part say they have only burned the correspondence relating to appointment to office, but have preserved the "valuable" documents. We made the statement that they had burned everything, on the faith of a description in the daily papers of what took place at the headquarters after the election. What Mr.

Quay considers "valuable" papers, of course we do not know. That Mr. Wanamaker had kept the accounts of his receipts we never doubted, because they are of no particular importance. It is the expenditures in a campaign which interest the public, and which ought to be made public, and for which we now ask, but which we have no expectation of seeing.

Mr. Saxton has made some changes in the Ballot-Reform bill which was introduced in both Houses at Albany last week, but they are mainly in the provisions in regard to the publication of the official ballots in the newspapers prior to election, and in regard to the preparation of those ballots by the officials in charge of printing them, and are in all cases in the interest of wider publicity and more complete freedom of the exercise of individual choice on the part of the voter. In every way they strengthen the bill. The provision in regard to the marking of the ballots stands unchanged—namely, that "before delivering any ballot to an elector the said two inspectors shall write their names or initials upon the back of the ballot, immediately under the printed endorsement." This method has been adopted by the advocates of the bill after a most careful and exhaustive consideration of all the methods proposed. It is less expensive than an official stamp, which would have to be changed at every election in order to prevent forgery. The fear that in signing his initials an inspector might put on a distinguishing mark which would enable him to identify a ballot in the counting, and thus defeat secrecy of the ballot, has no perceptible foundation. Initials have been used in Australia and Canada for years, and nothing of this kind has ever happened or has even been tried.

It is evident from the tone of Gov. Hovey's message to the Indiana Legislature that the Republicans of that State, like the Blaine Republicans of Maine, are not at all eager for ballot-reform legislation. Gov. Hovey is very careful not to say a word in favor of that kind of electoral reform, but confines himself mainly to recommending the old and futile remedies for abolishing bribery in elections by fixing fines and penalties. His attitude towards the subject is not of much consequence, however, as the Democrats have a majority in both houses of the Legislature, and in Indiana a majority vote is sufficient to override a veto. In Maine the opposition of the Blaine faction grows more open daily. The redoubtable "Joe" Manley himself is at the head of it, and a plan has been arranged, it is said, to crush the movement before it gets much further. The bill providing for the reform will be allowed to get into Committee, but will probably never get before the Legislature in any other shape than as a minority report. This combination of opponents to ballot reform—Gov. Hill, Tammany Hall, and the *Sun* in New York, the Blaine Republicans in Maine, and the Dudley Republicans in Indiana—is most instructive. It shows more plainly than columns of arguments that the proposed reform is all that its advocates claim it to be, since the most rascally influences in the politics of all parties hasten to unite against it as their most deadly foe.

The doctrine of evolution, or the "preservation of profitable variations," has a new illustration in the discovery made by Mr. C. A. Alexander of Wilkes Co., Georgia, some four years ago in his cotton-field. He found one stalk of the plant which was different from the rest in the formation of the leaf. Instead of having a solid leaf about four inches wide, and therefore casting a considerable shadow over the plant and furnishing a good, broad surface for caterpillars to spin their cocoons on, this plant had a leaf divided into several partitions or fingers. Mr. Alexander saved the seed of this stalk, and planting it found that it reproduced the same kind of leaf as the parent. He repeated the experiment four years in succession, and found the new leaf reproduced in every case. He found, also, that the new plants were more thrifty than the old. Receiving more sunlight, the bolls were less liable to mildew, and, offering less surface, they were less liable to the attacks of the caterpillar. The *Financial Chronicle* has a leading article on this discovery, which it looks upon as having probably a high economical value. Probably the evolutionists will make much of it also, and tell us how, in the natural course of things, even without the intervention of man, the five-fingered cotton-plant, having once secured lodgment on the earth, would inevitably supersede the old variety, being better armed and equipped in the struggle for existence. If anybody asks how the variation came about, the question cannot be answered.

Mr. Chamberlain's announcement in his speech at Birmingham, that "he will live and die a Commoner," that is, will not accept a title from the Tories, is doubtless intended to quiet the apprehension created in the minds of those Radicals who still cling to him by the great change which has come over him regarding London society. Up to 1886 he was much reviled and despised by Conservatives as a vulgar radical and demagogue, and was never seen in what were called "the best circles." He was then preaching the "three-acres-and-a-cow" gospel, and proposing to tax accumulated wealth as "ransom" due by the rich to the poor. He paid back this odium in kind by deriding the pretensions of London society, and maintaining that the charms of Birmingham and other provincial society were as great or greater. As soon as he turned on Gladstone, however, it became "the thing" in London to take Chamberlain up. The duchesses and countesses went for him with a will, and captured him almost without a struggle, and he was soon within the charmed circle, and seemed to enjoy it immensely, to the dismay of many of his old co-laborers. It would appear that they have lately begun to fear he might even disappear into the House of Lords, and become a "K. G.," like Disraeli. He will probably stay where he is, however, and see what luck is in store for him when the Grand Old Man dies.

Mr. Gladstone has in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century* a review of O'Connell's Letters, of which we had a notice last week. It contains some fresh illustrations of the difficulties which O'Connell had to contend with in the House of Commons, in addition to that which we quoted from Richard Cobden. Cobden said in one of his letters that, although O'Connell "always treated him with friendly attention," he "never shook hands with him or faced his smile without a feeling of insecurity; and as for trusting him in any public question where his passions or his vanity might interfere, he would as soon have thought of an alliance with an Ashantee chief." So he remained silent on Irish affairs for eight years in the House of Commons, because he disliked O'Connell's looks and manners. And yet O'Connell opposed the corn laws of 1815, and steadily supported Cobden in his crusade against them from the moment he entered the House of Commons. Mr. Gladstone now mentions how much he had been impressed in his first session of parliamentary life by the way O'Connell "poured out his wit, his pathos, and his earnestness in the cause of negro emancipation," and says he was "as thorough an English Liberal as if he had had no Ireland to think of." He fought for law reform, for postal reform, for the secret ballot, and, "in short, for whatever tended within the political sphere to advance human happiness and freedom."

Nevertheless, Mr. Gladstone confesses that he too shared the prejudices against him, which were established, "not by conviction, but by tradition and education." Although he never "drew" him in the House by the sort of attacks which the young Tory members now make on Mr. Gladstone himself, the English prejudice against O'Connell and his followers—that is, the Catholic Irish—as expressed by Cobden, he ascribes to the "hatred which nations are apt to feel towards those whom they have injured." But we doubt if its source is as respectable or historic as this. It is rather the dislike which men feel to people of a different temperament, different manners and religion and traditions, which the reserved feel to the demonstrative, the refined to the coarse, the silent to the noisy. We have little doubt that if Cobden or Goldwin Smith had to serve a few sessions in the New York Legislature, their hatred of a large part of the Assembly would be as bitter and as implacable as Cobden's of O'Connell or Smith's of the Parnellites. Goldwin Smith's hatred of the Irish is to him a reason for keeping them close to him, in some place where he can see them and curse them every day. More philosophic politicians, however, think the less politicians who hate each other, without knowing why, see of each other the better, or, in other words, that more or less separation is the best cure for incompatibility.

THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE COMMISSION'S SECOND ANNUAL REPORT.

THE work of the Inter-State Commerce Commission has increased in variety as well as in volume. It has gradually divided itself into three distinct departments instead of one. It was at first supposed that the Commission would be merely an administrative body, exercising a sort of supervisory power over the railroads in connection with the operations of the Act. But the course of events soon made the work of the Commission itself approach more nearly to a judicial character. It was occupied with interpretation rather than with supervision. Cases were presented for decision which involved a most careful discussion of principles, and where each particular decision furnished precedents for a hundred others. So important did the preparation of these opinions become that the Commission had little time for its purely administrative duties. These were at first left under the general control of the Secretary, but were soon put into the hands of a separate and almost independent officer —Mr. McCain. Some idea of the extent of his work may be obtained from the fact that no less than 270,000 tariffs have been received and filed, nor does the number show much sign of diminution. They are still coming in at the rate of 500 a day, and require a force of fourteen men to attend to them.

When it came to the collection of railroad statistics, a further subdivision was necessary. The work in its early stages was under the general supervision of Mr. McCain, but it was soon found that he had quite enough to occupy him in connection with the filing of tariffs and with questions which arose in that connection. The result was the establishment of two subordinate bureaus instead of one; rates and transportation being left in Mr. McCain's charge, while Prof. Henry C. Adams was placed in control of the statistical department. It is his work which gives the most opportunity for discussion in connection with the report before us. The statements and conclusions of the Commission, however interesting and valuable, are already familiar. They have, for the most part, been outlined in previous decisions of particular cases. They have been given to the public in the advance sheets of a partial report some little time since. The questions with which they chiefly deal have been discussed in recent numbers of this and other journals, not merely in connection with the report itself, but with speeches like those of Mr. Adams at the Commercial Club or Judge Cooley at the more recent merchants' dinner in Boston.

On the other hand, the work of the statistical department has promised to give much new material. For railroad statistics in this country we have hitherto depended on two sets of publications—the United States Census of 1880 and the successive volumes of Poor's Manual. Each is, to a certain extent, unsatisfactory. The Census was wonderfully well planned and executed; but it could not, in the nature of things, meet all demands. In the first place, it was largely occupied with the descriptive and physical characteristics of railroads rather than with their economical and financial condition. What was done under the latter head was good as far as it went, but it formed only a small fraction of the whole. More than that, it soon became antiquated. The conditions of railroad economy change so rapidly from year to year that what was true in 1880 is largely changed in 1889. The facts were somewhat old when the transportation volume of the census was published. Before we can hope for the issue of the corresponding volume of the next census, many of them will become quite useless. An annual issue is necessary to meet our requirements in this respect. To a certain extent Poor's Manual has filled this want. Considering the difficulties involved in any general collection of American railroad statistics, its publishers deserve great credit; but it was quite out of their power to accomplish all that was desirable. Different railroads made their returns on such different systems that anything like a classification of operating expenses was out of the question. There is no way of telling how much the railroads of the country as a whole charge to transportation account, how much to equipment, or how much to maintenance of way. Even the classification of the different sources of income or the different items in the general balance sheet is subject to great difficulty and more or less inevitable error.

A Government office, with the power not merely to collect statistics, but to prescribe forms of annual reports, has had a great opportunity. It remains to be seen how well that opportunity will be used. The present report is in some respects a disappointment. Prof. Adams was handicapped from the outset by the fact that the schedule of questions in the prescribed form of annual report had been pretty much determined before he came into office. He obviously thinks, though he does not directly say so, that some of them might have been modified to advantage. The persons who prepared the blanks do not appear to have had any conception of the magnitude of the work which they were undertaking. They imposed a task upon the railroads which must cost them hundreds of thousands of dollars in preparing the original returns, and which it will involve great labor and expenditure to digest properly. Not contenting themselves with a few of the more important matters on the lines indicated by the act of Congress, to which subsequent inquiries could be added from year to year, as the necessity was felt for them, the Commission has sought to obtain statistics more complete and more detailed than those of any other country in the world, plus a vast amount of past history which is often obscure and sometimes absolutely unknown to any one living. It is no wonder that the Commission and the railroads were both, to a certain extent, swamped with the work thus laid out. Although the blanks were issued in their final form more than six months ago, it has been impossible to obtain returns available for tabulation from more than about 120,000 miles of railroad, nor have the results from these been put in shape to be printed. The statistician faces his work courageously, but he has not been able to push it forward rapidly.

A more serious criticism is that the few results given us are very far from being correct. Only one table has been published which purports to give complete returns. It is that of railway mileage by States and Territories. A summary of this is given with the proportion of each State to the total mileage of the country, as well as that to each square mile of territory. The report describes these figures as showing "the length of line existing in each of the States and Territories on June 30, 1888." How do the figures compare with actual facts? Idaho is given as having only 63½ miles of railroad; in point of fact, it had about 850. Iowa is credited with 3,497 miles; in point of fact, it had at least 8,300 miles. On the other hand, Illinois is credited with 16,172 miles, or more than 10½ per cent. of the total mileage of the United States; while the proportion of railroads in Illinois to each square mile of territory is made out to be nearly as great as that of Massachusetts, and far larger than that of any other State. But in point of fact, the railroad mileage of Illinois was but hardly 10,000 miles, and there were several other States besides Massachusetts which were better supplied with railroads in proportion to their territorial extent. Other errors somewhat less marked in amount appear throughout the whole table.

What is the explanation of this? In the absence of details, it is impossible to be perfectly sure. But the figures correspond closely to the mileage owned by companies organized in the several States, and it is fair to presume that the table has been made out on this basis. The location of the office making the report rather than that of the railroad itself has been made the standard. For instance, the lines which centre in Chicago and run across the State of Iowa have been credited to Illinois, and have been made the means of adding several thousand miles to the latter State at the expense of the former. Of course, if the results are made up in this way, no special interest attaches to the relation between mileage and area. It becomes a mere accident of finance or corporation law where the mileage is credited. The whole series of calculations is rendered useless. It is a mere chance that many of them come out so nearly right as they do. Kansas, for instance, loses the mileage of companies organized further East, but gains that of the Atchison Line in the Southwest; that the two so nearly balance is a mere accident.

The fact that so serious a mistake has been made in the only complete results which are given us is a clear indication that the office is overworked. If matters cannot be digested more carefully or successfully than this, it seems unfortunate that the attempt should be made to accomplish so much. A few questions carefully answered and well tabulated are worth a great deal more than an

imperfect presentation of a vast number of details. We have no desire to criticise too severely the work of the statistician, surrounded as he is by difficulties; but the results before us furnish a reason for reducing rather than for increasing the amount to be thrown upon his shoulders. We believe that it is far sounder policy to begin by getting a few things correctly, and then to increase the scope of the work from time to time, than to tabulate a great many things carelessly, and trust to a gradual attainment of higher standards of accuracy.

THE RAILROAD AGREEMENT.

THE provisional agreement of the presidents of the railroads southwest of Chicago, adopted at the meeting at Mr. Morgan's house on Thursday, is the most important event in business since the passage of the Inter-State Commerce Act. It is the first rational attempt at self-help since the short-haul and anti-pooling clauses of that Act abolished the old methods of traffic. No such self-help was possible so long as anybody looked to Congress for relief. Those who fancied themselves strong and those who knew themselves to be weak equally felt constrained to carry on a ruinous war until either the Commerce Commission, or the people, or the gods should be moved by pity to do something for them. When all hope of external aid had disappeared, and when self-help was the only alternative to bankruptcy, they began to ask seriously whether they might not find a refuge in the principles of honor among gentlemen and responsibility to their shareholders. Probably the quest would have been unavailing had not the banking-houses taken the initiative. The latter, representing the investing public, and holding the means for building new lines, and able to prevent, or at all events to restrain, the building of such lines, were, of course, a very important part of the railroad machinery of the country. There was no leaving them out. Even if the initiative had come from the railroad men themselves, it would have been necessary to call in the bankers. When the latter took the first step, and said, "We will coöperate to save the investments already made, even if we have to forego some future profits," one formidable difficulty was removed. It may or may not be true that the bankers went further, and resolved in the last extremity to appeal to the shareholders against the warring presidents. What we know is, that they did take the first step, and that the result has been an agreement to transact business on the principle of live and let live, to which honor and responsibility are the indispensable adjuncts.

The agreement provisionally made seems to be sufficient for the time being. But the public have seen agreements so often shattered within a few weeks or months of the signing, that they will doubt the efficacy of this one. Time alone can restore confidence in railroad investments after the many and serious disappointments that have been met with during the past five years. Has the present agreement, if it shall be accepted by all the companies concerned, the elements of permanency? Can any compact of railroad presidents and bankers take the place of that control which must in the long run go with ownership? Can any new understanding resist the powerful shocks that have shattered the old ones, unless the shareholders take the same intelligent interest in the management of their railroad property that they do in their professions, their shops, their ordinary means of livelihood? The stockholders own the railroad, and depute the directors or managers to administer it as their trustees. But the rapid and enormous growth of the railroad system has left the stockholders far in the rear. The decisive feature of ownership, the right to elect directors, has been dwarfed till it is scarcely a reality. Control once secured, the party in power, or a small clique within the party, usually manages to prolong its control until office becomes a personal or family perquisite. They ask officially for proxies, and proxies are indifferently sent to them. Indifference on the part of stockholders has been so common that even their existing powers in this respect are scarcely exercised, while the attempts to improve them by new legislation are few and far between. There are good statutes, here and there, as, for instance, in favor of minority representation or against the official request for proxies; but in most cases the annual meeting is a mere form, in which the candidates and the electors seem alike predestined. The present crisis throws a vivid light on this practical apathy; for the new agreement can produce lasting good only if it leads the way to a fresh and habitual exercise of intelligent ownership.

The response of London to the above action is by no means effusive. It is tinged with the bitter memories of past agreements which have been made only to be violated and to be followed by secret rate-cutting and more savage wars. We have been at pains to obtain the opinions of one of the most conservative railroad men in the country on the underlying difficulties of the situation west of Chicago, for the purpose of learning whether these difficulties are curable or not. We give them as nearly as possible in his own words. In the first place, railroad competition is peculiar in this, that the percentage of the total expense which is practically fixed, and goes on whether much business or little is transacted, is larger than it is in trade generally. Another peculiarity is, that the service which is sold is a commodity that cannot be stored away and kept for a better market. Practically, all of the business is now competitive, although it was not always so; and if a service is not sold to-day because the price is unsatisfactory, that which might have been sold to-day is never sold — and yet a large percentage of its cost, that is, the fixed proportion of the expenses, has been incurred and paid by the company. Thus it happens that there is no other business which is so sensitive to the natural law of competition as the business of transportation by rail. Under conditions of freedom, therefore, the history of railroads in this country is a record of sharp competition, constantly decreasing rates, rapid increase in the value of land, and rapid growth in general trade and manufactures. As railroads increased in numbers, it was found that this sensitiveness to the law of competition tended to carry them to extremes, to wars of extermination ending in consolidation; and as present owners, as a rule, did not wish to exhaust their property for the sake of forcing their neighbors into bankruptcy, even the strongest and best-located lines, and those most likely to survive a contest to the end, were willing to join each other and their weaker neighbors in agreeing upon rates.

But experience demonstrated quite early in railroad development that a mere agreement to maintain rates could accomplish little. It was not difficult for shippers to create suspicion of each other among railroad managers and their necessarily widespread agencies; and with a commodity on hand and for sale which had been largely paid for, and could not be kept for the next day or the next week, it was wise to sell rather than lose the opportunity, even if only a small part of this fixed expense could be recouped. The problem then was to find a way to increase the confidence of managers and agents in each other; and this was to some extent accomplished by appointing common agencies to collate statistics and divide the traffic, or the revenue from it, upon some agreed basis, among the various competitors. This pooling method of management, while far from perfect, was a great help, and was tending towards greater perfection when Congress enacted an Inter-State Law. This law practically denied to railroads the right of combination.

Shortly before the enactment of the law, several new trunk lines had been built or undertaken west of Chicago. Even without the Inter-State Law, it is reasonable to suppose that these new roads, with their inequalities in length and otherwise, would have reduced the revenues of the older lines. There were more to divide the business; and there would have been pretty radical differences of opinion about percentages in the pools and other matters, so that it is more than likely some of the questions coming up would not have been settled without contests and reduced rates. But the Inter-State Law greatly added to the embarrassments of the situation.

Difficult as it is to maintain rates by mere agreements, even among roads which are about equal in point of distance, equipment, and terminals, the difficulty is much greater when inferior roads become parties to the contest for business and to the agreements about rates. It is obvious that an old road, with an established business, having pretty direct lines between commercial centres, can afford to maintain rates and let business go where it will, provided its competitors will do the same thing. But this is equivalent to saying that a new road without an established business, or a road with an indirect or a long line between the same commercial centres, cannot afford to sit still and let the business take its course, because, at equal rates, business will, under such circumstances, go mostly by the older and more

direct lines. It is obvious, also, that the older and more direct lines cannot afford to sit still and permit the new or the indirect line to fix its rates materially lower than theirs, unless by agreement and with proper safeguards, because it would be easy to make differences on certain commodities which would turn the traffic entirely by the new or indirect line. The pools enabled the railroads to meet this difficulty by compensating the lines least able to take care of themselves at equal rates. It seems pretty clear, therefore, that, with the number of new roads west of Chicago and a law against pools, much demoralization was to be expected.

It is easy to say that the railroads can agree upon rates and maintain them if they choose, and all be the richer; so it is easy to say that, if all the nations of Europe would disarm and keep the peace, all would be richer. As a matter of fact, however, the railroads would not all be the richer if equal rates were absolutely maintained, because the inferior lines would get very little, if any, of the competitive traffic under the circumstances. Then, again, the difficulty of agreeing upon through-rates, and of keeping the agreement, if one is made, even among the lines which are equal as competitors for the through-traffic, is much increased by the long and short-haul restrictions of the law, because the road with a considerable intermediate business, the rates upon which are affected by the through-rates, has a very different interest in the through-rates from the road without such intermediate traffic. So it is easy to see that the complications are almost endless. Now, no line, new or old, weak or strong, is going to give up the ghost without a life-and-death struggle. No agreement, whether made by the railroad presidents among themselves, or by the presidents and bankers together, is worth a rush which does not recognize this fact. The law of self-preservation will assert itself always and everywhere. One of two things will happen: either the weaker lines must have business enough allotted to them by agreement to keep them out of the receiver's hands, or the fight must go on until they are worn out, and sold to the stronger at half their cost, as the West Shore Road was sold to the New York Central. If such an agreement can be made, it is obvious that an impartial tribunal must be in session to decide what proportion of traffic ought to and must suffice for the needs of the weaker lines.

If such an agreement be put in force, and maintained for a fixed period, say sixty days, there will be time and opportunity to learn whether economies can be introduced in operation to offset the losses which excessive competition has entailed. Here is a hopeful field for inquiry. Undoubtedly, there has been great waste in the scramble for business. While gross earnings have been increasing, net earnings have fallen off. Some of the increased expenditures, which might have been avoided in the beginning, cannot now be thrown off, but probably much may be curtailed under a supervision in which all have confidence.

POLICIES, SOUTHERN AND NORTHERN.

SENATOR SHERMAN is entitled to great credit for having exposed the utter absurdity of the talk about Gen. Harrison's "Southern policy," of which we have heard so much from Republican organs the last few weeks. On Tuesday, Junuary 8, Mr. Sherman introduced "a bill to make and alter regulations as to the times, places, and manner of holding elections for Representatives in Congress," accompanying it with the following remarks:

"I desire to state that the bill has been prepared by a very able gentleman, familiar with the election laws of both Northern and Southern States. It is absolutely non-partisan in its character. It contains all the provisions, so far as I know, that have ever been suggested with a view to securing an absolutely fair and just election in every part of the United States. It is confined to the election of members of Congress. It is uniform, and modifies the regulations and laws of the several States so as to embody, I think, as perfect a form of election law as can be devised or gathered from the election laws of the several States. Many of its provisions are rather novel to me, because they are founded upon the laws of the Southern States, with which I am not familiar, and many of its provisions are drawn from the laws of the Northern States, where they have been proven by experience to be necessary. I am not at liberty to give the name of the author of the proposed law, because it is not material, and he does not wish to be mentioned in connection with it. He lets the measure stand upon its own merits. I merely make this statement to show that I am not entirely responsible for the bill, although I believe its merits are very marked and deserving of the consideration of the Senate."

The bill in question provides that after May 1, 1890, elections for Representatives in Congress shall be conducted under the system provided for by the bill, and holds out a bribe to the Legislatures of the various States to place the choice of Presidential electors under the same system by an offer to have the expense of the latter election in such case paid out of the Federal Treasury. This distinction is drawn because the Constitution makes the choice of Presidential electors a purely State matter, except in the unimportant detail of the time for choosing them and the day on which they shall cast their votes, which are left to Congress; while Congress is expressly authorized to make or alter regulations as to the times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives, "except as to the place of choosing Senators."

The Sherman scheme authorizes the President to appoint in each State five qualified voters, to be known as the Board of State Canvassers, and in each Congressional district three voters as an Electoral Board. All these are to hold office during good behavior —in other words, for life—subject, of course, to impeachment for misconduct. The Electoral Board of each Congressional district shall appoint a registrar and three judges, not all of the same political party, for each election district or precinct, and may increase the number of voting precincts whenever in their judgment necessary to secure a free and fair ballot. These election officers are to hold their offices for six years, subject to removal for misconduct. These Federal officials are to register the voters, count the ballots, "correct irregularities," and declare whatever result seems to them best.

It will be seen that the Sherman bill would take the entire control of the Congressional elections in each State out of the hands of the people of that State, and place it in the hands of men appointed for life by the President. While undoubtedly within the strict letter of the Constitution, which authorizes Congress to make any regulations it chooses about Congressional elections, the scheme is utterly opposed to the spirit of that instrument, to the traditions of our political history, and to the proper relations between the Federal and State Governments. Undoubtedly, if Senator Sherman had proposed a "rigorous" policy like this for application solely to the Southern States, it would have been heartily endorsed by the Republicans as the right sort of a "Southern policy." But Senator Sherman knows, as scarcely any Republican editors appear to know, that any regulations which Congress may make as to the manner of holding Congressional elections must be uniform throughout the Union, and apply to Maine or California, Massachusetts or Ohio, equally with the South. In other words, if you are going to have a "rigorous" policy in one part of the country, you must have a "rigorous" policy in all parts.

It is amusing to observe the indignation expressed by Northern Republicans who have been demanding that the Federal Government should "do something" about elections at the South when they find that whatever is done at the South must be done also at the North. No sooner was it understood that Mr. Sherman's plan would turn over the control of Congressional elections in Northern (as well as Southern) States to officials appointed in Washington, than Northern Republicans answered that it would never do. Congressman Cooper of Ohio, who is a member of the House Elections Committee, said that he would oppose Federal supervision if it tended to Federal control over State elections. "I do not believe," he added, "there ought to be any invasion of State rights unless absolutely required. Such a broad assumption of power as that proposed by Senator Sherman's bill would receive careful consideration before the Republican members of the Elections Committee would agree to it." Congressman Powell of Illinois, another member of the same Committee, said that the Sherman bill does not strike him favorably, as "it is entirely too sweeping." An attempt at Federal control of elections, he thinks, would probably excite a deal of hostility and fail to accomplish its purpose. No matter how strict the law is, fair elections, in his opinion, depend largely on public sentiment.

In the same vein is the sharp criticism of the Worcester *Spy*, a Massachusetts Republican paper of the highest standing, which, after some reference to details, says:

"A more serious matter is the fact that Senator Sherman's plan would establish a new and distinct system of registration and election in every State, entirely independent of and separate from the State election system; and this intrusion of an external authority, and substitution of a novel and separate election machinery for that which

is familiar, established by State authority, and conducted by local officers, would be unwelcome and irritating everywhere, and not least in those States and communities where elections have always been conducted with substantial fairness. The plan of giving to members of canvassing and electoral boards a life tenure will scarcely commend itself to the general judgment. As politicians, having personal or party ends to serve, they might easily be led into misconduct which would make their continuance in office undesirable, but would not, perhaps, be sufficient to insure their removal by impeachment. Altogether, Mr. Sherman has not, by this bill, enhanced his reputation for statesmanship."

"DELPHI IN THE MARKET."

SUCH was the announcement made on Monday night at a small gathering of gentlemen convened by Bishop Potter to hear from Prof. Norton of Harvard an appeal for funds to complete the purchase. We do not mean Delphi, N. Y., or Delphi, Tenn., or Delphi, Ind., or Delphi, Mo., but the original Delphi in Greece, the seat of the oracle, and the site of the most famous temple in the world. Ever since Greece settled down in peace and quiet, and improved steam communication began to bring her within easy reach of the Western World, eagerness to excavate her soil in search of the remains of her splendid antiquity has spread through the leading western nations, and there has, of course, been more or less competition for excavating privileges. The Germans have got Olympia, the site of the most famous temple of Jupiter, where they have been digging with remarkable results; the Greeks themselves are working at the Acropolis at Athens, and the English and Americans in other places. France, Germany, and England have all had schools, containing corps of explorers, in Greece for some years. The United States have maintained one for the last six years, founded by the Archæological Institute, and supported thus far by contributions from a number of American colleges, most of them ill-able to give.

But of all sites for exploration, none compares to Delphi, the great shrine of the ancient world, where Apollo prophesied for a thousand years, and the Amphyctyonic Council sat. The French some years ago obtained a refusal of it from the Greek Government, and were to have had the final concession under a commercial treaty which has been for some time in negotiation, but which the French Senate has just refused to ratify. This event throws the concession once more open to all the world, and the Greek Government has offered it to the Americans; but it will cost $80,000, as the modern village of Castri, which now stands on the ground, will have to be bought out and removed. It is to raise this sum, if possible, that Prof. Norton, on behalf of the Archæological Institute, came here, on Bishop Potter's invitation. The opportunity will not remain open very long. The French and Germans will jump at it, and in their case the needed money comes out of the public treasury, because it is an old and settled tradition of theirs that the encouragement of art and literature and science is one of the leading functions of government. So that the work of excavation there is sure to be done; but the glory of it and the direct instruction of it will not come to the United States. The railroad from Athens comes within a short distance of the place. In a year Delphi will certainly be not more than half a day from Athens, and Athens will be in railroad communication with the rest of Europe, so that the Castalian spring may before long receive more visitors than it ever did in ancient days.

It, of course, at first sight seems rather hard on the rich men of America, who have to do nearly all that is done to found and maintain institutions of art and learning in their own country, that they should be called on to furnish the means of delving in the soil of Greece for the relics of ancient piety or learning; but, as Prof. Norton pointed out on Monday night, if there be any value whatever in the study, now pursued in our colleges, of the art and literature and philosophy of the ancient world—and nobody denies it some value—it must hereafter, in order to be pursued effectively, be pursued in connection with the explorations which are being carried on both in Asia and Europe on the sites of Greek and Roman and Egyptian temples and cities. These explorations have already almost revolutionized our knowledge of the Greek and Roman world.

The American School at Athens is now in possession of a good house, constantly occupied by a small corps of American explorers, under the superintendence of an "annual director," sent in succession by one of the colleges. It is sorely in need of an endowment of $100,000 to maintain—or as we say, "run"—the house permanently, and keep a permanent director, who would give the work greater continuity and a more intelligent supervision than can be supplied by the annual detail from the United States. A fourth of this sum has been subscribed in Boston. New York is appealed to to make up the remainder. New Yorkers have plenty of money, and have seldom been appealed to in vain; but no such appeal as this has ever been made to their cultivated imagination, and its result will be interesting. The man who feels that America ought to have the glory of laying bare the foundations of the Temple of Apollo and of the hall in which the Amphyctyonic Council sat, may be sure that the culture which is worshipped so much and joked over so much has entered into his veins, though he may not know how.

THE TOTAL SOLAR ECLIPSE.

THE extent of the astronomical harvest gathered in on the afternoon of New Year's Day is already pretty well known, although the critical gleaning of results is as yet only just begun. The daily prints have announced the remarkable good fortune which fell to the lot of the eclipse observers everywhere, in that the area or belt of total obscuration of the sun was practically cloudless throughout its entire extent, from the Pacific Coast to Manitoba. It is doubtful if any eclipse region in the last quarter-century has been equally favored; and although the present number of scientific expeditions has often before been exceeded, in consequence of more attractive weather probabilities or a longer duration of the total phase, there is perhaps the best of reasons for the belief that the outcome of all the observations of this astronomical event will exceed in importance that of any previous eclipse.

This view is, of course, based on the supposition that all the photographic work already done, in the shape of exposing dry plates in specialized cameras and telescopes, comes out on development quite as expected; and the elaborate preparation, the thorough adjustment and painstaking drill, which all the parties for the most part went through with, encourages the belief that no slips worth mentioning have been made. At the same time, the dry-plate photography, now so powerful and helpful an adjunct in all astronomical research, has the significant drawback that the operator who exposes the plates automatically is, to some extent, working in the dark, and has no means of knowing the blunders he may be making until it is too late to correct them.

A fortnight and more ago the most important preparations for the eclipse were noted in our columns, and we have here to call attention to the successful carrying out of all these plans on the part of the astronomers who had made them—to summarize, in so far as present indications will admit, the additions to solar science which appear likely, and to relate the interesting story of the rapid gathering of the news of what the observers had everywhere succeeded in accomplishing.

Harvard's expedition, under the direction of Mr. W. H. Pickering, and stationed in the Sacramento Valley, achieved the most marked success, and one well worthy the ingenuity displayed in the variety and novelty of their apparatus. It seems not too much to hope that their broad spectroscopic attack of the sun's prominences, and the corona particularly, may lead to results which will render this eclipse fully as significant in the solar physics of today as were those of a score of years ago in that time. The detailed forms of this apparatus were such as to include in the most ample manner every part of the coronal spectrum, and with a thoroughness never before attempted. About twenty plates are available for the subsequent study of this spectrum. The great thirteen-inch Boyden telescope, with a lens specially corrected for photographic work, was successfully operated in securing eight large-scale pictures of the sun's corona, and these appear certain to be the finest representations of this strange object ever obtained. Their size is an important consideration, as heretofore the photographs of the corona have mostly required subsequent enlargement, or the application of much magnifying power in making drawings of the details of their filamentary structure. None of these plates are yet developed, but the evidence already in, both in the shape of drawings made by expert artists and of photographic plates already developed, goes to show that this corona is perhaps the most marvellous one ever observed, both in the wealth and complexity of its detail, the irregularity of its structure, and the vast extent of its streamers outward from the sun. The abundant materials just collected will, when fully discussed, contribute in great degree to the further perfection of solar theories. It need only be said here that the type of corona appears to repeat itself in a period about the same as that of the solar spots, the corona of 1889 strongly resembling that

of 1868, as drawn by Bullock and reproduced in Prof. Young's 'The Sun'; also that of 1878, as represented by the work of the eclipse observers in our Western States on that occasion, and abundantly pictured in the reports issued by the United States Naval Observatory. Its general appearance was that of a pyramidal wisp of light extending out zodiacally on the east side of the sun, while in the opposite direction was a much more extensive coronal blaze, cleft near the middle, and quite of the fish-tail type.

About the solar poles the drawings show an interlacing of filaments heretofore unknown, both straight and curved and intertwined in the most intricate forms, and strongly suggesting the plausibility of the notion that the physicist must bestow a deal of labor on the question of their origin and structure if the problems of the sun's heat are to be solved in their most general form. Not less important are the long ecliptic streamers, amply observed both visually and photographically, stretching outward even further from the sun than when they were first discovered in 1878. Their appearance will perhaps go a long way towards supporting the theory of an ecliptic ring about the sun, temporarily formed and maintained during the period of minimum spots.

The quest of the existence of intra-mercurial planets will be conclusively settled, no doubt, on the development of the plates used in the eight-inch Bache telescope of the Harvard party, with which five exposures were made. Other searchers, optically, were unsuccessful; comets, two in number, were reported to have been found, but this was subsequently contradicted on the direct authority of the reputed observer, Dr. W. L. Elkin of the Yale Observatory.

The meteorological observers, Prof. Upton, Mr. Rotch, and others, were enabled to gain much information bearing directly on their line of research. The approach of the moon's cold shadow caused the thermometer to read seven degrees lower, but the fluctuations of the barometer were so slight as to be quite imperceptible. This result is now established beyond reasonable doubt for all coming eclipses, and this instrument may properly be eliminated in the observation of future phenomena of a like sort. The fall of dew is generally influenced by the presence of the lunar shadow cone, but this is quite likely a result of local conditions, as no dew was observed to fall during the recent eclipse. The peculiar behavior of the wind is not easy to account for, but meteorologists have better data now than ever before. It veered about towards the west, and its velocity first diminished, and afterwards increased—perhaps an effect of some change in the vapor conditions of the atmosphere.

The curious stripes of light and dark which always flit across the landscape just before and immediately after the sun's total obscuration, were in some places well marked, and in others only faintly seen, though very carefully looked for. Their behavior is most puzzling, and they will remain perhaps as much a mystery as ever, though Prof. Upton has data for the solution of the problem which have never before been secured. They were very faint at his station at Willow, but he momentarily saw them nearly stationary upon the white screen he had set up to receive them, and accordingly made an exposure with his camera to photograph them. Ordinarily these shadow-fringes are seen swiftly traversing the surrounding objects with a velocity much in excess of that of any human locomotion, and our best theory of their cause makes them an effect of irregular atmospheric refraction. They seem to proceed with the wind, at least in direction; but it is not yet known whether their velocity has any definite relation to the local wind velocity. One observer is reported to have seen the shadow-bands during the period of total eclipse—a novel observation; and others, who were ignorant of the existence of the shadow-bands, describe certain phenomena of the eclipse as "visible wind"—undoubtedly attributable to the shadow-fringes.

The usual natural eclipse-effects were conspicuous, and have been accurately reported in full detail. Domestic creatures of all sorts began at midday their preparations for the night, fowls going to roost, cows coming home, etc., etc.: and Digger Indians were observed to go to bed.

The instructions mentioned previously as sent out by Prof. Todd to many amateurs and intelligent residents along the line of total eclipse, have brought in a valuable return. Nearly a hundred drawings of the sun's corona have been thus obtained at very slight cost, and they show, not only the pictorial effect of the entire object, but the complexity of curved filaments about the solar poles, while many of the observers devoted their attention, with excellent results, to the long zodiacal streamers which were more difficult to depict, as the eyes must be very sensitive to the faintest light, and the greatest care must be exercised to make the streamers visible at all and to prevent ocular deception. The main reliance of astronomers for information of the appearance of these strange and puzzling phenomena must rest upon the optical sketches willingly contributed in this manner. The photographic plates are hardly sensitive enough to record them in the brief duration of total eclipse, and the professional astronomers have themselves been too busily occupied with their own apparatus to take the time to draw them.

A matter of interest in connection with this eclipse, or rather the reporting of the results reached by the numerous observers, as effected by our zealous and enterprising contemporary, the New York *Herald*, is worthy of mention here. Nearly ten years ago, Prof. Todd, in a paper before one of our scientific bodies, directed attention to the fact that the telegraph and cable lines of the globe might advantageously be called into the service of eclipse observers. For example, if an important and novel observation should chance to be made at a station near the west end of the track of totality, it appeared to be feasible to despatch it eastward, in advance of the moon's shadow, to some observer located near the eastern end of the shadow-path, in abundant time for verification of the possible discovery when the eclipse should become total there. Astronomers have not yet carried out this proposed plan, but the operations of the news-gatherers for the *Herald*, under the immediate supervision of Prof. Todd, have proved the idea a perfectly practicable one. For the purpose of testing the feasibility of this suggestion, and with its usual liberality in all matters scientific, the Western Union Telegraph Company gave Prof. Todd the free use of a line some 3,000 miles long, in an unbroken circuit, and reaching from New York city to the principal stations where the eclipse was observed. It was thus possible to secure nearly immediate knowledge in New York of the successes or otherwise of the various parties. Notwithstanding some unavoidable delays, the message communicating the main results of the Harvard expedition was received in the *Herald* office in cipher, translated to the stenographer, written out for the compositor, and the proof pulled and read within an hour of the absolute time when the moon's shadow passed over the eclipse-station at Willow, Cal. The practicability of the telegraph as a possibly useful adjunct in the observation of total eclipses of the sun is thus demonstrated, and it remains to be seen whether astronomers will avail themselves of it on the next favorable opportunity, some ten years hence.

HONORÉ FRAGONARD.

PARIS, December 26, 1888.

THERE are books which speak for themselves, and address themselves to the eye as much as or more than to the mind. To this class belongs the magnificent volume just published by Baron Roger Portalis, under the title 'Honoré Fragonard: His Life and His Work.' As many as two hundred and ten engravings appear in this book, made from the original paintings and drawings of this famous master. Fragonard holds a very high rank in the French school of the eighteenth century, which was almost forgotten after the French Revolution, under the influence of the school of David, but which is now the object of a great return of favor.

Baron Portalis has devoted much time and care to the study of the masters of the eighteenth century, and has already published very interesting works upon the engravers and book-illustrators of this time. Fragonard was one of these illustrators. He made, for instance, a series of fine drawings to illustrate La Fontaine's 'Contes.' Some of these drawings were engraved, and are found in a well-known edition of La Fontaine; some others, made towards 1780, were not engraved at the time. The volume which contained them was bought in 1840 by a bookseller for 800 francs; these fifty-seven drawings were sold in 1844 for 1,200 francs to M. Feuillet de Conches, a well-known collector. Baron Portalis bought them from M. Feuillet de Conches for 17,500 francs. These figures will show how differently Fragonard was appreciated at a few years' interval. But the rise in value did not stop there. These very same drawings were a little while ago bought from a French bookseller, into whose hands they had come, for the sum of 50,000 francs. I give these figures only in order to show how high Fragonard now stands with the lovers of French art, especially of the light art which found its most elegant expression during the reign of Louis XV. In 1865 the brothers Goncourt published an interesting fascicule on Fragonard, in the series of 'Portraits of the Artists of the Eighteenth Century.' Their monograph, however, is imperfect, and they did not know many of Fragonard's pictures and drawings.

Jean Honoré Fragonard was born in Provence, at Grasse, on April 5, 1732. Grasse is the country of perfumes, and furnishes Paris with its flowers. The father of Fragonard was a glove-maker; he ruined himself, and sent his son to Paris. The young man went to the atelier of Chardin, and was recommended to Boucher; he was soon remarked, obtained a prize, and was sent to Rome. He paid a parting visit to Boucher, who said to him, "My dear Frago, [he was always called in this abbreviated manner, and himself signed many of his works "Frago,"] you will see in Italy the works of Raphael and Michael Angelo, but I say to you in confidence, and as a friend, if you treat these fellows (*ces gens-là*) seriously, you are a lost man." Fragonard was much moved by these fellows. He related his first emotions to a

friend: "The energy of Michael Angelo frightened me. When I saw the beauties of Raphael I was moved to tears, and the pencil fell from my hands." He remained for a few months quite powerless, and he only recommenced drawing when he was before such painters as Baroccio, Pietro da Cortona, Tiepolo. His first copy was from a picture of Cortona's.

He became intimate in Rome with Hubert Robert (famous for his views of Rome), and with Saint-Non, the amateur engraver and etcher, an abbé, who took Fragonard with him to Tivoli and to the Villa d'Este. We owe to this journey some of the most beautiful of Fragonard's drawings. They returned together to France, travelling by short stages in a *vetturino*. Fragonard had remained five years in Italy. He soon became acquainted with the littérateurs of the time. Italy had not modified him so completely that he did not quickly feel the influence of the Parisian *milieu;* he soon forgot the severe lessons of ancient Rome, and gave himself up to what is still called the *peinture de genre*, abandoning classical painting for ever. He did well, for even his copies of the classics show how little he was able to enter into their spirit. He was essentially modern, frivolous, addicted to pleasure; he was in harmony with the elegant but corrupt society of the rich *fermiers-généraux* and their wives, of the *abbés galants* of the Saint-Non type, of the famous amateurs of the time, who liked to adorn their rooms with such pictures as "Les Baigneuses," "La Fuite à dessein," "Le Début du Modèle," "La Fontaine d'Amour," "Le Sacrifice de la Rose," "Le Vœu à l'Amour," "La Toilette de Vénus." I give the names of the first pictures which made Fragonard's reputation, and which marked at once the peculiar character of his talent. He became rapidly the favorite of gay society, of the nymphs of the opera and their protectors. In 1770 he began the decorations of the "Temple of Terpsichore," as people called the new hôtel of the famous Guimard. Some of the painted panels of this house have been preserved, as well as the portrait of Mlle. Guimard. Grimm tells a story about these decorations: Fragonard, like most artists, did not much like to receive directions, and did like to work at his own hours. "Will you never be done?" said Guimard to him one day. "Oh! it is all done," said Fragonard. He went away and never came back. David, then quite unknown and still very young, was chosen in his place. Guimard became embarassed in her affairs, and had the curious idea of putting her house in a lottery. There were 2,500 tickets at 120 livres apiece. The house was won by the Countess Du Lau. Fragonard quarrelled also with Mme. DuBarry, for whom he made the decorations of the principal drawing-room of Louveciennes; he kept these decorations for himself, and they remained twenty years in his studio. They are now preserved at Grasse, and they are the best specimens of Fragonard's first manner.

Fragonard married in 1769 Marie Anne Gérard, who was born in Grasse, and had come to Paris, where she made her living by painting fans. This marriage was the beginning of a new life. Fragonard and his wife lived much in the country, and the painter now shows us constantly episodes of rural and family life. He had two children, and they often became his models. If he returns sometimes to his first manner, and paints scenes which, with all their grace, are often immodest, it is because he received special orders from his admirers. However, he delights still to paint love scenes, and with a degree of warmth and animation which has never been surpassed. The Goncourts have, in this respect, compared him with truth to Diderot: Fragonard is as sensual, as fervid. "Does not," they say, "a picture of Fragonard's resemble a page of Diderot?"

Fragonard returned to Italy in 1773, with a friend, Bergeret de Grandcour, who has left a journal of the journey, which is inedited, but which Portalis has seen, and he gives an account of all the episodes—visits to the museums and churches, receptions, dinners at the French Embassy, presentation to the Pope. Bergeret was one of the great financiers of his time, and, like so many of them, had a great love of the fine arts. The long extracts given from the journal are amusing. Bergeret was, however, the poorest of writers; he makes one think all the time of the "Bourgeois gentilhomme." He quarrelled with Fragonard about the drawings made by the artist during the journey; the financier kept them, maintaining that they belonged to him, while Fragonard said that they were his own. The quarrel ended in a law-court, and Bergeret was condemned either to give back the drawings to Fragonard or to pay him a sum of 30,000 livres, which the financier preferred to do. M. Portalis doubts that the sum was ever really paid. He believes that an arrangement took place after the judgment, for he thinks that in his later pictures Fragonard often used the studies made in this second tour in Italy.

Fragonard had now an atelier in the Louvre, and gained about 40,000 francs a year, which was opulence before the French Revolution. This Revolution was a blow to the artist, not only because it altered all the conditions of his life, but also because it substituted an entirely new ideal of art for the ideal of the eighteenth century. Fragonard consoled himself philosophically for his pecuniary losses. He had 18,000 francs in the public funds; when the interest was reduced by two-thirds, he began to dance in his room. "Are you mad?" asked his wife. "No, but I am rejoiced." "Why?" "Because they might have taken everything." The protection of David, who had been one of his pupils, and who was now in the ascendant, shielded him from persecution. By David's influence, he became a member of the National Museum of Art, but he had lost all interest in his own work; the triumph of the new school was too much for him. He tried modestly to change his manner, to abandon his light and graceful compositions; he made himself heavy and what was then called classical, in order to paint, like David, Greeks and Romans. But, as La Fontaine says:

> "Ne forçons point notre talent;
> Nous ne ferions rien avec grâce."

Fragonard is not only beneath himself, he is beneath the most ordinary painters of the school of David, in such compositions as "The Senate Deliberating on Peace or War" and "Shutting of the Temple of Janus." He became very timid, and lived in great fear of the Commune of Paris. He became poor, but he never fell into a state of complete poverty, having many affectionate relations and friends. In 1794 he left Paris for Grasse, his native place, where he became the guest of his friends the Mauberts.

When the storm was over, he returned to Paris, but he was already forgotten: he belonged to another age. The public admired now such pictures as David's "Serment des Horaces"; even his sister-in-law's (Mlle. Gérard) pictures were preferred to his own. In 1806 he was obliged to abandon his apartment in the Louvre (what is now the great gallery had been for two hundred years cut up into apartments, given to artists). He died at the age of seventy-four years, on the 22d of August, 1806, in a house on the Butte des Moulins (the street was entirely cut away during the Second Empire). The work which Baron Portalis has given us on Fragonard is full of curious details; it ends with a complete iconography of the painter, containing as many as 176 numbers.

Correspondence.

THE SOLIDARITY OF REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the result of the late elections seems as bad as possible—a victory of the spoils, by the spoils, and for the spoils, both in the State of New York and in the nation—yet there remains the most interesting political situation known within twenty years certainly. Civil-service reform has been advocated, and a "painful inch" of progress has been made, under one or two administrations, only to discover that further progress is blocked by the want of tariff reform. The beneficiaries of our present tariff give high official position to those who, in return, will guard their interests in Congress, and will influence all appointments in the public service to place men useful to these private interests on guard in their behalf. Therefore, civil-service reform waits on tariff reform.

In the recent educative campaign the workers in the best sense were very hopeful of success at the polls; but there they were confronted with another evil, and met with defeat and great disappointment. The Presidency was bought, we believe. Thus another reform becomes a prominent necessity. Efforts to reform the tariff are seen to be futile until the real will of the people may be registered. Therefore we must now advocate ballot reform. Congress and the Presidency must no longer be for sale to the highest bidder. Perhaps while we address ourselves to the task of realizing this last-named reform, we may find ourselves forced back upon a still more difficult reform—to secure worthy nominations and to protect them from public sale.

It seems to me that our present duty is clear to work toward all the reforms in sight. The intricacy of the snarl in which our inexpedient tariff has involved us is hardly yet apprehended. When once we do extricate ourselves, the steps of our way out will form a most interesting study. Our absorbing study now must be, how to get out.

Two things suggest themselves to me: Between now and 1892 the best ballot-reform bills which can be passed must be pushed to adoption in as many States as possible. Meanwhile, evidence must be presented and arguments must be urged constantly to show the unwisdom of retaining the protective principle in our revenue system. Two classes should be easily won—the laborer and the farmer. The former, by the last campaign, is shown to be more easily won than the latter, and we must have both. Many manufacturers whose raw materials are either directly taxed or are the finished product of other industries, and therefore enhanced in price, might seemingly be brought to reason and a right understanding of the proposed reform.

My own interest is in the problem of gaining the farmer, and to this end I propose a plan and desire suggestions. In the last campaign I sent some money to the National Democratic Committee. Perhaps that money helped to buy "floaters in blocks of five," either in Indiana or (odious thought!) in New York for

Hill. Now I purpose to use some money where it will surely do the most good, as it seems to me. I mean to place a small, sound library of political economy in the hands of a Republican farmer, personally known to me, in each of several towns. The offer will be made to give a full set of these books, or their equivalent in value in other books, to the three protectionists of each region who first read the whole list and report that fact to my agent. The original stock of books is to be a gift to my farmer friend for loaning the books and reporting to me.

My chief difficulty is in selecting the most suitable books. Perhaps a greater one may be to get them read! Such books as that of J. S. Moore addressed to farmers will do little good, and possibly serious harm. Objurgation is not a winning style of presenting our case. I take it that the majority of those who believe they profit by the tariff are not consciously robbers; nor does the farmer believe that he is robbed. Therefore it will only prejudice our case to fume and scold. Both the unconscious robber and the unwittingly robbed must be shown why our present tariff is injurious and therefore unwise. Supposed self-interest supports the system: only enlightened self-interest can overthrow it.

To my mind the books to begin with are: (1.) Chapin's 'First Principles of Political Economy'; (2.) Francis A. Walker's 'Political Economy' (Advanced Course); (3.) Taussig's 'Tariff History of the United States'; (4.) Fawcett's 'Free Trade and Protection'; (5.) Edward Taylor's 'Is Protection a Benefit?'

The long winter evenings are the farmer's time for reading. The books I have suggested may be read in one winter by many farmers. We have four winters for this kind of work before another Presidential election. Before that time, if this scheme proves feasible, it could be applied in manufacturing centres similarly by friends of tariff reform who are intimate with workmen. These little coteries of intimate acquaintances would appreciate the friendly interest manifested in them, and might be stimulated to investigate so important questions.

A sentence on page 93 of Prof. Fawcett's book puzzles me. Can you explain it? It has reference to the United States, and says: "No article, for instance, is subjected to a higher import duty than timber." On the next page he speaks of "protective duties now imposed on imported iron, amounting in some instances to 100 per cent." Timber bears only 18 to 20 per cent. duty, I believe.

I shall be glad to have suggestions which may improve my plan, or which may better the list of books mentioned. Investment now in the next campaign, through the personal outlay of one's own funds, has its advantage, at least, in securing one's contributions against use for purchasing votes. MILLS WHITTLESEY.

LAWRENCEVILLE, N. J., January 7, 1889.

[In the first particular Prof. Fawcett was in error; in the latter quite right—*e. g.*, in the case of structural iron.—ED. NATION.]

"LIBERTY THAT IS ANCIENT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Aside from the injustice of protection, there is another aspect of the question that will appeal strongly to men's minds as soon as they begin to look at the case of Protection vs. Free Trade from the moral standpoint: it is the immorality of the mode by which the verdict for the plaintiff has been arrived at in that case. The rule of law and justice and common sense, that the burden of proof rests on the affirmative, has been set aside by those whom the *Nation* aptly calls the "howling dervishes" of protection; the *onus probandi* has been shifted: instead of being presumed innocent until proved guilty, the accused has been presumed guilty, and called upon to prove his innocence—to prove a negative; and, to cap the climax of absurdity, verdict has been pronounced against him without hearing his case at all.

It is assumed here that the burden of proof rests upon protectionism. If any man doubts this, he had better clear his mind upon this point as soon as possible, for to a candid mind the difference is enormous. If the burden of proof rests upon protectionism, then the presumption is in favor of free trade. The affirmative must be proved beyond a reasonable doubt, and, if any doubt exists, we who deny are entitled to the benefit of it.

The advocates of protection, so far as I have examined what they call their arguments, have never undertaken to show that the burden of proof is on their opponents: they have simply ignored the general rule that the presumption is in favor of innocence rather than guilt, of liberty rather than any abridgement of liberty. An unfair advantage is given them in the fact that protection is established. Of this they have availed themselves to the utmost. Precedent outweighs abstract principles; long established custom hardens into law. We have allowed those who profit at our expense by protection to plunder us so long that it doubtless seems to them insolent in us to object at this late day.

"Who'd expect to see a tater
All on eend at bein' biled?"

Protection has everything in its favor but logic and reason, truth and justice. It has prescription, antiquity, and the authority of great names. But the wildest and most baleful delusions have had all these. If Blaine, Sherman, and the Rev. Edward Everett Hale believe in protection, Cotton Mather, John Wesley, and Sir Matthew Hale believed in witchcraft. The fact that a system has existed from a time so ancient that the memory of man runneth not to the contrary, raises no conclusive presumption in its favor. And the thinking world cares daily less and less what great men believe, aside from the reasons on which their opinions rest. A belief, when traversed, must defend itself by argument, and cannot shirk the *onus probandi*. And a system, if it is apparently in conflict with the broad principles of justice established and sanctioned by the experience of the race, must ever hold itself in readiness, when challenged, to prove that it is not really in conflict with those principles. And it cannot shirk the burden of proof.

The general admission of these principles would change the whole face of the discussion. The duty of the average voter would become plain. For the average voter knows the duty of a juryman: it is to find a verdict for the defendant unless the plaintiff makes a case; it is to acquit the accused unless his guilt is proved beyond a reasonable doubt. And that any large number of voters, having examined this great question according to that due "process of law" "without which," says the Constitution, "no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property," can honestly say they are convinced that the demand of protectionism to deprive us of our liberty and property is a just and reasonable demand, such as a sworn jury would require, leaving no reasonable doubt—is something which no thinking man will believe for a moment.

Belief is an immoral thing when it is arrived at and held, after the manner of the "howling dervishes," without any adequate examination of the matter under discussion. And the examination should be measured by the gravity of the question rather than the ability of the inquirer. He who lacks the ability to examine should deny himself the luxury of belief, should impose upon himself the duty of doubting, and should give the negative the benefit of the doubt. He who puts his belief in act to the detriment of his fellow-man, as by voting for a policy that deprives them of liberty and property "without due process of law," should feel bound to defend and justify his belief by arguments that appeal to the reason of instructed men. Where is the protectionist that imposes upon himself any such responsibility for his belief? H.

JANUARY 4, 1889.

THE CURE FOR NATIONAL CORRUPTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my mind, the present decadence of church power, the corruption of the civil service, the misuse of the ballot, and other evils not lately discussed by name in your pages are closely linked together as capable of only one cure, and that common to them all, namely, the redemption of the public morality. Missions to city outcasts, as discussed at Chickering Hall, are very noble and godly works; but to begin with or to rely upon them is like trying to correct the bad sewerage of a city by a thorough cleansing of the harbor and nothing more. What this nation needs is, that its farmers, craftsmen, business and professional men shall be first purified; and then, largely as a necessary consequence, the lower classes. I see that things look very badly indeed, both in church and state; that the preponderance of numbers, activity, and noise is greatly in favor of a national progress through increasing immorality to a cataclysm. Especially I dread the paralyzing (I had almost said putrefactive) influence of the present deification of luxury and display, which, among a hundred other evils wrought by it, has turned your city worship into what you have well called a kind of club-matinée, and which is sapping the virtue of the nation in its remotest districts, as far as a newspaper is read or talked about.

But history shows us that a cure has been wrought for other nations as much or worse diseased than ours. Pestilence has done it, and so have war and famine; preaching has also effected it: but in every case the remedial agent has been, in one form or another, the hand of God. Thoughtful men have no patience with dogma; pure "doctrine," so called, has become a weariness to them; the revelations of God's hand in the universe do little more than interest them; church history is a very dry matter of discourse; polemics may fill churches, but they cannot redeem a nation. Yet these comprise nearly all the subjects of present-day preaching; and in them that whole side of Bible teaching which we so urgently need is not found.

Why? Because it can neither be understood nor taught unless it is lived; and in such a moral atmosphere as now pervades our country, such living is very difficult and very rare. But if our preachers were radically convinced, as some few of them are, that religion is a life, an active condition, the most real and best part of existence, an absolute but at the same time delightful necessity being laid upon each one of us to be God's man, and none other's; and if they also held and taught that "doc-

trine" and emotion are not this life, nor even necessary to it—then their preaching would be so full of illuminating and pregnant thought upon the common ways and wants of all, and their services would be so hearty and harmonious, that going to church would be the one pleasure of the week which must not be foregone. To those who entered upon this life, many things would be possible which are now unapproachable or even undreamed of; and many things would be impossible and horrible which are now certainly not greatly condemned in the so-called religious world—among others, such gross vices as peculation, bribery, and malfeasance in office. Moreover, such men's influence cannot fail to permeate those among whom they go. They cannot be moved or restrained by fear or expediency. In store, factory, and farmyard they would be certain to speak and act for the right. They do it now; but how many of them are there?

There is an old English proverb, "You can't make men do right by act of Parliament." And, for my part, I have not much faith in the purification of elections by any legislative reform in the process of balloting. It might work or it might not, as we see by the examples of England and Canada. But a reform of the consciences of intelligent voters, just so far as it extends, cannot fail of a strong effect. I have no knowledge of Canadian preaching, but it ought to be remarked, apropos of the present purity of elections in England, that English preaching concerns itself much more than ours with the daily conduct of the religious life.

To a very great degree this matter lies in the hands of native-born Americans. There can be no patriotic devotion in the half-assimilated mass of foreign immigrants, most of them grossly ignorant, and unbalanced alike in heart and head by reaction from the bonds and poverty of their European lives; but among our native population there are men and brains enough, if there is enough passionate love of the country and the right, to battle with the tide of corruption and to cleanse the stream of politics from its source.

Yours very respectfully, R. K. C.

WHY MICHIGAN WENT REPUBLICAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent, who signs himself "Michigan," gives your readers to understand that the want of a campaign fund of $100,000 and a good worker at every polling-place were the only things that lost Michigan to the Democrats last November. Organization and money, he thinks, carried the State for the Republicans. The country voter, he says, was corrupted by campaign funds contributed by millionaires. Indeed, one would suppose, to read "Michigan's" statements, that the Democrats were simply unfortunate in having a short supply of millionaires, and that no such thing as an issue or a principle appeared in the contest. A brief review of some of the well known facts of the campaign will serve to show that there were causes at work which must have influenced the vote of the State against the Democrats and in favor of the Republicans.

In the first place, the civil-service-reform policy of President Cleveland found a poor exemplar in Mr. Dickinson, who used the patronage to put down the Congressmen and to create a new Machine. Mr. Dickinson never pretended a liking for civil-service reform; and, by using his power for his friends, he made factions in his own party and thus contributed to Democratic weakness.

Again, Mr. Burt, the Democratic candidate for Governor, on the day before he was nominated, openly repudiated the tariff-reform policy of President Cleveland as represented by the Mills bill. Then, on the day of his nomination, Mr. Burt gave a mild endorsement to the President's position. Genuine tariff-reform Democrats, like ex-Congressman Yaple, were so disgusted with Mr. Burt that they took no part in the campaign, while many old-line Democrats refused to vote for a man whose personal antipathies alone had led him to leave the Republican party. Both Mr. Burt and his companion on the ticket, Mr. Moran, are millionaires, and they spent their money freely during the campaign.

On the other hand, Gov. Luce, Mr. Burt's opponent, had strengthened himself with the people during his first term by standing out for an economical administration of State affairs. Moreover, he was known to be in favor of the most advanced temperance legislation; and though on this account he was badly cut in the cities, he made votes in the temperance counties. Indeed, the temperance legislation enacted by the Republicans during the legislative session of 1887, and the need of completing the work then begun, were the prime causes of Republican success in 1888. The country voter was not a "floater," as "Michigan" charges: he was a temperance man.

Then, too, last year saw the collapse of the old Greenback movement, and the return to the Republican fold of such stray sheep as Regent Moses W. Field and John Heffron—men who had become disgusted with President Cleveland's hard-money policy.

Moreover, the Mills bill seemed to be aimed at every Michigan industry—salt, lumber, copper, iron, and wool. Many Democratic farmers voted with the Republicans, and in the upper peninsula the fact that almost all the mines were running without labor troubles made it easy sailing for the Republican protectionists in that quarter. This result might have been due to the ignorance of political economy; but it certainly was not brought about by lack of funds, because Mr. Burt had been working that section for more than a year.

I agree with "Michigan" that the Michigan Club and its branches were a great help to the Republican party. The annual supper of that club last year was attended by Harrison, McKinley, Hawley, and Cannon, each of whom was eagerly listened to by Republicans from all over Michigan. But the club has never been a machine nor a distributor of a corruption fund: the branches have been debating societies, and the headquarters at Detroit have been used as assembly rooms for visiting-statesmen.

Without stopping to discuss the past of Michigan politics, as exemplified by Gen. Alger or Senator Stockbridge, and without waiting to peer into the future to estimate Mr. Blodgett's chances for the nomination for Governor, a word should be said about Senator Palmer's successor, James McMillan. It must be supposed that the man who was the unanimous choice of the overwhelming majority of Republicans in both branches of the Legislature must have some qualities beside his money to commend him. Mr. McMillan is not a lumberman, as "Michigan" claims. He is a manufacturer, an owner of steamboats, a president of railroads. In all these fields of industry he has been successful in the face of the severest competition. He has helped others to fortune, and he has quietly and persistently worked out plans of far-reaching benevolence. Throughout the State he is regarded as a man of great financial ability, of cultivation, and of genuine public spirit. In politics he took the leadership of his party when no one else would take it in 1886, and by his sagacity and his systematic work a victory was won when defeat seemed certain. In that campaign the temperance issue was made prominent, and a representative farmer headed the ticket.

When Senator Palmer became tired of senatorial life, Mr. McMillan was the unanimous choice of the Republicans of the State, because he had proved a good political leader, and because it was believed that his business experience would make him the best representative the State could have when questions of the tariff, of transportation, and of the surplus should come up. On one occasion before the election, I asked Mr. McMillan if he proposed to interfere in the election of members of the Legislature, and he said: "I do not consider it necessary for me to go to the Senate; and if I cannot be elected honorably, I do not care to be elected at all." As it happened, there was not even a temptation for him to interfere, for his election was certain.

Lastly, there is a concrete case to show how far "Michigan" was from the truth in his assertions about bribery. The Democratic candidate for Congress in the Fifth District is known to have spent a large sum of money—probably $20,000—and to have had an excellent organization; moreover, he had rural communities to deal with. Hence, according to "Michigan's" theories, he should have been elected. As a matter of fact, he was defeated by Mr. Brewer, who spent little money, but who is very popular.

The fact is, that Michigan is Republican for exactly the same reason that the New England States are Republican: the sons follow in the footsteps of their fathers. C. M.

Detroit, January 7.

THE COUNTING OF THE ELECTORAL VOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The adequate review of Prof. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' in the last two numbers of the *Nation* will be of service to many who cannot at once give to the book the earnest study which the reviewer recommends. Meantime I have cut the leaves of my copy, and have "read with the fingers" a few pages. On page 44 of vol. i, this sentence caught my eye: "The Constitution seems, though its language is not explicit, to have intended to leave the counting of the votes to the President of the Senate (the Vice-President of the United States); and in early days this officer superintended the count and decided questions as to the admissibility of doubtful votes."

I write inquiringly. Is this opinion of Prof. Bryce the final opinion in the United States in a question which twelve years ago brought us to the edge of the pit? When Mr. Garfield opposed the passage of the Electoral Commission Bill his attitude was very dramatic as he spoke the words: "I pillow my head on the words of Chancellor Kent: 'I presume, in the absence of all legislative provision on the subject, that the President of the Senate counts the votes and determines the result.'" But, as was then pointed out, this is no final judgment of Kent. It only "presumes," and it acknowledges ultimate Congressional authority. The enactment of the Electoral Commission Bill by Congress, and its signing by the Executive, did not sanction, but virtually denied, the view expressed in this tentative way by Kent and adopted as conclusive by Garfield.

Mr. Bryce might hold that the Constitution

does not clearly point out who is to count good votes and reject bad ones; but it is difficult to understand how any one who has carefully studied the debates of the Convention of 1787 can hold for a moment that the members of that Convention (and therefore the Constitution) "intended" to leave the possible choice of the President to a single individual who, as President of the Senate and a candidate, might make himself President. The Constitution not merely "seems to have intended," but does say, that in case there is no majority of the electors for any one candidate, the election shall be given to the States as nationally represented in the House. Can it "intend" to leave an even more obscure expression of the people's will to one man? This construction of the Constitution, to which Prof. Bryce lends the very great weight of his opinion, some Americans have thought was put aside by the people of the United States when they accepted the Electoral Commission Act, influenced thereto largely by the masterly reasoning of Senators Conkling and Edmunds. If Prof. Bryce's opinion prevails to any extent this side of the Atlantic, is there safety outside of a sixteenth amendment to the Constitution? May I ask your opinion?

Respectfully yours, AUSTIN SCOTT.

RUTGERS COLLEGE, January 10, 1889.

[Mr. Bryce is evidently touching the point very lightly, and would hardly wish, we should surmise, that "very great weight" should be attached to this intimation. Apart from a mere question of counting, or of what the Constitution "intends" upon a topic not mentioned, we suppose it to be fairly well settled that the power of passing upon doubts raised as to the electoral votes is, in some form or other, in the two Houses of Congress, rather than in the Vice-President. That there have been doubts upon the subject from the beginning, and that the matter is quieted for the present by the Electoral Count Bill of 1887 in the sense above indicated, are facts probably well known to our correspondent. An amendment was proposed in the Senate as early as 1798, but not adopted, which gave to the Senate the settling of questions relating to the President, and to the House, of questions relating to the Vice-President. Does our correspondent know of Mr. O'Neil's valuable little book upon 'The American Electoral System'?—ED. NATION.]

THE UNION SAVED—AND DEVOURED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last number of the *Nation* contains, under the head of "The Next Pension Raid," thoughts that should arrest the attention of every intelligent citizen. It is more than a national calamity that our glorious volunteer army of the civil war should so far descend from its high estate as to demand largess for its past services, and thereby dim the record of that heroic period. The inclosed newspaper slip points out the tendency of these pension raids in sufficiently forcible terms, and is the more effective as being taken from a journal well known to be a leading Republican organ (St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*):

"Lord Wolseley not only tells the English that they have no adequate home guard and safeguard against invasion, but he jeers quietly at the United States for its enormous expenditures on military matters. To be sure, we have an army of only about 25,000 men, but our pension list is extraordinary and enormous. So far, this has multiplied on the plea of gratitude for a Union saved. It is, however, not desirable to have the Union devoured after it has been saved. The facts, not to be blinked, are that a good deal of pension money goes regularly to persons who have no decent reasons for taxing their neighbors for their support. The pension system needs to be economically handled to avoid breeding in the people a pauper sentiment. It is doing a great deal too much in the way of creating national mendicancy. It is time to go slow."

It is certain that a feeling has been aroused and fostered, that every soldier should receive a monthly largess, irrespective of condition, or length of service, or present state of health. This is simple corruption.

Very respectfully, CHARLES A. TODD.

ST. LOUIS, January 7, 1889.

THE KINSHIP OF MEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot tell from your review of Kendall's 'Kinship of Men' whether the author claims originality for the discovery that every man has two ancestors in the first degree, four in the second, eight in the third, and so on to 1,048,576 in the twentieth, etc., etc.; but certain it is that Blackstone was ahead of him. In the chapter on Descent (II. Com., ch. 14) you will find the same calculation; but the wise old father of the law, after showing to what enormous figures a man's collateral relations would rise if this calculation were free from fallacy, adds: "And if this calculation should appear incompatible with the number of inhabitants on the earth, it is because by intermarriage among the several descendants of the same ancestor, a hundred or a thousand modes of consanguinity may be consolidated in one person, or he may be related to us in a hundred or a thousand different ways."

Mr. Kendall's idea that the knowledge of men that they are related to each other will have a restraining effect on their intercourse, has received a curious confirmation in the experience of a distinguished social philosopher at the tomb of Adam. "How touching . . . thus to discover the grave of a blood relation. True, a distant one, but still a relation. The unerring instinct of nature thrilled its recognition. The fountain of my filial affection was stirred to its profoundest depths, and I gave way to tumultuous emotion" ('Innocents Abroad,' ch. 53.) With so striking an illustration of the force with which the recognition of kinship will appeal to one, who can say but that Mr. Kendall's predicted millennium only awaits the general acceptation of the truths he urges? R. H. N.

PHILADELPHIA, January 6.

PARISH WORK OF SYRIAN MISSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent number of the *Nation*, one of your correspondents, in writing of missionaries, says, "In the larger towns in Turkey, as for instance, Beirût, the missionaries live in good and often handsome houses. . . . They are far better off than country clergymen at home, because they preach but few sermons, and have absolutely no parish work."

Last year I passed five months in one of the larger Syrian villages not far from Beirût, and had opportunity to meet the mission circle, and to become in a measure familiar with their work. The impression they gave me was that of a very busy and earnest set of men and women. Dr. Jessup, pastor of the Beirût church, preaches every Sunday; and though the sermons may not require the same kind of preparation as sermons for a western audience, they demand one peculiar to the people, and one that a western preacher would find it difficult to give. When the Doctor's family flee to the mountains to escape the scorching sirocco of the plain, he remains behind to minister to his people; or if he goes up to his family, he returns to his charge the last of the week by a long ride beneath a Syrian sun from which most of us would shrink. The making and receiving of calls is a great factor in the work, and, with its tedious Oriental ceremonies, is a grand consumer of time.

The ladies do their share of this duty, besides holding women's meetings, teaching in Sunday-school, and going from house to house to read the Bible. The daughter of the missionary in whose home I sojourned made and received last year about eight hundred calls. Most of her visits were made sitting on the floor in true Arab fashion. She has a Sunday-school class of twenty-four, and from this, in the last seven years, thirteen have joined the mission church. The missionary himself was daily besieged in his own house by Arabs of both sexes and all grades who flocked to him for help and advice, making it often difficult for him to get time for his meals. Then there was the burial of the dead, and visits to the aged, sick, and lukewarm. In short, instead of there being "absolutely no parish work," there seemed to be a ceaseless and patience-wearing round.

It is true that some of the Beirût missionaries have pleasant and even handsome houses, but the inmates have private incomes, and what extra comforts they have are not supplied from the pennies "saved up by children for the purpose of enlightening the darkness of the poor heathen." From one of these homes the missionary's wife, with a sister who was visiting her, gave last summer five hundred dollars to the mission to supply deficiencies made by retrenchments of the Presbyterian Board, while another missionary and his wife went to America for three months at their own expense, allowing their salary to be used meanwhile for mission purposes. They are people who, by culture and means, are fitted to shine in the highest circles of America, but they have chosen to devote means and talent to the good of those less favored than themselves. If a man consecrates himself and his money to the cause of missions, he has done one thing more than the "poor missionary."

It may not be generally known that the college at Beirût, though an outgrowth of mission effort, is no longer a mission institution. It has been well endowed by friends in England and America. It has its Faculty, each with adequate salary, so that they are no more dependent on any missionary board than are the Faculty of Harvard. The really beautiful house in which President Bliss resides was built for the college by the late Mr. Marquand of New York. MARY GORDON.

Notes.

'THE CENTURY DICTIONARY,' which has been for seven years in preparation by the Century Co. of this city, is about to be issued by subscription in parts or sections. The total number of pages of this elaborate work is estimated at 6,500, and the complement of quarto volumes will be six. The scheme is encyclopædic, and has been executed with the aid of a large number of technical experts. Its very full vocabulary will abound in illustrative quotations, and some six thousand cuts of a high order will help out the definitions. This

important enterprise will be launched simultaneously in England and in the United States, and it remains to be seen whether the remarkable excess of sales of the just finished 'Encyclopædia Britannica' in this country, as compared with the seat of its origin, will be reversed in the case of 'The Century Dictionary.'

We have been favored, by the way, with the pretty pamphlet "Proceedings at the Encyclopædia Britannica Banquet," held at Cambridge, England, December 11, 1888, to celebrate the conclusion of the great undertaking. We observe that Mr. Adam W. Black remarked, on behalf of the publishers, that the authors' "corrigenda amounted to what was equivalent to setting up the twenty-four quarto volumes from beginning to end twice over"—a formidable showing, indeed, and almost incredible.

Mr. G. Birkbeck Hill has engaged to collect and edit for the Delegates of the Clarendon Press Dr. Johnson's Letters, and ultimately, as he hopes, Boswell's. He desires to have the loan, or very punctilious copies, of any letters by either of these personages in private hands, promising to return the originals without delay. Should such letters chance to have been published, a collation with the manuscript will be a favor, as "Johnson's handwriting is not always clear, and not a few errors have been committed by copyists." Mr. Hill's address is 3 The Crescent, Oxford, England.

The spring announcements of G. P. Putnam's Sons, in addition to 'The Writings of Washington,' to be edited by Mr. Worthington C. Ford in fourteen volumes, include 'English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages (fourteenth century),' translated from the French of J. J. Jusserand by Lucy Toulmin Smith, with new and elaborate illustrations; 'A Manual of Oriental Antiquities,' by Ernest Babelon; 'From Japan to Granada,' by James Henry Chapin, D.D.; 'Business: A Practical Treatise,' by James Platt, reprinted from the seventy-fifth English edition; 'Politics as a Duty and as a Career,' by Moorfield Storey; 'The Plantation Negro [of Virginia] as a Freeman,' by Philip A. Bruce; 'The Pocket Gazetteer of the World,' by J. G. Bartholomew; 'The Nursery Lesson-Book,' by Philip G. Hubert, jr.; and 'Principles of Procedure in Deliberative Bodies,' by George Glover Crocker.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are to publish a volume of the late Asa Gray's reviews of botanical literature during the past fifty years, selected and edited by Prof. C. S. Sargent.

Belford, Clarke & Co. issue shortly 'Janus,' a novel by Edward Irenæus Stevenson.

A preface by Mr. John Morley is enough to give distinction to any edition of a classic author, and this is what first recommends the complete one-volume edition of Wordsworth's Poetical Works (uniform with the one-volume Tennyson) just issued by Macmillan & Co. It is a masterly combination of biography and critical appreciation, and not at all the perfunctory thing that such performances are apt to be. It will satisfy all but fanatical admirers of Wordsworth, if any such remain, coming very close to Matthew Arnold's ranking of him after Shakspere and Milton—for the best of his work, of course, not the sum. This collection also includes the newly published longish autobiographical poem, "The Recluse," of which we must speak later. In all ways the volume is a desirable possession, printed necessarily in small type and in double columns, and following the poet's later (alas! not always better) readings, and preserving the notes, prefaces, and appendixes of the several editions. The cost is very reasonable.

From the same publishers we have the ninth volume in Browning's freshest edition of his Poems—the second volume of 'The Ring and the Book.'

It was during the height of the Franco-German War that Prof. W. W. Goodwin brought out his amended edition of the elder translations of Plutarch's 'Morals' (Miscellanies and Essays), to which we gave proper attention at the time. Emerson, who furnished an introduction, predicted a perpetual rediscovery and renascent popularity of the Greek author; and in fact a generation has nearly elapsed, and France is again in a crisis, when the publishers (Little, Brown & Co., Boston) undertake a reissue of the five noble volumes which we owe to Prof. Goodwin's care. The style has been somewhat cheapened, both as regards paper and binding, and the public makes a corresponding gain in price of one-third, with no essential loss. It is in this way that one with slender means, aiming to form his library of the best editions, succeeds if he will but bide his time.

Since we are speaking of new editions, we may mention the revival of Capt. Marryat in "Bohn's Illustrated Library" (London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford). 'Peter Simple' and 'Midshipman Easy' make a beginning. The illustrations are not very numerous, and do not count for much, but the form is acceptable, since there is no library without its Bohn. The compression into one volume makes 'Peter Simple' less readable than the companion volume.

Æsop's Fables, with John Tenniel's designs, furnish the newest (twentieth) volume of the taking "Nuggets Series" (G. P. Putnam's Sons).

A diminutive curio is J. Taylor's "Thumb Bible," "an epitome of the Old and New Testaments in English Verse," and an amusingly audacious attempt. Here is part of the Apocrypha:

> "In many places they do seem to vary,
> And bear a sense from Scripture quite contrary."

The present, published by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., follows the third edition of the 'Verbum Sempiternum' (October 6, 1693). It is forty years since the Chiswick Press gave it a new lease of life.

Cornelius Walford's 'Gilds: Their Origin, Constitution, Objects, and Later History' (London, 1888), is the reprint of a series of articles that appeared in the *Antiquarian Magazine* (1881-1886). They constitute a new and enlarged edition of an article on gilds published in the 'Insurance Cyclopædia,' vol. v., and reprinted in 1880. The author follows Brentano's essay on gilds with more zeal than discretion, seldom advancing an original opinion of his own. The work will be found useful as a repertory of the views of various writers on gilds, as a condensation of the ordinances printed in Smith's 'English Gilds,' and as a compilation of many facts relating to the subject gleaned from local histories. It is the most comprehensive and least original treatise on English gilds that we have met with. Throughout it bears the imprint of encyclopædic crudeness.

When, some eighteen months ago, we reviewed Prof. Comba's 'Histoire des Vaudois d'Italie,' we expressed the hope that a translation would soon render it accessible to the English-speaking public. That hope has been realized in the issue of a version by Teofilo E. Comba (London: Truelove & Shirley; New York: F. W. Christern). The style is naturally a little stiff, the proof-reading leaves much to be desired, and the transfer of the notes and references from the foot of the pages to a mass at the end of the volume is somewhat awkward; but the merits of the original are unimpaired, and it may safely be pronounced the most comprehensive and accurate work on the subject to which the student of religious development can refer. Although the title would seem to limit it to the Waldenses of Italy, it is in reality a history of the movement throughout Europe down to the time of the Reformation. We trust that the learned author will soon complete it with the exceedingly interesting story of the vicissitudes experienced by the persecuted sect to the present day—a story which he is probably able to treat with fuller knowledge than any other living scholar.

'Habits and Manners' is the title of a book "written originally for the students of the Hampton N. and A. Institute," by Mrs. M. F. Armstrong, and now revised by her for more general use, and printed by the Normal School Press, Hampton, Va. It gives homely and sensible advice in regard to refined deportment, suitable dress, personal and household hygiene, building and owning a modest home, etc. Even some cooking recipes are added. An excellent book for the class for whom it is intended, it is not without suggestions which might often be profitable in a higher.

It is quite as true physiologically as morally that in times past childrens' teeth were set on edge by the unripe fruit their parents ate. Attempted "hardening," imprudent diet, neglect of what now are called simple sanitary precautions, certainly made life hard and disease easy. But if not the tree of life, at least that of the knowledge of good and evil is now in perennial blossom. Among its latest fruit is Dr. Louis Starr's 'Hygiene of the Nursery' (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston Son & Co.), which may be recommended as excellent fare for the intelligent mother; but it is only the more than ordinary intelligent mother who will grasp all its directions, and it is clearly the richer class that the author has in mind. It is the climate of Philadelphia that he has before him, with Atlantic City and Cape May within reach. He is writing for his own comfortable people; but, fortunately, rich people's children and poor people's children are run in similar moulds. It is a very good book, although all children may not be able to sleep, as recommended, on "springs and a soft horse-hair mattress, protected by a gum cloth placed under a double sheet" (p. 93), nor all mothers be really the wiser for being told that in teething "there is, in other words, a condition of mild catarrhal stomatitis" (p. 46.) A very curious error of the types, making eight cubic feet (eight hundred being meant) the room space per child, repeats itself in successive sentences (p. 51), while the expression "adult boots" (p. 78) is grotesque, although intelligible. We would not have given so much space to a poor book, and this is a good one for fathers, for nurses, and for mothers to study, in order that children ultimately may profit by it.

In answer to inquiries, we are desired to say that the Secretary of the Dunlap Society is Mr. Brander Matthews (No. 121 East Eighteenth Street, New York), who will be glad to receive subscriptions.

The late Édouard Fournier had great erudition and a great love of books, but he was prone to discover mares' nests and to ride a hobby. A sketch of the history of bookbinding in France, which he wrote nearly twenty-five years ago, is not free from these defects, but it is pleasantly written, and it contains a multitude of references to original authorities and to other authors which are distinctly valuable. A new edition of M. Fournier's book, 'L'Art de la Reliure en France aux derniers siècles,' has just been issued in Paris by Dentu (New York: F. W. Christern), in which we find no

hint of the book's earlier publication by Gay in 1864.

Pending the publication of its sumptuous edition of the 'Philobiblion,' the Grolier Club has issued in a stately volume Mr. DeVinne's admirable account of 'Christopher Plantin and the Plantin-Moretus Museum at Antwerp,' originally published in the *Century*, and now reprinted at the press of the author, with a few amplifications, and with all the illustrations, chief among these being the vigorous pen-and-ink sketches by Mr. Pennell. Mr. DeVinne's most interesting description of the rise of the Plantin printing-office, and of its preservation to the present day, three centuries after it began its noble work, is printed in handsome open type on a broad and dignified page. We may doubt if Plantin at his best ever sent forth a book of better press-work. The illustrations are on separate, unbacked pages, and are printed in changing monotints, with a bizarre effect not unpleasing. The only fault we can find with Mr. DeVinne is with the author and not the printer. Why does he use the French form, *Mayence*, when there is a good old English name for the town of Mentz?

The Arts Club of Manchester, England, has recently held an exhibition of engravings of theatrical scenes and portraits, and of this a catalogue has just been issued, from which we learn that these prints were "lent and arranged by Harry Thornber," and Mr. Thornber is also responsible for the catalogue. This is a well-made and well-printed list, having brief but sufficient biographical notes; it is abundantly illustrated with woodcuts and process-blocks, most of which have seen service before in the *English Illustrated Magazine*. The one possible improvement would be an indication as to the present situation and ownership of the original pictures, in so far as it might be possible to trace them now. There are many good theatrical pictures in the National Gallery, and the collection of the Garrick Club is famous. The gallery of "The Players," the latest of New York clubs, is small but promising; it contains, for example, portraits of Garrick by Zoffany and by Sir Joshua Reynolds, and an excellent full-length of Palmer, the original *Joseph Surface*, by Gainsborough.

Westermann & Co. send us the closing instalment of vol. xi. of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon,' and fourteen parts of vol. xii., bringing the whole work down to Peruzzi. Music, Napoleon, the Netherlands, New York, Austria, Persia, Peru, and North Polar Expeditions are the weightiest articles of these numbers, which are increasingly rich in plates, colored and other, maps, etc. American biographies occur somewhat sparsely. The sketch of Com. M. C. Perry misses his latest biography. Full justice, on the other hand, is done to Mr. Muybridge's revelations concerning animal locomotion (art. *Ortsbewegungen der Tiere*). It seems at this day somewhat disproportionate to give a page and a half to "Ossian." The editor's chat with correspondents is instructive and even amusing. He satisfies, or at least answers, one inquirer as to the post-Adamite superstition that man has one more rib than woman, albeit the gorilla has thirteen. He proves to another that the Mississippi-Missouri river is considerably longer than the Amazon. He names for the benefit of a third the deepest boring in the world, viz., that at Schladebach near the station Kötschau on the Leipzig-Weissenfels Rail-Road, which measures 1748 metres, or more than a mile, and has been six years in the boring.

From the same publishers we have the second volume of Renan's 'Histoire du Peuple d'Israël.'

The compact 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte' issued in Berlin by G. Grote (New York: Westermann) approaches the end in Parts 89-102, which deal with the period from the downfall of the First to the eve of the Second Empire. Germany and France, of course, hold the leading place in this survey; but Poland, Italy, Greece, Spain—all the countries stirred by the French Revolution of 1848—and England are duly brought into view. The array of portraits is noticeably great, and includes impartially the men of thought and the men of action. We remark among the more curious the early portraits of Thiers and Bismarck, that of Charles Albert, of Guizot, etc. But George Sand, Byron, Capodistrias, O'Connell, Mazzini, Espartero, Kutuzoff, Diebitsch, the Humboldts, the Grimms, Heine, Ranke, Jahn, Hegel, Peel, Chateaubriand, Royer-Collard, Béranger, Bernadotte, Radetsky, Palmerston, Macaulay, Metternich, Blücher, Arndt, Mehemet Ali, Pio Nono, Strauss, Niebuhr—these and many others are likewise portrayed in more or less familiar aspects. There are, besides, excellent facsimiles of manuscripts, and some of newspapers. That of the *Vossische Zeitung* of March 20, 1848, rejoicing that "the press is free," should give rise to reflections in view of the treatment of Dr. Geffcken, forty years later.

Poet-Lore is the title selected for a monthly magazine "devoted to Shakspere, Browning, and the comparative study of literature," which it is proposed to issue from No. 223 S. 38th St., Philadelphia, with the imprint of J. B. Lippincott Co., on assurance of sufficient support. It appears to be an offshoot of *Shakespeariana*, or even its heir.

Some recent portraits of American literary celebrities by Miss Dora Wheeler are to be reproduced as frontispieces to the *Literary News* during the current year.

Both the Yale and Harvard catalogues for 1888-89 are at hand (New Haven; and Cambridge: Chas. W. Sever), each provided with a map of the college grounds, and otherwise filled with necessary information for whom it may concern.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, 712 Arch Street, Philadelphia, has just published a view of the Egyptian Hall in the Masonic Temple of that city, interesting both from the architectural standpoint and as an excellent specimen of the artist's phototype process.

Styles & Cash give a centennial complexion to their calendar for 1889 by a background design illustrating the homes and haunts of Washington. This calendar uses the dial form, with a movable pointer.

The (Syracuse) *Academy* offers a prize of fifty dollars for the best essay on English in Secondary Schools, not to exceed 5,000 words in length, and to reach the office of the *Academy* on or before April 15, 1889, signed with a fictitious name (the author's real name being enclosed in a sealed envelope). The prize essay will become the property of the *Academy*, as will also any papers of special merit that may receive honorable mention. All others will be returned if postage accompanies them.

—A considerable impetus is likely to be given to the excellent work of the Selden Society by a paper, emphatically commending it to the attention of the legal profession, which is signed by very distinguished and competent persons, such as the Chief Justice of the United States, Mr. Justice Gray, Mr. Justice Holmes, Professor Dwight, Professor Langdell, Messrs. R. C. McMurtrie, George W. Biddle, W. H. Rawle, J. H. Choate, and others.

"The undersigned," it reads, "have assured themselves of the great importance of the work of the Selden Society, an organization formed with a view, as one of its main purposes, to put into print certain legal records and manuscripts hitherto unpublished. . . . Such an organization cannot accomplish much unless its membership be larger. It has seemed to us that our brethren of the legal profession might be widely induced to join the Selden Society if their attention were directly called to the matter; for we are persuaded that in every way our laws will gain much from the careful historical and scientific investigations which are now going forward in many quarters, and which this Society will materially assist and promote."

It may be well to add, for the information of intending subscribers, that the subscription is a guinea a year ($5.18), and that this sum may be sent to any of the local secretaries (Mr. A. Tison, 40 Wall St., is the local secretary for New York), or to the general secretary, Prof. J. B. Thayer, at Cambridge, Mass.

—Nos. 1 and 2 of vol. xi of the *American Journal of Mathematics* are on our table. No. 1 is adorned with a fine head of M. Charles Hermite, the distinguished French mathematician, doubtless from a picture taken many years ago, as M. Hermite has just entered on his sixty-seventh year, and this is evidently the head of a much younger man. The two numbers contain ten papers, the contents of which are of that recondite character of which it is impossible, at least in a note, to convey any intelligible idea to the general reader. Two of the papers are reprints, one in French (*Mémoire présenté à l'Académie des Sciences de Lisbonne*) the other in German (from the *Berichte der K. Sächsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften*). The other eight appear to have been written especially for the *Journal*. Of the ten papers, six are in English, three in French, and one in German. Only one paper is by an American author, Prof. W. W. Johnson of St. John's College, Md.; five are by Englishmen, three by Frenchmen, one by a German. Three papers by Prof. Cayley of Cambridge, Eng., give abundant evidence that, although in his sixty-eighth year, mentally "his eye is not dimmed nor his natural strength abated." A paper by another Englishman, Mr. A. E. H. Love, Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, suggests a question to the students of heredity. 'Love's Surveying' was a work quite extensively used by land surveyors in this country in colonial times—say, about the middle of the last century. Love is not a very common family name. May there not be some kinship by blood between the present and the earlier mathematician? The contents of these two numbers of the *Journal* confirm the opinion that, whether we look to the ability of the contributors or the importance of the contributions, the *American Journal of Mathematics* is second to no mathematical journal in the world. We sincerely hope that its subscription-list will be so large that it will not be affected by any financial embarrassments of the institution under whose auspices it is published.

—Mr. W. H. Goodyear's 'History of Art' (A. S. Barnes & Co.) is a much less ambitious book than its title would lead one to suppose. It is a manual for elementary classes in the history of art, its chief aim being to point out, in as concise a form as possible, the distinguishing characteristics of the leading styles and schools of architecture, sculpture, and painting through those countries, ancient and modern, which have influenced our own civilization, keeping constantly in mind our connection with, and dependence upon, the past in these matters, with a view to training the taste of beginners, and developing their powers of observation and criticism. The excellence of this purpose is self-apparent, and Mr. Goodyear has executed it skilfully, and with a knowledge of the subject which shows

wide and careful reading in the large field covered. In the very restricted size of the book, as compared with that of its subject, it has been impossible to give more than a record of facts, and the statement of these has necessarily been compressed to the utmost possible extent. Mr. Goodyear has shown his skill especially in the manner in which he has made his condensed sentences express his exact meaning and no more; so much so, in fact, that we fear that their full import will be lost upon all but rather advanced readers. For this reason, we believe his book will be more useful to those who teach than to those who are taught, as very likely he intended it should. The need of expansion is felt on every page; and, in the hands of an intelligent teacher, there is enough suggestion in one of these paragraphs to furnish material for an hour's talk, though on an unaided beginner it would probably make little impression. Regarding the book, therefore, as a teacher's manual, we regret only that, at an inconsiderable increase in size, the author did not double its usefulness by citing the authorities for his more important statements, so that those who wished more information on any subject than he gives might readily learn where to find it.

— The book is plentifully illustrated, its 315 pages containing no less than 216 illustrations, many of which are full-page. Between the merit of these and that of the subject-matter, there is a very decided difference. In view of the publishers' promise to "spare no pains in subsequent editions to make all possible improvement," we refrain from saying too much about them, yet certainly the result of this first edition is melancholy. Had the theme of the book been any other than art, they would have been bad enough; but its object being to cultivate the taste of young students, these grimy, mealy pictures are indeed depressing. It is true, as the publishers say, that the fidelity and veracity of photographs are now conceded to be superior to engravings in reproducing works of art; but the fidelity of poor process-work, abominably printed, in reproducing all the defects and few of the merits of a photograph, and its unhappy faculty of distorting the veracity of photographs almost beyond recognition, seem to us the points most forcibly illustrated in these plates. He would be indeed an enthusiastic beginner who could be inspired to an interest in the subject by looking at them; and we therefore wish Messrs. Barnes & Co. all possible success in their future endeavors to remedy the "shortcomings of the process," of which they seem to have encountered more than their share.

—Mr. Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Works terminates with the tenth volume (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The main portion, if we may so call it, covers but two years (1788–1790); but a generous supplement fills many gaps in the series of letters and documents, and in particular (thanks to Mr. B. F. Stevens) contains a goodly number of letters addressed to William Strahan, the London bookseller. Nothing could be more delicate than Franklin's putting this friend on his guard when introducing one Matthew Harris to him. "Only I ought to acquaint you," he says, "that he has always had a strong *penchant* to the buying of books, and that some late misfortunes have rendered it more inconvenient to him to gratify that taste than it has been heretofore." A letter of condolence to the same correspondent, on the death of his daughter, is a model of feeling expression. Twice, in writing to Strahan, Franklin uses the odd word *smouting* in the sense of a "job" (employment), though in another letter to him, and in one to Noah Webster, also in the present volume, he shows himself a purist towards provincialisms and neologisms. He cannot abide the use of *improve* in the sense of "use"—as, when a country-house has been improved as a tavern; and similarly of the substantive *improvement*. To *notice* for "take notice," to *advocate* anything, to *progress*, to say that one is *opposed* to anything—were all innovations that he abominated; and in typography he would have restored not only the capitalization of substantives but the long *s*, besides borrowing from the Spanish the antecedent interrogative sign. If in these particulars, except the last, he seems not quite like his curious inventive and improvement-making self, there are many anticipations in these pages of ideas and events of a later age. He proposes insurance against the devastation of farms by storms, blight, etc.; by his will he assures his daughter's inheritance for her sole and separate use, "whether she be covert or sole"—evidently on abstract grounds of sexual equality; he encourages the Irish patriots of 1772 to be friendly to America, "with the expectation that our growing weight might in time be thrown into their scale, and, by joining our interest with theirs, might be obtained for them as well as for us a more equitable treatment from this [English] nation." Franklin, furthermore, took a wholesome stand against the neglect of English in favor of the classics. "The still prevailing custom of having schools for teaching generally our children, in these days, the Latin and Greek languages," he regarded as "the *chapeau bras* of modern literature."

—It is highly significant, for the man and for his time, that there is more in this volume on the subject of slavery than in all the preceding nine. It was in 1787 that Franklin was made President of the reorganized Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, etc., whose mild methods and non-incendiary scheme of ameliorating the condition of the African race is inferrible from the fact that in 1789 Franklin was still denouncing the British for having run off slaves without compensation during the Revolution—the natural right of these poor creatures to freedom not being hinted at; nor did he in his will make any bequest to this Society, though he begged his son-in-law, Richard Bache, to "manumit and set free his negro man Bob." He signed, however, in 1790, the temperate and forcible address of his Society to Congress on the subject of slavery and the slave trade, and himself drew up an address to the public the year before. This latter Mr. Bigelow prints, and he also—with what propriety we cannot judge—puts the caption "To George Washington" over a mere copy of the systematic plan of proceedings adopted by the Society. He assigns it to the year 1789, when, according to Needles ('Hist. Memoir of the Pennsylvania Society,' p. 37) the plan was formed in 1790. About three weeks before his death, Franklin issued anonymously one of his favorite mystifications in the shape of a satire on arguments advanced in Congress on behalf of the slave trade. There was a chance for an explanatory note by the editor on the passage in a letter to his cousin, where Franklin says, London, July 7, 1773: "Upon your recommendation I went to see the black poetess, and offered her any services I could do her. Before I left the house, I understood her master was there, and had sent her to me, but did not come into the room himself, and, I thought, was not pleased with the visit"—at least, he intimates, as having been paid direct, and not by application through her master. This brief record of Phillis Wheatley's visit to England is a sharp reminder that ownership of the body meant also of the talents and souls of men; the African Terence being a parallel to his countrywoman—he with Rome for his adoptive city, she with Boston. We take leave of this important publication with a sense of the untimeliness of Franklin's death. What one of his fellow-founders of the Republic could we wish, to the same degree, to have begun life over again where he ended it, and to have taken part in the great constitutional struggle which ended in the new revolution of 1860-1865?

OUR CRITICAL PERIOD.

The Critical Period of American History—1783–1789. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

Pamphlets on the Constitution of the United States, Published during its Discussion by the People, 1787–1788. Edited, with Notes and a Bibliography, by Paul Leicester Ford. Brooklyn, N. Y. 1888.

Pennsylvania and the Federal Convention, 1787–1788. Edited by John Bach McMaster and Frederick D. Stone. Published for the Subscribers of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. 1888.

A History of the New Hampshire Convention for the Investigation, Discussion, and Decision of the Federal Constitution; and of the Old North Meeting-house of Concord, in which it was ratified by the Ninth State, and thus rendered Operative, etc. By Joseph B. Walker. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

In a narrow compass Mr. Fiske offers us the ripe fruit of careful studies. He has rightly judged that a clear and compact exposition of the events which attended the formation of the Treaty of Peace between the United States and Great Britain at the close of the Revolutionary War, and a discussion of the effects produced by the Revolution and by American Independence on the internal politics of both countries, deserved to be considered as an indispensable prologue to the historical drama which he proposes to set forth. The acts of this drama are five, being an inquiry into the inadequacy of the Articles of Confederation, the drift towards anarchy visible from 1783 to 1787, the germs of national sovereignty out of which the Constitution grew, the fruitage of those germs in the Federal Convention of 1787, and the final crowning of the Convention's work by the adoption of the Constitution as it came from the hands of its framers.

It is the author's aim to group the facts of his narrative in an orderly series, which shall be logical, not simply because it is chronological, but because the sequence of the events here recited can be seen to follow a natural order in the evolution of political ideas. It is true that the writer deals throughout his whole book with pragmatic history rather than with philosophical disquisition; yet each new configuration in the politics of that period is treated in connection with the moral and social processes which had prepared the minds of men to receive it.

If the reader misses in the present treatise the comprehensive generalizations which give such a fascination to the author's lectures on American Political Ideas, he will find his recompense in the solid facts of history pertaining to the formative period in our annals, and can here see those facts placed in a historical perspective which reveals at once their national grandeur and their "world-historical" signifi-

cance. Mr. Fiske does not overestimate the importance of the epoch of transition when he says that "the period of five years following the Peace of 1783 was the most critical moment in the history of the American people." Instead, however, of quoting the contrary view of Thomas Paine on this point, in order to rebut it, he might have cited the more sagacious and contemporaneous opinion of Dr. Richard Rush, in order to affirm the point of view which seems to him the true one in measuring the proportions of this crisis. Writing in 1787, Dr. Rush rebuked the error of those who, like Paine, "confounded the terms of the American Revolution with those of the [then] late American War." "The *American War*," added Rush, "is over, but this is far from being the case with the *American Revolution*." It is the very pith and purpose of Mr. Fiske in this volume to exhibit the friction of opinions which led the way to the culminating point of the American Revolution as Rush conceived it while the political ferment was seething before his eyes. However true it may be, as John Quincy Adams has said, that "the Constitution of the United States was extorted from the grinding necessity of a reluctant people," it is equally true that this "grinding necessity" was the mortar and matrix in which the Constitution took a form and pressure that commended it to the eventual acceptance of the whole country, in spite of all the relentings and misgivings of a dissentient minority.

As might be expected from an expositor of the philosophy of evolution, Mr. Fiske finds in this doctrine an explanation of some of the things that were wisely done by the framers of the Constitution, and of other things that were not so wisely done because of a failure on their part to apprehend some of the historical processes which were hidden from their political insight, acute and clear as it generally was. Among the most suggestive parts of the present treatise is the forcible presentation which the writer gives of the mistake made by the authors of the Constitution when, in conceiving the place and function of the Federal executive as lodged in the President, they supposed themselves to be following the precedents of the British Constitution, without observing that the traditional theory of the British Constitution in this respect was undergoing a transformation in the practice of that day, and that the executive power of England was slowly but surely slipping away from the King to the Premier of the British Cabinet.

Perhaps a critical reader might object that Mr. Fiske has not applied this canon of criticism with sufficient thoroughness to some other parts of the Constitution. The framers of that instrument certainly failed to observe the evolutionary processes of history in their regulations concerning slavery; for if history had taught anything with clearness in their day it was that slavery had always been an element of danger, and that with each advance in the Christian civilization of the world, before the discovery of America, it had been put more and more "into circumscription and confine." Yet they planted this fungus growth in the very framework of the Constitution. Mr. Fiske states with clearness the compromises by which slavery was "extended and fostered" under the sanction of the Constitution. He says it is difficult to read this episode "without burning indignation"; "but," he adds, "this is not the proper mood for the historian, whose aim is to interpret men's actions by the circumstances of their time in order to judge their motives correctly." He finds an explanation of the concessions that were made on this topic in the alleged fact that it was "quite generally believed [in 1787] that slavery was destined speedily to expire," and in support of this view he cites the fact that such an opinion "was distinctly set forth by many delegates in the convention." We are aware that Ellsworth and Sherman gave expression to *obiter dicta* in this sense, but it is equally true that Madison expressed the opinion that twenty years of slave importation would produce all the mischief that could be apprehended from leaving the States free to import slaves indefinitely, and that therefore the national character would be more dishonored by the express toleration given to the slave trade than if nothing were said about it. The result showed that Madison's forecast was correct. It is important to remark that when Ellsworth expressed the opinion that slavery would "in time not be a speck in the country," he was using the language of an advocate in defence of a compromise which needed, as he saw, every plausible palliation, just as the Virginian opponents of the Constitution, Mason, Henry, and others, are found inveighing against this feature of the Constitution rather by way of a *parti pris* against the Constitution than against slavery; for in the same breath with these denunciations they bemoan (for argument's sake, of course) the absence of a constitutional guarantee for the perpetuity of slave property.

We think it may be doubted whether there was any "general belief" on the subject, such as Mr. Fiske supposes. The subject had not sufficiently penetrated the popular consciousness at that time to form, with any definiteness, the basis of a "general belief" to this effect among the people. The best that could be said by Iredell and others in defence of the slave-trade toleration was that perhaps the subject might be considered with less difficulty after 1808 than in 1787. Dawes and Backus predicted in the Massachusetts Convention that slavery would "die of a consumption" after 1808, for the want of fresh supplies. The fatuity of such an optimistic opinion was sufficiently exposed in the debates of that time. Gen. Heath expressed doubts on this point in the Massachusetts Convention, and so did Joshua Atherton in the New Hampshire Convention, if we may trust the accuracy of his reported language. Madison, in the Virginia Convention, said that slave property would be better secured than before, while Edmund Randolph lamented, "in the calm light of philosophy," that there was not "a spark of hope" that slavery would be abolished "by the operation of the general Government." Of natural causes working to that end he gave no hint. "If the importation of slaves is not to be prohibited before the year 1808, slavery will probably resume its empire in Pennsylvania," exclaimed an enemy of the Constitution in that State, controverting in 1787 the roseate views of Judge Wilson under this head. It would be easy to add to the number of such testimonies. Moreover, if there had been any such "general belief," it ought to have come to the surface in the first slavery debate ever had in Congress under the Constitution. Less than two years after the Constitution had been adopted, we find William Smith of South Carolina openly proclaiming on the floor of Congress that "the best informed part of the citizens of the Northern States knew that slavery was so ingrafted into the policy of the Southern States that it could not be eradicated without tearing up by the roots their happiness, tranquillity, and prosperity," while, speaking for the Southern States, he said that Southern men found slavery "ingrafted in the very policy of the country when they were born," and that they were persuaded of the impolicy of removing it. Dr. von Holst hardly exaggerates the truth when he says that the *noli me tangere* attitude of the South in defence of slavery was as clearly expressed in 1790 as it ever was at a later day by Calhoun and Toombs.

To argue that it was "sound policy" to adopt what Mr. Fiske calls "the odious compromise about the slave trade," because it won South Carolina and Georgia for the Union in 1788, and postponed the irrepressible conflict long enough for the consolidation of a Union sentiment which, in the end, became so strong that it could quell secession and at the same time wipe out slavery "in one stupendous effort," may be a just point of view in the homiletics of history, but it assumes the whole question in issue. Perhaps the best defence that can be made to-day for the slavery compromises is to say that they *seemed* at the time (not that they certainly *were*) the best that could be done with the hard necessities of an evil situation. And perhaps the best defence that can be made for our fathers, in agreeing to those compromises when they did, is to say that they did not know what they were doing. From the moment of those compromises, says Mr. Fiske, "the American people had entered into the shadow of the coming civil war before they had fairly emerged from that of the Revolution"; and when he adds that we "ought to be for ever grateful for the sudden and final clearing of the air wrought by that frightful storm," he at least leaves some room for the query whether the gratitude which requires such a circuitous and expensive route for its perception may not have been the result of mistakes made in 1787, and is therefore better fitted for the meridian of the castle of Thunder-ten-tronckh, as Macaulay might say, than for the figure of history in this modern age. Besides, if the compromises did rest on any "general belief" as to the transitoriness of slavery, it is plain that they were founded on an error of judgment, and would not have been adopted had their consequences been foreseen. In this view, then, their "good policy" becomes a theme of abstract discussion, lying apart from the conscious purpose of their authors in the domain of concrete history.

We believe it is not strictly accurate to say, as Mr. Fiske does in his second chapter, that "in all the thirteen States the common law of England remained in force" at the close of the Revolution "as it does to this day, save where modified by statute." Dr. Wharton has shown in his 'Commentaries,' with a great affluence of learning and illustration, that many of our States, even before the Revolution, had evolved a modified common-law jurisprudence of their own by "the silent method of consuetudinal adoption and reduction." These changes were not the result of statute law, and were not even the creatures of "judge-made law." They were simple declarations of fact deepened into legal precedents by the force of a common usage in our colonial history.

It was a "happy thought" on the part of Mr. Ford to reproduce in this centennial period a select number of the pamphlets which were published for and against the Constitution while the question of its adoption or rejection was pending before the people of the several States. In the broader scope and wider circulation of the modern periodical and of the newspaper press, the pamphlet, as it was known to the fathers a hundred years ago, has doubtless lost some of the circumstantial interest which then gave to it such a value as showing the age and body of the times. Even in the small fasciculus here gathered from the wide field of political pamphleteering in 1787 and 1788, we can learn the political accent of the

living age in almost every variety of tone, and can catch, as from a phonograph, the true and the false emphasis which was then peculiar to the political dialect of the country. The pamphlets judiciously chosen by Mr. Ford to be typical of the political discussion which was waged over the adoption of the Constitution are fourteen in number, nine in favor of the Constitution and five against it. The writers of the pamphlets in favor of the instrument are Noah Webster, John Jay, Pelatiah Webster, Tench Coxe, James Wilson, John Dickinson, Alexander Contee Hanson, James Iredell, and David Ramsay, while those who here represent the opponents of the Constitution are Elbridge Gerry, Melancthon Smith, Edmund Randolph, Richard Henry Lee, and George Mason.

With much that is merely declamatory in these sibylline leaves of a former generation, there is much that is very instructive concerning that "interval and breathing-spell of the times" (to use a phrase of Tacitus) which, more than any other, gave complexion and shape to the destiny of the country. We had at first proposed to lift into relief the salient features of each of the delineations here brought to the portraiture of the Constitution by its friends and by its enemies; but we soon found that such a detail would lead to the needless multiplication of "stock arguments" on both sides. To the personnel of the Convention it is objected by Melancthon Smith of New York that some of the "characters" who composed it were men "of small consequence," and that "a number were suspected of being great public defaulters and of having been guilty of notorious peculation and fraud." Such charges are specimen flings caught up from the mud and slime of the gutters with which to bespatter at that time the reputations of men like Robert Morris and Thomas Mifflin. Even men so grave and respectable as Richard Henry Lee did not hesitate to express the opinion that the delegates from Pennsylvania were esteemed "aristocratical," and that the other ten States had appointed too many men who were connected with commerce and the legal profession. So it came to pass, argues Lee, that the farming and planting interest of the country had been pushed to the wall. The non-attendance of eight or nine men who had been appointed members of the Convention he pronounces to have been "a very unfortunate event" for the United States.

The friends of the Constitution among these writers, especially in the small States, emphasize the equality of the States in the Senate as a strong point gained for the federative principle and for the protection of separate and historical interests at the North and at the South. Noah Webster scouts the objection brought against the importation of negroes for twenty-one years as being "a very pitiful exception addressed to the Quakers." He argues that the Constitution "has wisely left each State to pursue its own measures, with respect to this article of legislation, during the period of twenty-one years," because "an immediate abolition of slavery would bring ruin upon the whites and misery upon the blacks in the Southern States"; while it is argued by Tench Coxe that in the power to prohibit the importation of negroes after 1808 "a solid foundation is laid for exploding the principles of negro slavery." As might be expected, the Northern defenders of the Constitution among these pamphleteers make light of the concessions to slavery. The Southern defenders of the Constitution either make the most of the same concessions, or touch them with a lenient hand. The Northern opponents of the Constitution (Elbridge Gerry and Melancthon Smith) ignore the topic. Among the Southern opponents of the Constitution, Richard Henry Lee admits that the representation of slaves under the Constitution is a "temptation" offered to the Southern States, while George Mason deplores the toleration of the slave trade for twenty-one years as tending to render the United States "weaker, more vulnerable, and less capable of defence." The tenor of these pamphlets on the subject of slavery would seem, therefore, to lend color to the charge of Luther Martin that in 1787 the people throughout the whole country had declined in their former sensibility to the rights of the negro. While Noah Webster was sneering in Connecticut at Quaker squeamishness on this subject, David Ramsay of South Carolina was writing in his pamphlet that, with negro representation, and with the fresh importation of slaves for twenty-one years, the "influence of the South in the general Government would be constantly increasing," and that in fifty years the Southern States would probably have an ascendancy over the Eastern. The "concession" in favor of the Southern States is pronounced by him to be "immense."

Textual accuracy was of prime obligation in a publication like that of Mr. Ford's, but it has not been always attained. For instance, the pamphlet of Richard Henry Lee is certainly the weightiest of all the utterances against the Constitution in 1787. We justify Mr. Ford in selecting the second imprint of this pamphlet as the one to be reproduced in this volume, but we cannot justify the confidence he has reposed in his copyist or in his proof-reader. The sense of certain passages as written by Lee is sometimes obscured and sometimes destroyed by pure interpolation. Sentences like the following (where we place the interpolations in brackets) will illustrate what we mean: "Acquit me, sir, of any agency in the formation of the new system; I shall be satisfied with seeing, if it shall be adopted, [with] a prudent administration." "An army is [not] a very agreeable place of employment for the young gentlemen of certain families." "It is said that when people make a constitution and delegate powers, that all powers [are] not delegated by them to those who govern, is reserved in the people," At other points whole sentences are obscured or emptied of meaning by the substitution of a wrong word for the right one, as, on page 281, by substituting "with" for "wish"; on page 283, "prosperity" for "posterity"; on page 286, "the federal State governments" for "the several State governments"; on page 301, "import duties" for "impost duties"; on page 313, "made" for "make," etc. In punctuation, also, the sins of omission and commission are not infrequent. The passage on page 321, where the writer refers to a set of men who "are called aristocrats, m——ites, etc., etc.," should have been accompanied with a foot-note explaining that in the first edition of this pamphlet the blank is filled out with the word "morrisites." It was a petty slur of Lee aimed at his political *bête noire*, Robert Morris. The passage as it stands is meaningless to the uninstructed reader.

The title of the copious volume which stands third on our list, though strictly bibliographical, is far from being descriptive of the wealth and variety of its contents. We here have in successive chapters a lively account of the struggle that was had in Pennsylvania over the Constitution; of the well-nigh revolutionary wrangle in the Pennsylvania Assembly over the calling of a State Convention to act on the Constitution; of the state of public opinion in Pennsylvania before the Convention met; of the debate in the Convention; of the public temper while the Convention was sitting and after it rose; to which are added the anti-Federal letters of "Centinel," biographical sketches of the Pennsylvania members of the Federal Convention, similar sketches of the members of the Pennsylvania Convention, and an appendix containing James Wilson's Notes of the Debates on the Constitution in the Pennsylvania Convention, and the Replies made at the time by Robert Morris and Thomas Mifflin to the hoarse diatribes with which they were assailed by "Centinel" and other pamphleteers in 1787.

In no State did the fluctuations of political opinion for and against the Constitution rise higher than in Pennsylvania, while from the comparative vivacity of the newspaper press of Philadelphia, it is safe to say that in no State was the swirl of passions at that crisis so faithfully portrayed in all its froth and foam, as well as in the solidity of the arguments which finally carried conviction to the public mind. The names of Benjamin Franklin, of James Wilson, of Robert Morris, of Gouverneur Morris, of George Clymer, and of Thomas Mifflin are inseparably blended with the great charter of government to which they set their hands. And twenty-four hours after the Continental Congress had submitted the Constitution to the judgment of the States, a crisis on the question of its adoption was precipitated in the Pennsylvania Legislature by the effort of the anti-Federalist minority "to break a quorum," and thereby prevent the call of a Convention, at least with the "hot haste" for which the Federalists were contending. The public temper was at once brought to a white heat by the flames of this angry controversy. The popular hustings and the halls of deliberation resounded with high and low debate, while the columns of the newspapers were kept in a constant state of crepitation by the political squibs and firecrackers which were lightly thrown into the air during this carnival of politics. It is alike from the grave dialectics and from the sometimes festive and sometimes sullen humors of that stirring epoch, that the editors of this volume have compiled their materials. As a picture of the times, its curious interest is exceeded only by its historical value. In turning the pages of the bulky book, which we find none too large, and in delving among the husks and shells here gathered from the kitchen-middens of our post-revolutionary era, we have often been reminded of the "recipe for an anti-Federalist essay," which we once met with in a newspaper of the year 1787. The recipe ran as follows: "Take 'well-born' nine times; 'aristocracy' nine times; 'liberty of the press' thirteen times; 'liberty of conscience' once; 'negro slavery' once; 'trial by jury' seven times; 'great men' six times; 'Mr. Wilson' forty times; and, lastly, 'George Mason's right hand in a cutting box' nineteen times. Put all together, boil or roast or fry, and dish at pleasure. After being once used, the remains of the same dish may be served a dozen times *ad libitum*."

The place assigned in that satirical quip to John Adams's famous phrase about "well-born" people does but faithfully represent the part it plays in the letters of "Centinel," as reproduced in this publication. And the place occupied by "Mr. Wilson" in the *olla podrida* above described does but faithfully represent the conspicuous place he is here shown to have held in the public eye, both among those who supported and those who opposed the adoption of the Constitution. The flavor has long since evaporated from the acrid political badinage and the harsh invective of this volcanic period; but it may still instruct the historic mind in the due proportion of things to find Robert

Morris held up to public ridicule as "Bobby the Cofferer"; to see the sedate Gouverneur Morris whistled down the wind as "Gouvero the Cunning Man"; to recognize the grave figure of Judge James Wilson under the nickname of "Jimmy" or "James de Caledonia"; and to hear the name of Franklin bandied about as "a fool by age," and that of Washington as "a fool by nature." Time, which makes all things even, has certainly wrought its revenges on the rough polemics of 1787; but no time can stale the dignity and worth of the high polemic which James Wilson brought to the defence of the Constitution in the day of its supreme trial. It is pleasant to find his work here placed in its proper historical setting, and to see the justice done to his associates which Elliot has failed to render in his inadequate compilations. And we are glad, too, to have the letters of "Centinel" in their integrity and sequence. "Centinel" is the "Junius" of his time, as well by the virulence of his rhetoric as by reason of the shadow which still veils his name.

The politicians who in the late Presidential canvass appealed so constantly to "British opinion" as entitled to decisive weight in the making up of our judgments on questions of domestic politics, will be pleased to find that they are supported in this species of peasant logic by precedents which are venerable for their antiquity, because dating from the very foundation epoch of our Government. A brief excerpt from one of the newspaper essays reproduced in this volume will show the antiquity of such argumentative humility:

"Look around you, Mr. Oswald, ask the British and other foreign agents their opinion of the new Constitution, and you will find them all open-mouthed, bellowing forth its praises. How could it be otherwise, when its principles are so similar to those of the constitutions of their own respective countries, which they have sucked with their milk? It is well known that all the foreign ministers at New York have declared in favor of this new form of government, and it is suspected that they have not been inactive in endeavoring to bring it about."—*Independent Gazetteer, Oct. 15, 1787.*

The index to the volume is very defective, and must have been made by one of Coleridge's "jelly-bag" order of readers. If one wants to know, for instance, what the volume contains in reference to the constitutional provision for continuing the slave trade till the year 1808, he will find a single reference to page 599. The other and sometimes the more important allusions made to the same topic, on pages 135, 141, 182, 278, 374, 521, etc., receive no attention. No consistent principle seems to have been followed in the digest.

Mr. Walker disarms criticism of his little book by telling the reader that its chief purpose is to provoke somebody to make a more exhaustive examination of the subject than it has yet received. Otherwise we should say that it was written to show how little is known about the New Hampshire Convention of 1788 and how much is known about the Old North Meeting-house in Concord. The history of the latter is minutely traced from the year 1726 down to "the night of Monday, November 28, 1870," when "the purifying angel wrapped her mantle about the old building, and transported it heavenward on wings of flame"; while the history of the former is lightly touched, with brief biographical sketches of the more prominent delegates relegated to footnotes or to the appendix. In the appendix, too, we must look for the report of the "speeches" made in the Convention, and the little we have under this head is rather by way of diminution rom former publications than by way of addition to them. Mr. Walker informs us that he can find no contemporary report of Joshua Atherton's anti-slavery speech as contained in Elliot's compilation, where it figures as "the only speech known to be preserved" concerning the adoption of the Constitution in New Hampshire. We now learn that the abstract of this speech was found "by accident" in 1827, and, while it is probably authentic in point of substance, as representing the known anti-slavery views of the speaker in opposition to the clause of the Constitution which countenanced the slave trade, its genuineness in point of form calls for subsidiary evidence. In some slight recompense for this loss, if loss it be, we have a few paragraphs from a speech of Gen. John Sullivan in defence of the Federal judiciary under the Constitution. It must be admitted that the State which won the honor of putting the keystone to the Federal arch by being the ninth of the States which ratified the Constitution, does not appear to equal advantage in the debates of the time. And this singular honor was gained in June, 1788, only because the Convention declined to ratify the instrument at the session of February in that year.

Mr. Walker might have given a dash of "local color" to his narrative if, in referring to John Langdon and Nicholas Gilman as the delegates of New Hampshire in the Federal Convention at Philadelphia, he had explained the reason of their late attendance in that body, and why they were not joined by their colleagues, John Pickering and Benjamin West. Mr. Madison tells us in one of his letters that it was not because of any backwardness on the part of the State to be represented at Philadelphia, but because "the State Treasury was empty," and the substitution of private resources to meet the exigencies of the case was found inexpedient or impracticable. Nothing could better mark the dead point reached in 1787 under the Articles of Confederation than this significant fact.

"Slavery," says Mr. Walker, "died a natural death in New Hampshire," and was never abolished by statute. He might have added that its abolition by statute was defeated. In 1780, when there were only three or four hundred slaves in the State, on a petition submitted to the Legislature by nineteen negroes praying to be set free, it was solemnly resolved by the House of Representatives, after argument made before it by counsel for the petitioners, "that at this time this House is not ripe for a determination in this matter; therefore, *ordered*, that the further consideration of the matter be postponed to a more convenient opportunity." The facts in the case were recalled many years ago in the *Granite Monthly* (vol. 4, p. 110), and form a subject of remark in the current number of the *Magazine of American History*. Mr. Walker explains that the Federal Constitution received a check in the matter of its adoption at the first session of the Convention, and narrowly escaped rejection at the second, because of the popular repugnance to its provisions conservative of slavery. The people saw how hard it was to extirpate slavery, and did not wish to see it fostered or extended. Yet this State, in the subsequent politics of the country, became perhaps the most stalwart of all the Northern States in defence of slavery under the Constitution. The transition from Joshua Atherton, the anti-slavery and anti Federal leader of 1788, to his grandson, Charles G. Atherton, the defender of the Constitutional rights of slavery and the famous author of "the Atherton gag" in 1838, will measure the moral and political interval between the two epochs. The moral and political change wrought in the national temper and character by the slavery compromises of the Constitution deserves to be considered in any philosophical study of the "sound policy" which dictated the concessions made in 1787 under this head.

Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Excavations. By Rodolfo Lanciani, LL.D., Professor of Archæology in the University of Rome, Director of Excavations, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prof. Lanciani might well have added, as second title to his fascinating book, 'The Romance of Archæological Research,' for rarely has it happened that a work on the dry and fossilized themes of antiquity possessed so much romantic interest as this, and in no wise to the detriment of its scientific authority. Coming as it does from the man who has directed in general the most important of the recent excavations in Rome, and witnessed the resurrection of the most instructive relics of Imperial Rome, as well as traced, in the evidences of its extreme antiquity, the story of the foundation of the city, this volume possesses, together with the freshness of first sight, almost the force of the last word. But, in addition to this, the Professor has succeeded in preserving to an unusual extent the charm which early classical history has for the student of myths and mysteries. The chapter on the "Foundation and Prehistoric Life of Rome" is one of the best and most solid pieces of archæological reconstruction we have had the good fortune to see, put plainly and logically before an unscientific public. As the direct superintendent of the excavations of the Etruscan necropolis, on the discovery of which Prof. Middleton based his important (if well founded) conclusion, that Rome had before being Roman been Etruscan, and as having seen in their unsophisticated state the *pièces de conviction* of this theory, Prof. Lanciani is in a position to confirm or contradict the theory conclusively; and his declaration that "nothing has been found within the last sixteen years, either in the new or in the old quarters of Rome, which can give any foundation" to it, must be accepted as decisive. This decision, too, is in strict accordance with the opinion which must be arrived at by one who goes over the sites of Etruria, and notices the peculiarities of the civic system of defence and construction of that mysterious race which, established in Etruria long before the foundation of Rome, and to a certain extent involved in early Roman history, had not, by the evidence of tradition, extended its power so far as Rome until Porsenna led it there. The position of the city is one which does not answer the conditions of Etruscan polity. We must refer the reader to the book for the demonstration of the soundness of the ancient Roman traditions as to the foundation of their city so far as the general attribution goes, involving the interpretation of the mythological forms which the original and genuine tradition finally assumed under the universal tendency to anthropomorphism and impersonation. In the chapter devoted to this subject, the fullest fascination of archæological research is to be found.

As belonging properly to the preface where Prof. Lanciani puts it, we must, in justice to the "archæological brotherhood" to which he appeals, protest against the language he makes use of in relation to the vandalism which has characterized the operations of the Roman municipality in the extension of the city. Prof. Lanciani says:

"Coming now to our own times, and the controversy lately raised on the so-called destruc-

tion of Rome, I must acknowledge that the sensation we felt when the controversy was opened was one of disgust rather than of sorrow. These pretended revelations of vandalism, these condemnations of operations characterized at first as destruction of Rome, later on as simple transformation or disfigurement, were levelled at men who, for the last seventeen years, have been constantly on the watch to defend, inch by inch, the archæological ground against the princes of finance and speculation, against engineers and contractors, against the daily press."

It is only necessary to go a little further in the same preface, and quote Prof. Lanciani in defence of the scholars and travellers, the men of taste and the men of sentiment, who have, in common with "the daily press," excited his disgust:

"It is impossible to imagine anything more commonplace, and out of keeping, and shabby, and tasteless, than the new quarters which encircle the city of 1870. . . . The lovely districts crossed by the Via Salaria and the Via Nomentana, formerly studded with patrician villas and gardens, overlooking the Campagna, the valley of the Anio, the Sabine and Volscian mountains, have been transformed into an ugly city of five-storied, anti-æsthetic houses, looking more like barracks and barns than like dwellings for the cultivated inhabitants of the metropolis of a great kingdom. The same practice has been followed in building on the Esquiline, the Viminal, and the Quirinal hills, the plains of Testaccio and of Castello, and the outskirts of the city outside the gates S. Lorenzo, Maggiore, S. Giovanni, Angelica, and Portese. . . . It is difficult to decide who is to blame for the present state of things. . . . In my opinion, the blame must be cast especially on the Roman aristocracy, on our noble landowners, unworthy the great names which, to our misfortune, they have inherited; because no sooner did this degenerate race discern the possibility of raising a little money on the magnificent villas which their forefathers had built and laid out for the comfort, health, and welfare of their fellow-citizens, than they did not hesitate one second to sell by the yard, as it were, the glory and pride of their families. We have seen three of them sell the very gardens which surrounded their city mansions, allowing these mansions to be contaminated by the contact of ignoble tenement-houses. . . . It is impossible to give an idea of the cruel persistence with which foliage, vegetation, trees, everything which is green, are persecuted in and around Rome. Public administrations, state, municipality, and private individuals seem to vie with each other in taking the lead of the crusade against the few samples of vegetable life which the *auri sacra fames* of the Roman aristocracy has left standing. When the municipality took possession of the Villa Corsini on the Janiculum to transform it into a public promenade, they began their work by cutting down the great oaks planted by Queen Christine of Sweden, under the pretence that they interfered with the view."

Yet these are the very "pretended revelations of vandalism" which are the basis of the attacks on the Roman municipality, the only and authoritative cause of all, since it has been absolute in all its regulations and prescriptions throughout the period of reconstruction and demolition of Rome. Not a house can be built or pulled down without the approval of its assessors. Its power over the character of the new Rome was as despotic as that of a Roman emperor, and it has used it to perpetrate what can only be characterized as the greatest barbarism of the nineteenth century.

It is pleasanter to follow our author into the region of research. The chapter on the foundation of Rome cannot be epitomized, and the reader must peruse it carefully. The derivation of the name of the city from *rumon*, a stream, as the city by the running water—the etymology and derivation of the names and usages contained in the Roman myth—are matters of the highest interest, but it is difficult to follow Prof. Lanciani's reasoning when he says: "Finally, it was determined that, although the use of iron may have been known in this district before the total extinction of the craters [of the Alban Mount], no iron is to be found inside or near the cinerary urns above described. The tombs consequently belong to the prehistoric age of bronze." Now, the same hut urns of which the Professor has been speaking occur in various parts of Italy, from Vetulonia to Sybaris, from the northern extremity of the Etruscan state to the end of Magna Grecia, and we find them in connection with amber and iron in the earliest Italic tombs yet discovered, and before any samples of "Etruscan or Italo-Greek pottery," such as the Professor describes in connection with these tombs on the Alban Hills, appear. Hence, if "it follows evidently, from these facts, not only that the Alban shepherds of a well-to-do sort imported foreign earthenware, but also that local manufacturers tried to imitate the shape and the style of the imported specimens by moulding their rough cups and flasks with a certain degree of approximation," it also follows that these tombs are not of extreme antiquity; for the introduction of Italo-Greek pottery is not earlier than the seventh century before Christ, nor does the legend of Rome demand that these tombs should be earlier than that, even as expounded by Lanciani. The fact is, that there is great obscurity about the use of iron, not improbably owing to the fact that we do not make the due distinction between iron and steel. Until the method of tempering steel was known, it was of little use as compared with bronze, as it could not be brought to a useful, durable edge as bronze could. But the whole discussion of the subject of the uses of iron and bronze, the sacredness of the latter, and the profanity of the former (pp. 39-43), is very valuable.

We cannot accompany Prof. Lanciani through the whole of his entrancing volume. It is written in a style which, if sometimes inclined to be overflowery, is never obscure, and does not require a previous archæological training to enable the reader to understand it completely, or a knowledge of Rome or archæology to enjoy it thoroughly. Some faulty idioms and expressions are pardonable in an Italian, *e. g.*, "the finest libraries of the first three centuries of *Christendom*," where Christianity is meant. There is an occasional lapse like this in the contradiction between pages 241 and 301: the huge block of marble in the Colonna gardens is said in the former to be of twenty-seven tons weight, and in the latter of "upwards of one hundred tons."

Memoir of George Edmund Street, R.A., 1824-1881. By his son, Arthur Edmund Street. London: Murray. 1888. Pp. 441.

GEORGE EDMUND STREET was one of the architects in England best known to foreigners, partly because of the important buildings he erected on the Continent of Europe, such as the Memorial Church at Constantinople, the English Church at Genoa, and the American churches at Paris and at Rome, and partly because of the London Law Courts, a building whose record has filled the newspapers for many a year past. He was a designer of the more original sort, artistically-minded rather than of mechanical or engineering tendencies. He was also an ecclesiologist of great devotion and enthusiasm. An architect of such gifts and tendencies who succeeds in gaining popular favor is pretty sure to be heard of, as his works are of the sort which cause discussion and the urging of contrary opinions.

The balance of such contrary opinions would have been, however, most unusually favorable to Street but for the amazing ill-success as a practical building of his most costly and most famous production, the Law Courts on the Strand. It is quite unmatched in the way of inconvenience and clumsiness; crowded, and yet abounding in waste room; having an immense and lofty central hall, and yet awkward in communications and cramped in stairs and lobbies; badly ventilated, badly lighted, badly arranged. As to its artistic quality, there are different opinions, but assuredly hostile criticisms are invited even to the exterior when it is observed that the unusual character of its frontage on street or on courtyard, with its irregularity, its uneven sky-line, its advancings and retreatings, ups-and-downs and ins-and-outs, so strange in a modern city, and so unexpected-looking in a crowded and unpicturesque one, are all of no service at all to the plan and distribution, which remain as bad as if everything had been sacrificed to monumental uniformity and balance. One feature it has, in view of which an enthusiast in pointed architecture would forgive, if he could, all the rest—its noble hall, one of the most beautiful and impressive interiors in the European world, ancient or modern. It is so fine in proportion and in detail that it rises out of all comparison with the modern interiors that we see elsewhere, and demands a rank with King's College Chapel or the nave of a great French cathedral; and yet it is only the main corridor of a mass of building that stretches away on three sides of it, many-storied and vast.

The gifts shown in this are shown also, though not often so clearly, in his smaller buildings, especially in the very numerous churches which Street erected in England. What is often called the Victorian architecture—a modified Gothic, distinguished by a liberal grafting of Italian details upon what is mainly an English plan and general disposition of parts—is perhaps at its best in his hands. It may not be permanently classed among the true architectures of the world, and it seems to be leading to nothing better; but nothing else in European lands and in our time comes as near to being an architectural style, and therefore it is a notable phenomenon. Street's smaller churches are his best work. He excels in daily and familiar tasks: when there is need to "rise to the occasion" he perhaps always fails, in a more or less noticeable fashion, and one should study his scores of parish churches to learn to do him justice.

The bent of Street's mind was towards mediævalism. Probably he would not have become an architect, or, if started in that career, would not have succeeded greatly in it, but for the coincidence of his beginning of independent work with the second decade of the Gothic revival and its rapid advance. As a mediævalist and as an ecclesiologist, he suited the times, and the times called for him. As a designer of unusual delicacy and grace of fancy, he was able to go far beyond his predecessors, and notably the more celebrated ones, as Pugin and Scott, in recommending the revived pointed style to those who asked for art rather than archæology. It would be quite true to say of him that he was rather a student of mediæval art than an architect. We cannot imagine him as consenting, as Scott did, to design a classical building for a Committee which said plainly, "You are our architect if you will work in the Italian style; it is settled that we will not have Gothic—Lord Palmerston will not hear of it." It would be perfectly fair to say of him that he was more a high-churchman than an architect, and that he never seems at home outside of the ecclesiastical work to which he gave the most of his life.

But one gift he had which helped make of

a churchman and a dainty ornamentalist a productive builder—power of hard work. No man ever devoted himself to the fine arts more willing or able than Street to work all day, and all night too, upon occasion. The practice of an architect in a large way of business demands this more often than most other pursuits, because of the multiplicity of details incapable of being passed upon in the lump, and needing separate examination and decision. The banker, who boasts that his day's work is always done with the day, that when he shuts his portfolio at night there is never a letter in it unanswered or an order unprovided for, talks much at his ease. His work can be done in that way; it is capable of being done by employees, and needs the chief only to cut the knots of indecision here and there, and to say *how* it shall be. But the drawings for an elaborate piece of architectural ornament are never done until the work itself is begun. They cannot be made good enough, they cannot be perfected; always there are improvements that might be made. If the principal himself were able to make them all, down to minute details, that would be better. A day's work on them hardly shows: and when the drawing-boards are covered up at night, the golden hours of the day have added only here and there an additional feature, or perhaps have introduced into the design some peculiarities which require to-morrow to be spent in getting rid of them. For such a profession as this, Street was admirable. He was indefatigable; he saw to details, he considered every part of every design as his own work. The practice among busy architects of turning over to their subordinates whole branches of their general work or whole sets of drawings, reserving only their veto and the right of suggestion—this was foreign to Street's ways. It was told of him that he was commonly absent from his office during the day, that his younger draughtsmen saw little of him; but that, on coming to their half-done drawings in the morning, they would find them covered with sketched and often even elaborated modifications and written directions—more than a day's work marked out for them in advance.

In this thorough-going way Street worked from 1850 to 1881, when he died. It is on the whole an exemplary life of toil and achievement which his son had to record, and about it he has written the most ill-arranged, jumbled and rambling book that can be imagined. Nothing can be found in it by chronological order or by subject: there is a small index, but of course not opening up the whole book. Only a few of Street's buildings are mentioned in the text, and the table at the end of the book gives no dates. It is, in short, very inadequate as a biography, or as an account of the English Gothic revival, as seen from the standpoint of one of its foremost champions. Its tone of constant apology, and the uniform use of the title "my father" for the subject of the memoir, are vexatious to the reader. Thus carelessly made, it is unworthy of its subject, and unsatisfactory to any one interested in the man, his work, or his era.

About one-quarter of the volume is an appendix consisting of a series of five lectures, delivered by Street to the architectural students of the Royal Academy in 1881.

The Story of Mediæval France, from the Reign of Hughes Capet to the Beginning of the Eighteenth Century. By Gustave Masson, B.A. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888. 8vo, pp. 454.

THE title-page of this volume contains a misprint. The story does not end with the beginning of the *eighteenth*, but of the *sixteenth* century, with the death of Louis XII. The history of France is so important, from its central and leading position among nations, the long continuance of its national life, and the picturesqueness and interest of its annals, that it well merits a divided treatment, by which mediæval France and modern France should have each a volume to itself. Even as it is, the history of mediæval France has been shortened; for the independent life of the nation may be said to begin in reality, not with the accession of the Capetian house, but with the division of the empire among the grandsons of Charles the Great.

The style of the writer is not distinguished for graphic quality, but he has enlivened his narration with a large number of incidents and of illustrative extracts in prose and verse (for the interpretation of which a glossary is added, although a translation always accompanies them). The book is distinguished, however, as the author's reputation would lead us to expect, for its scholarly accuracy, and it contains many details that every student will be glad to have in this accessible form. For example, we have not merely an excellent chronological table, in three columns—Political Events, The Church, Science and Literature—but following it a copious list of sources, a list of Chancellors, some tables of Genealogy, and a tabular view of the States-General. The text itself abounds in valuable items of unfamiliar information. We are surprised to find (p. 72) the common story that King John of England was condemned for the murder of his nephew Arthur, when M. Bémont appears to have proved (see *Nation*, December 30, 1886) that the only formal condemnation, to the forfeiture of his fiefs, was on the complaint of the nobles of Poitou, before the death of Arthur. The view taken, moreover, of the Capitulary of Kiersy (p. 5) that it sanctioned "the hereditary transmission of landed property and of all charges, offices, and positions of trust," seems to us quite exaggerated. We would not go to the extreme of some German writers, who seem practically to deny to this capitulary any influence upon institutions; but it certainly was purely temporary and local in its immediate scope, and while it is of the highest value as a landmark and an indication of the drift of events, it cannot be said to have *legislated* the hereditary transmission either of property or of office.

The illustrations are of the best type, the portraits being especially interesting, and the maps are highly to be commended. The proof-reading, however, has not been first-rate. The map of "France Before the Crusades" prints *Lgs* for *Lys*, and *Rouersue* for *Rouergue*, and places Lyons far from its true locality. On page 209 the date 1343 is given for 1363.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. 1889. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Arm-Chair Essays. By the Author of Three-Cornered Essays. Scribner & Welford.
Arnold, A. S. The Story of Thomas Carlyle. Scribner & Welford.
Ashton, J. Men, Maidens, and Manners a Hundred Years Ago. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Bachmann, Rev. John. Letters and Memories of his Life. Charleston, S. C.: Walker, Evans and Cogswell Co.
Barrie, J. M. When a Man's Single: A Tale of Literary Life. Harper & Bros.
Bellamy, C. J. A Moment of Madness. A. L. Burt. 25 cents.
Besant—Palmer. Jerusalem, the City of Herod and Saladin. New ed. Scribner & Welford.
Brine, Mary D. Grandma's Memories. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. IX. The Ring and the Book. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Chailley, J. Sully: Economies Royales. Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.
Edkins, Dr. J. The Evolution of the Chinese Language. Trübner & Co.
Fotheringham, J. Studies in the Poetry of Robert Browning. Scribner & Welford.
Garnett, E. The Paradox Club. Scribner & Welford.
Geikie, Rev. C. A Short Life of Christ, for Old and Young. Illustrated. James Pott & Co.
Gratacap, L. P. The Analytics of a Belief in a Future Life. James Pott & Co.
Holden, W. Autobiography of Love. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Huish, M. B. Japan and its Art. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Lawlace, W. M. The Japanese Wedding. Harold Roorbach. 25 cents.
Liggins, Rev. J. The Great Value and Success of Foreign Missions, Proved by Distinguished Witnesses. The Baker and Taylor Co. 75 cents.
Mahaffy—Rogers. Sketches from a Tour through Holland and Germany. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Marryat, Capt. Mr. Midshipman Easy. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Marryat, Capt. Peter Simple. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
McLean, Sally Pratt. Lastchance Junction: A Novel. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Morgan, A. The Bankside Shakespeare. III. The Merchant of Venice. The Shakespeare Society of New York.
Nery, F. J. de Santa-Anna. Folk-Lore Brésilien. Paris: Perrin & Cie.
Perry, Carlotta. Poems. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Renan, E. Histoire du Peuple d'Israël. Tome Deuxième. B. Westermann & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 24, 1889.

The Week.

THE action of the Senate doubling the duty on tin-plate is, on the whole, the greatest outrage of recent years in tariff legislation. It is an act to increase the price of every article that comes from the hands of the tinsmith. Almost every town has its worker in tin, who produces articles of household need—pans, pails, cups, baking utensils, cake-cutters, toys, etc. An immense quantity goes into the manufacture of cans for vegetables, fruits, fish, oysters, and condensed milk. Another large industry dependent upon tin-plate is that of roofing. To say that this industry is far greater than that of tin-plate manufacturing would be a very feeble statement, since there is not a tin-plate factory in the country. There is one establishment in western Pennsylvania whose owners would like to make tin-plate if they could have the privilege of taxing the tinsmiths, the canneries, the roofers, and their customers to a sufficient extent, they being the judges of what is sufficient. So gross an outrage will not go unpunished. The workers in tin and the consumers of tin are alive to their own interests, and will make themselves heard and felt. We should have not the least hesitation in making tin-plate the basis and groundwork of the next national election for members of Congress. We welcome the issue heartily, and we challenge Messrs. Allison, Aldrich, and the rest to enact their tin-plate duty if they can, either in this Congress or the next, and go before the country on it.

The imposition or the raising of a duty on an article for the purpose, not of encouraging an existing native manufacture but of calling a native manufacture into existence, is an absolutely new departure in American protection. Mr. Allison explained, on behalf of the Committee, why this addition to the price of the workingman's domestic utensils was made. The doubling of the duty, if the imports remained the same, would increase the revenue by about $6,000,000 annually, and this is to be done on the mere "assurance" of certain persons that they will before long begin the manufacture of tin-plate in this country on a scale sufficient to meet the domestic demand. We do not believe that the Government has ever before entered into a transaction of this sort without exacting security. Everybody else with whom it has dealings—contractors, importers, accounting officers, cashiers, treasurers, any one whom it trusts in the smallest degree—has to give approved bonds for the performance of his engagements. But here an enormous tax is imposed on the poor, in return for the vague "assurance" of certain capitalists whose names are not given, who would be at liberty to change their minds at any time, and not go into the tin-plate manufacture at all, particularly as there appears to be no steadiness in the price of the foreign article. It has been falling for years, and may fall still further so as to make the proposed protection inadequate. We imported in 1887 five times as much of it as in 1871, and the value was only twice as much, showing a decrease of more than half in the cost. The manufacturers who have persuaded the Senate to pass this bill ought to have given security in at least double the estimated amount of the tax, for the creation of the manufacture by a day named, and its regular continuance for an adequate period thereafter.

Few people have any conception of the hidden iniquities of the bill just passed by the Senate. For example, the classification of certain articles of steel, hitherto dutiable at 45 per cent. and 30 per cent. respectively, has been changed. Such changes are always open to suspicion, because it is here that the tariff cracksmen work in the dark. Following an example set by Senator Allison, who, some years ago, made a remarkable exhibit of a similar fraud sought to be perpetrated on the consumers of iron and steel by a change of classification in a tariff bill, we have obtained from an expert in the trade a translation or interpretation of sections 144–147 of the present bill. These sections embrace steel hoops, cotton ties, steel plates and sheets, and a few other articles of common use. For example, duties on steel hoops of various sizes are advanced 28, 30, 37, and 42 per cent. respectively over the present rates. On cotton ties the advance is 55 per cent., on tagger's iron (tin plates) 41 per cent., on steel sheets of various sizes 19, 21, and 26 per cent. respectively. It should be borne in mind that the natural protection due to freight, commissions, insurance, etc., is from 10 to 15 per cent. in addition to the tariff protection. This is a small, very small, part of the iniquity embraced in the bill. In the pocket-cutlery section, duties are raised in some cases as high as 330 per cent., and in the section relating to breech-loading guns, the range is from 35 to 303 per cent., the highest duties being on the lowest-priced articles used by the poorer classes. We do not know that any comment on these facts is called for, except that it is for the public interest, in the large view, that the protected classes, whose mastery over the Republican party is now so complete, should show their hand. Every step they take in the direction of higher duties forces on the battle that must and will be fought out.

The Senate has proceeded from bad to worse in its treatment of the duties on wool, and its latest action would seem to imply an intention to destroy the carpet industry entirely in order to placate the wool-growers. We cannot say that we have any serious objections to this course. The carpet manufacturers have all along agreed with the wool-growers that a system of mutual robbery was good for trade. They have joined in all the schemes up to the present time for restricting foreign commerce. They have proclaimed that the rate of wages depended on the tariff, and have supported all the other protectionist humbugs of the day. Consequently, they are entitled to no sympathy when the hot end of the poker is extended to them. So far as they are concerned, we should not be troubled if the importation of carpet wools were made an offence punishable by death. We are tending that way pretty fast. If the maxims now in vogue in the Senate are correct, why should not all importations be made criminal offences? Carpet wools are not produced in this country. If wages are made higher by restricting importations, why not prohibit them altogether, and thus raise everybody's wages to infinity? The wool schedule, as first reported by the Senate Committee, increased the duties on clothing and combing wools one cent per pound. As the former duty was ten cents per pound, the increase was equal to 10 per cent. upon the existing rate. The duty on carpet wool was left unchanged. The amendment brought forward by the Committee on Monday evening and adopted adds another cent to the duty on combing wool, and raises the duty on carpet wool from two and one-half cents to four cents per pound, so that the increase in the former is equal to 20 per cent., and in the latter 60 per cent upon the present rate.

Senator Sherman, in the course of his remarks supporting the sugar bounty, said that there was good reason to expect a large increase in the production of sugar from beets and sorghum if the proposed bounty of one cent per pound were allowed. He so inferred from the results obtained by the bounty system in Germany and France. At the same time he observed that the duty on imported sugar had been reduced one-half, in the interest of the consumer. He looked to the double stimulus of a protective duty on the one hand and a direct bounty on the other as likely to yield the happiest results in the rapid increase of domestic sugar-production. There was, as is usual in the speeches of the Ohio Senator when his reasoning will not bear close analysis, a good deal left to the imagination of the hearer and the reader. The present duty on raw sugar is 2 cents per pound, or a trifle more. The average rate of duty the past year was 2.08 cents. Since the domestic production of sugar is a mere trifle in the whole mass consumed, it follows that the present bounty on sugar grown in Louisiana, Texas, California, Kansas, Vermont, or elsewhere is exactly the amount of the duty, viz.: 2.08 cents. The Government collects this sum on what is imported, and the planter collects it on what

he produces. Now, the Senate bill reduces the duty on the imported article one-half—that is, 1.04 cent. per pound—and offers a direct bounty of one cent to the domestic producer, and we are told that this transaction is to be a great stimulus to the production of sugar. The sugar-market is to be lowered one cent per pound in the interest of the consumer, and then one cent per pound is to be paid out of the public treasury to the American producer ; and this is called a stimulus.

It appears to us that, instead of being stimulated, the domestic producer is depressed by exactly the amount of the trouble, delay, and expense involved in collecting the bounty. At present he collects the whole of the two cents per pound by the mere sale of his crop; but, under the bounty plan, he must prove his claim, and wait for his money till the Government is ready to pay. The services of a broker will be necessary, as they are in the collection of drawbacks, and such services have to be paid for. In the case of a small crop – and all individual crops of beet and sorghum will be small—the cost of collecting the bounty will be a pretty large share of the bounty itself. In any case, the two items of duty and bounty will be less than the present duty when it reaches the pocket of the producer. All the money paid in the way of bounty, except an inconsiderable fraction, will go to the Louisiana planters. Instead of being stimulated, even they will be worse off than they are now. The example of Germany is not at all to the point, because the bounty in Germany is a bounty on exportation, and not on the product consumed at home. The country produces more than it consumes. The bounty is paid on the surplus, and it is to this extent a real bounty, and not a fictitious or imaginary one.

Near the close of the Presidential campaign the Boston *Post* published the following statement, which was extensively copied in the press, but which most people have probably forgotten :

> "It has been whispered around Wall Street for several days that Tom Platt, through various agents, and particularly Mr. John Wanamaker of Philadelphia, has made many pressing appeals to four land-grant railroads for a large sum of money, to be used by the Republican managers in this city for election purposes. The railroads mentioned are the Union Pacific, Central Pacific, Northern Pacific, and Atlantic and Pacific, and the sum mentioned is $350,000. There is good authority for saying that this request was presented to President Adams of the Union Pacific for that company's share, and by him indignantly refused."

There is no suggestion here of an offer of the Interior Department to the railroads in question in return for the money asked for ; nor is there any suggestion of impropriety in the premises, except such as may be inferred from the fact that $350,000 is a very large sum of money to be used honestly in the last week of a campaign, and that corporations having close relations to the Government do not usually pay their money without the expectation of a *quid pro quo*. It has never been charged that the railroads paid this or any other sum to Platt, or to Wanamaker, or to anybody. The matter had passed out of recollection until recalled by the Platt-Bateman correspondence, in which the scandalous item relating to the Interior Department is for the first time seen in print.

The sensitiveness of Mr. Platt on the subject strikes us as remarkable, since he usually presents a very tough exterior to a censorious world. Anybody who reflects much upon the correspondence between Platt and Bateman must wonder what Platt would have done if Bateman had admitted that he did say the things imputed to him by the Cincinnati *Enquirer's* interviewer, namely, that Platt offered the position of Secretary of the Interior to the railroads for a sum of money for the Republican campaign fund. Bateman neither denies nor affirms that he said this. He merely says that some parts of the interview are correct, and some parts incorrect, and that he does not attach any credence to the story about the Interior Department. But what if he did attach credence to it ? Would Mr. Platt sue him for slander, and appeal to a jury of his countrymen ? Or would he apply to Mr. John Wanamaker for an authoritative denial ? The latter course would be the most expeditious and convincing, because Mr. Wanamaker must know all about it. Moreover, Mr. Wanamaker is an admirer of Platt on broad moral grounds. He so declared himself in Philadelphia a few days ago. It is much to be regretted that Mr. Bateman did not say squarely that he did repeat the Wall Street gossip imputed to him by the *Enquirer*. The question whether he believed it or not is immaterial. In fact, Platt did not ask him whether he believed it, but only whether he said it; and this question Mr. Bateman has not yet answered.

The *Tribune* lays it down that Judge Woods's instruction to the Grand Jury in the Dudley case "turns merely upon a construction of the statute, and has no more to do with the moral character of the Dudley letter than with the tenets of the Koran." It has this to do with "the moral character of the Dudley letter," that it withdrew the moral character of the letter from the consideration of a jury—an effect which it did not have and could not have on "the tenets of the Koran." The instruction is very unfortunate, not simply because it enables Dudley to escape trial, but because it is one of the little things occurring every now and then to shake popular confidence in the judiciary. Judge Woods decided first that Dudley, if he wrote the letter, had committed a legal offence. He then decided a few weeks later, on the same state of facts, that Dudley had not committed a legal offence. The effect of this last decision was, not to find Dudley guilty, or to inflict a penalty on him, but to prevent his being tried at all. Both opinions may have been and doubtless were perfectly honest; but popular mistrust is naturally aroused by the fact that Dudley's conviction would have great political importance, and might lead to disclosures of a very scandalous character, and that therefore a very large body of influential and rich men have an interest of the strongest kind in preventing his indictment and trial. It is, of course, unfortunate that the mass of mankind should be suspicious ; but so they are, and are likely to remain—a circumstance which doubtless first furnished the material for that time honored warning against "the appearance of evil."

The lower branch of the Kansas Legislature has adopted a resolution that will make the Cobden Club and the London *Times* quake in their English boots. On the motion of Mr. Poe, it was resolved, and carried unanimously, that "the Committee on State Affairs be directed to ascertain and report whether it is a fact that the British doctrine of free trade is being taught at the State University at Lawrence; if so, by whom; and that it be reported, by bill or otherwise, what, if any, legislation is necessary to abolish the English titles of Lord Chancellor, Dean, and Regents, and substitute in lieu thereof the American titles of Professor and Trustees for the officers of said institution, and for all other State institutions of the State of Kansas to which British titles are given by the laws of the State." There is, we think, some mistake about the title "Lord Chancellor." We feel pretty sure the head of the university is called simply "Chancellor," but this is bad enough, heaven knows. For the titles "Dean" and "Regent" we have not a word to say: they ought to go, but so ought the term "University," which is also of English origin, and is now in constant use in England as the name for a seat of learning. "Whatyoumaycallit" would be better. Against the proposal to continue the use of the terms "Professor" and "Trustee," as also British, we hereby record our respectful protest. There is only one way to avoid the corrupting influence of English terms in collegiate nomenclature, and that is to invent wholly new ones. For instance, "Thingembob" would not be a bad name for the head of the university, while "Pals" would be an admirable democratic appellation for the subordinate teachers, and the governing body might be called "Mandarins" or "Daimios," thus wholly avoiding the European taint. As to the teaching of "British free trade," we would not touch it by law, through fear of driving it underground. All civilized States have had trouble with "pernicious doctrines," and have found that persecution was the way to spread them. If free-trade teaching is prohibited in a State "Whatyoumaycallit," it would probably be carried on in the nighttime in cellars or caves, or in the recesses of the forests and mountains. Mr. Poe must remember the trouble which Bloody Mary and Louis XIV. had with the Protestants.

Archbishop Corrigan's circular, making attendance at "anti-poverty" meetings "a reserved case," has given for the moment new life to the anti-poverty agitation. Dr. McGlynn's speech was listened to on Sunday night by an immense audience, and his defiance of the Archbishop was tremendously applauded. The circular is said to have been respectfully read as ordered in all the churches, except that of Father Ducey, who is a fashionable divine of the Mgr. Capel order, and appears to be attached to the Church only by slender ligaments. He read the circular with sarcastic comments. Of course there is not any doubt as to the final result. Nothing could enable McGlynn to stand up against the Church but marked progress in the abolition of poverty. This, we admit, would, in all human probability, make him too much for the Archbishop, the Pope, and the Cardinals. The man who abolishes poverty will exert such power over the souls of men as the world has never seen in human hands, and will probably be the object of some form of worship. What makes McGlynn weak in his present struggle, therefore, is not so much the might of the Church, great as that is, as his failure to make any impression on poverty. If the attendants at the anti-poverty meetings were visibly improving in their circumstances, we verily believe the movement would take proportions which would compel the Church to surrender to him. As matters stand, the Doctor has to face every day a full exposure of his incapacity, in the empty pockets of his followers.

The news from Samoa via San Francisco represents a degree of enmity against the American flag on the part of the German sailors and their native allies that we did not suppose existed in any part of the world. According to these accounts, the Germans take the greatest delight in tearing down American flags, and making bonfires of them, while their Samoan friends, known as "Tamasese's men," actually break open houses in order to find American flags for the purpose of cutting them in pieces. An outrage of this kind, as we were informed, was sternly rebuked by the commander of the American man-of-war *Adams*, who shortly afterwards sailed to Honolulu—perhaps to make his report and call for reinforcements. It would be well, we think, while digesting these exciting incidents, to reflect that the German Government has passed the stage of barbarism, and is presumably no more inclined to insult the United States gratuitously than we should be to insult her in like circumstances.

The anxiety in France about the election which is to take place in Paris on the 27th, seems to increase as the day draws near. The last news is that the Conservatives, after much discussion and hesitation, have resolved to support Boulanger. The opinion seems to gain ground that he will win. It is generally conceded that if he does, his election will be followed by his nomination for other vacancies, and that, in short, there will be a crisis which will hasten a dissolution of the Chambers and a general election, under conditions much more exciting than that of 1878, which resulted in the final overthrow of the Monarchists. Should the Boulangists carry a majority of the seats, as they may well do, although Republican forms might survive, the Republic would be virtually at an end. Boulanger would stand in much the same relation to the Chambers as Julius Cæsar or Cæsar Augustus to the Roman Senate. No matter what bills were introduced, his will would really be the law. He still maintains stoutly that all he asks for is a revision of the Constitution, which is said to mean that he wishes to substitute the American for the English system in the relations of the Executive to the Legislature—that is, to make the Ministers' tenure of office independent of the votes of the Chamber.

Curiously enough, the same demand begins to make itself heard in Australia, where, as in England, the Ministers are responsible to the Legislature, with incessant resulting changes. An article in the last *Nineteenth Century* on "Australian and English Politics," by Mr. Beckett, an English member of Parliament, quotes the Attorney-General of Victoria, "a very able and clear-sighted man," as saying:

> "Our Parliament is threatened with that paralysis that is creeping over all English legislatures from the House of Commons downwards. Useless motions for adjournment, aimless and endless discussions, and senseless stonewalling [obstruction] too often block practical business. If the disease is not eradicated, it would seem to indicate that they are growing towards the American system, under which the Executive is taken out of the Legislature altogether, and the Legislature confined to the business of making laws only, and not making and unmaking governments."

The writer says that although "the American system is not altogether lovely and pleasant," nevertheless it must be introduced if the union of administrative and legislative functions in the same person be found impracticable. "The business of the Legislature," he says, "is to legislate, to pass laws, not to worry Ministers; to frame statutes, not to overthrow Cabinets." The French political malady could hardly be better described.

The fact that so few of the poor in French cities are legally married, and that consequently so large a proportion of the children of the poor are illegitimate, is agitating reformers in France, much as the refusal or failure of the poor to go to church is agitating them here. In considering what had better be done to make marriage easy, of course the numerous and somewhat expensive legal formalities have come under review. One of these is the obligation under which French couples labor to obtain the consent of their parents, and, if it be refused, to dispense with it by serving on them three "sommations respectueuses," or respectful summonses, proof of which must be supplied to the officer performing the legal ceremony. The amendment herein proposed will excite a smile in most Anglo-Saxon communities—that the required number of "sommations" should be reduced by two in the case of girls over twenty-one and of men over twenty-five. We presume this is based on the assumption that many couples would prefer lawful wedlock if they had not the bother of so many times summoning their parents to consent. The trouble, however, as everybody knows, lies much deeper. That marriage is the luxury of the well-to-do, rather than a condition of purity or respectability, has become a fixed tradition among the French poor. They will take no trouble and go to no expense about it if they cannot do it in good bourgeois fashion. Illegitimate unions are to them conditions, not of sin, but of poverty, very much as failure to take a wedding-trip would be here. It would take something far more serious than a reform in the marriage laws to bring them to look on marriage as a necessity.

The result of the election in the Govan division of Lanarkshire, in which the Gladstonians have won the seat from the Conservatives by a large majority, shows that the predictions which Mr. Goschen, Lord Hartington, and Lord Salisbury have all made in their recent visit to Scotland, that she was gradually falling away from Home Rule, were due rather to hope than to knowledge. All that is really known about the Scotch constituencies indicates that the hold of the Liberals there is growing stronger rather than weaker. As to the cause of this, of course opinions differ; but that Mr. Balfour's course in Ireland, however much it may satisfy those who approved of it in the beginning, is making any converts to Liberal-Unionism, there appears to be no sign. On the contrary, it is, apparently owing in part to the sneering tone both of Mr. Balfour and his chief, inflaming the temper of the Radicals and stimulating their propagandism.

The publication of the indictment found against Dr. Geffcken shows clearly enough that the attack on Sir Robert Morier was inspired by Bismarck himself, because it charges that Morier was in the confidence of Roggenbach and Geffcken as a friend of the Emperor Frederick when they were preparing the diary for publication. The indictment does not resemble our common-law indictments in containing only legal charges. In countries under the civil law, the evidence is put in as well as the charge, and the indictment becomes in reality a long narrative, somewhat resembling our campaign handbooks, in which the other side is "arraigned" for all sorts of things, of varying degrees of probability. Geffcken's indictment is probably more prolix than usual, as it has been used as a means of enabling Bismarck "to get even" with the whole of the Emperor Frederick's set. Morier has been hit harder than any one, but not harder than such a brutal old journalist as the Prince seems to be, would think legitimate.

SWORN PUBLICATION OF CAMPAIGN EXPENSES.

THE advocates of reform in our election methods reached a practically unanimous conclusion early in their discussions, that the wisest course to pursue was to proceed step by step rather than to endeavor to accomplish all that was desirable at one and the same time. They concluded that the first step was to secure a secret and uninfluenced ballot, and that the only way by which this could be obtained would be by taking the printing and distributing of the ballots out of the hands of the political organizations, and putting it exclusively in the hands of the State. This would take away the main excuse for the use of large sums of money in elections; for if the State pays all the election expenses, there will be no excuse for heavy assessments upon candidates. It was thought that, when this ballot-reform legislation had been secured, it would be natural and comparatively easy to secure, as the next step in the reform, a comprehensive law limiting the expenditures of candidates and requiring a sworn statement of all such expenditures after election.

The wisdom of confining the discussion to ballot-reform legislation has been vindicated by the results. It may be said with strict accuracy that public sentiment has already been sufficiently educated to the necessity of this part of the reform to secure its adoption by every State in the Union within a few years. Perhaps Gov. Hill realized this when he hastened to put himself on record in favor of the next step in the reform, by advocating in his message the enactment of some law requiring the publication of campaign expenses by candidates after election. At all events, his recommendation was a commendable one, and in preparing a bill on the lines of it Mr. Crosby has performed a useful public service. He has not, it must be admitted, drawn a measure which is adequate to the demands of the subject, but he has made a starting-point from which progress in the right direction is certain to be made.

Mr. Crosby's bill simply provides that every candidate for public office shall, within ten days after his election, file with the Secretary of State an itemized statement of all moneys contributed or spent by him and all debts incurred in aid of his election; and whenever such expenditures or debts are made or incurred through an agent, a similar statement of the agent's transactions shall be filed. In case of failure to file such statement or statements, the candidate is liable to a fine not exceeding $1,000, and is forbidden to enter upon the duties of his office or to receive any salary or emolument. Several serious defects are at once apparent in this measure. One is, that there is no limit placed to the expenditures by candidates. Another is, that there is no penalty prescribed for filing false statements. Still another, and the most serious of all, is, that the provision depriving a candidate of his office, in case of failure to comply with the law, is in all probability unconstitutional.

The broad, general trouble with the bill is that it attempts to deal with a very momentous and complicated question in too brief a manner. We cannot break up a system which is at once so widespead and so insidious in its ramifications as the use of money in elections, by enacting a law of only three short sections. The English Corrupt Practices Act, which abolished the use of money in elections in England, contains seventy sections and five schedules of many sections each, and no part of it has been found to be superfluous. As one of its most intelligent expounders says of it: "It is pervaded by two principles. The first is, to strike hard and home at corrupt practices; the second is, to prohibit by positive legislation any expenditure in the conduct of an election which is not absolutely necessary." These two principles are applied with the greatest minuteness. Not merely is bribery forbidden, but every conceivable form of bribery or undue influence is defined and the penalty fixed. The maximum amount of expenditure which each candidate can make is named proportionate to the size of his constituency. This sum must cover all expenses—printing, postage, room-rent, clerk-hire, every thing. All disbursements must be made by one person, either the candidate himself or his agent. If he employs an agent, he cannot disburse a farthing himself, but must leave it all to the agent. An account with vouchers must be kept of all expenditures, and returned under oath to the proper officers after election. Any person found guilty of an "illegal practice" is liable to a fine of £100 and five years' incapacity for voting, while a candidate guilty by himself or his agent loses his seat, and is disqualified for sitting for the same constituency, in the former case for seven years, in the latter during the existing Parliament. Minor offences of illegal payment, etc., are liable to a fine of £100. Any candidate whose expenditures exceed the maximum limit loses his seat.

It will be seen at a glance what a difference there is between the specific provisions of the English Act and the general prohibitory provisions of Mr. Crosby's measure. No general prohibitory law against bribery, or any other method of using money to influence elections unduly, has ever been worth the paper it was written on. We have had them on our statute-books in every State for years, and they are all dead letters. The English Act, on the contrary, has accomplished its object. It destroyed bribery at a single blow, and it so reduced the use of money in elections that the total expenditures dropped from $15,000,000 to less than $4,000,000 in the first election held under the law; and in the latest election under it the expenditures were only about one-half of the maximum allowed by law.

Of course, the worst evil we have to meet here is that of the "assessments" upon candidates. These are made, not upon him after his nomination, but before it and as the price of it. Under Mr. Crosby's bill a candidate who had been "assessed," and had paid $20,000 for his nomination, could file a sworn statement which could truthfully omit all mention of this $20,000, for it would represent no expense incurred in his election. Probably the only way to reach this assessment evil would be a provision in the law requiring every successful candidate to take an oath before entering upon office, that he had paid no assessment and incurred no debt of any kind in any way either to secure a nomination or an election. Such a requirement, with a sworn statement of expenditures, with heavy penalties for failure to make it or for false swearing in making it, would go far to break up the practice. But this, like all other provisions of such a law, requires the most careful thought and deliberation. Nothing would please the political corruptionists more than to have an inadequate law, which would be of no effect in practice, passed at this time; for it would tend to delay the passage of an adequate law, and, by its failure, to bring ridicule upon the advocates of the reform as mere "theorists" whose ideas never amount to anything in practice.

A "RIGOROUS" OHIO POLICY WANTED.

THE question of Gen. Harrison's "policy towards the South" has been much discussed by the Republican press, and there has been no little speculation as to whether it would be "rigorous" or "conciliatory," and as to what he would "insist" should be done in that part of the country. Recent events force to the front another question—What will be the new President's policy towards Ohio?

The last Ohio Legislature, more than twenty years after the close of the war, abolished the "black laws," discriminating against the negroes, which had until that time remained upon the statute-book, and thus opened the public schools of the State to white and black children alike. During this period of more than twenty years, it must be remembered, the Republican politicians of Ohio had been trying to force upon the Southern States through Congress legislation which would do away with all race discrimination, in schools and elsewhere, in that portion of the Union.

No sooner did the Ohio people discover that the action of the Legislature, which had been much praised as "abolishing a relic of barbarism," really meant that negro parents could, if they chose, send their children to schools previously attended solely by whites, than trouble broke out in a number of places. The most serious difficulty has been in a town of Clermont County, which belies its name of Felicity. The population of Felicity consists of nine whites to one negro, and until the law of 1887 was passed, the negro children attended separate schools, which were maintained almost exclusively by the whites, the school-tax paid by the negroes being only $16 to $3,600 by the whites. When the school term opened in the fall of 1887, several negro children presented themselves at a white school, and insisted upon admission. They were refused entrance, and when a negro father accompanied his children, in order to enforce their

rights, he was roughly handled by some white men. The negroes finally concluded that it was of no use to continue the struggle, and a peace was patched up by an agreement of the whites to provide two graded schools for colored children, taught by excellent colored teachers.

But the old trouble was renewed when the last school year opened in September, 1888. The graded-school system for the blacks had proved a failure, only sixteen pupils attending the two schools, and the whites decided to support only one school for the blacks. Thereupon the blacks resolved to make another effort to get their children into the white school. Three successive days the colored children applied for admission, and three successive days the white men and women (for the feeling was even stronger among the women than among the men) stood in the door and told them that they could not enter. The School Board (consisting of three Republicans and three Democrats) remained passive, informing the negroes when appealed to that they did not propose to take any hand in the matter. In the words of one of them: "Some of our best citizens said to us, 'We want you directors to keep your hands off, and we will attend to this matter ourselves. We propose that the negroes shall not go into our white school. We have made every provision for them. It would break up our school, for the majority of the white people would withdraw their children.'"

Again the negroes found that they must give up the attempt to secure their rights by their own exertions. This time they resolved to appeal to the courts. Indictments were sought and obtained against certain white persons who had obstructed negro parents when they tried to enter their children in the white school. The cases recently came to trial. Two juries refused to convict the offenders, and it being evident that public sentiment would secure the same result in any case, the trial of all the other cases was postponed.

All through this struggle, which has now lasted nearly a year and a half, the Governor of Ohio has been inactive. Not one word has he said in denunciation of the outrages or in rebuke of the law-breakers. His recent message to the Legislature was entirely silent on the most vital issue now pending in the State of Ohio.

Here, evidently, is a clear case for the incoming President. In a State of the American Union negroes are denied those rights gnaranteed by the Federal Constitution. Local sentiment sustains the injustice; the courts refuse to punish the offenders; the Governor of the State, overawed by the political influence of the law-breakers, is supine. The poor negro of Felicity is helpless in the face of a hostile State.

Obviously there must be a "policy towards Ohio," and as obviously it must be a "rigorous" one. The sun should not go down on the 4th of March before Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, has notified the white people of Felicity, Ohio, that he will "insist" that they open their schools to the negro children, that a force of United States troops will be stationed at the door of the school-house to enforce the rights of the negroes, and that the pusillanimous Governor of the State will be lodged in the penitentiary.

THE MASSACRE AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

"NINE Heads in the Basket" is the appropriate heading of the news which came from Washington on Tuesday, announcing the removal of officials in the Appraiser's Department. A cocking main in New Jersey, or a lynching affair in Texas, or a shooting affray among gamblers in Arizona could not be treated with more *sang froid* by the newspapers than is this massacre at the Custom-house. It seems to us a very serious business, and not at all an occasion for merriment. Secretary Fairchild, in the character of a Tammany sachem, adorned with war-paint, and brandishing the tomahawk and scalping-knife, is not at all an agreeable or amusing subject for a cartoon. As to the victims, we do not know one of them. We read that this one has been in the service nine years, and that one six years, and so on. No charges are made against any of them, so far as the public are aware. The worst inferences will therefore be drawn, and ought to be; for it must be presumed that if any good reasons existed for such a massacre, they would have been promulgated at once.

Being left to grope in the dark for reasons for these proceedings, we naturally turn to what is called the Byrne report on alleged sugar frauds in New York. This document was sent to the Treasury Department November 1, 1887. The Senate called for a copy of it March 1, 1888. It was not furnished. A second call was made on the 8th inst., and the copy was sent in on the 18th without the "exhibits"—that is, without the matter which alone gives it any value as a guide to the truth. If Byrne had been a man of known qualifications and character, some weight, corresponding to his reputation, would have attached to his report. The gravity of the subject on hand was such that an investigation by no less a body than a Commission, like the Jay Commission of Secretary Sherman's time, could have satisfied public opinion as to the existence or non-existence of the alleged frauds. A secret report from any source would not at all have answered the public requirement; and this is eminently a public requirement, going much beyond the beheading of a few Custom-house officials. It involves a general charge on the part of Boston that New York owes her primacy in foreign commerce, in part at least, to unfair dealings—that is, to fraud in the importation of sugar and other things. This charge is distinctly made in the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* of January 19. "The removal of Appraiser Lewis McMullen of New York," says this paper, "and a number of his assistant appraisers, by Secretary Fairchild, is a signal victory of a long struggle against discrimination and dishonesty in the customs service, in which Boston merchants have borne the heat and burden of the battle, and may justly be credited with the victory. When the Boston movement against undervaluations was started, it met with much ridicule from certain New York parties, who claimed that it was a senseless outbreak, and that there was no foundation for the belief that undervaluations and dishonest appraisements prevailed in New York to the detriment of importers in other places." The *Bulletin* adds that "the investigation of Special Treasury Agent Byrne of Boston into the practices of the New York Custom-house showed conclusively that undervaluations and frauds on the Treasury were the work of a well-defined ring of New York agents of foreign manufacturers and exporters, officials in the New York Custom-house, and American importers." If New York's primacy in foreign commerce rested on the shifty foundation of frauds in the Custom-house, it would be very insecure. We have no facilities for undervaluing sugar that might not be copied and surpassed by any other port. If we have any "well-defined ring," such as the *Bulletin* speaks of, why are not the names of the parties composing it given? We shall take pleasure in printing them whenever they are furnished by any person or newspaper.

It is scarcely necessary to remark that there is no "Special Treasury Agent" of the name of Byrne, and that no report of Byrne "showed conclusively" anything whatsoever, because the report was kept secret until a few days ago, and the testimony upon which it was based is still secret. Whatever weight might attach to a commission like the Jay Commission by reason of the reputation of its *personnel*, none can attach to that of the manager of a skating-rink who was never heard of until he became a "special employee"—that is the title given to him by Mr. Fairchild—of the Treasury Department.

Well, Byrne's report, whether worth much or little, remained in the Department thirteen months. That very little importance was attached to it becomes evident from the fact that nothing was done under it, or in pursuance of it, until Appraiser McMullen made difficulties about some changes in the Custom-house service which were clearly of a political nature. Passing over those changes, however, and supposing them to have been non-political, we are moved to inquire what the Secretary was about during the thirteen months in which the nine examiners whose heads "rolled in the basket" on Tuesday were deemed fit to pass upon the value of sugar, wool, hardware, tobacco, etc. It is not sufficient to say that he was studying the Byrne report thirteen months, or that he was making other investigations. All secret investigations, Byrne's and his own, if he made any, involving the reputation of individuals, are worthless. All such investigations involving the name and fame of the city of New York, (for this is what is chiefly concerned), are worse than worthless. It is therefore a proper inquiry, What does this new-born

zeal of the Secretary, after a slumber of more than a year, signify? He can hardly fancy that he will commend himself to excessive popularity among his fellow-citizens by putting a stigma upon them *en masse* as the last act of his official life. If the public service really demands the massacre at the Custom-house, well and good. But it is for Mr. Fairchild to show this to fair-minded men before he leaves his present position.

HALLIWELL-PHILLIPPS.

A FEW lines out of a letter from Mr. Phillipps to the writer of this notice appeared in the *Nation* on December 20, 1888. That letter must have been among the very last he ever wrote. Among the rarities which he had most recently acquired, he spoke of "the printed original music to a song quoted in 'Twelfth Night' (act ii. 3) only one other copy being known." The words, which were, "Farewell, dear heart, since I must needs be gone," now rise before us as a swan-song prophetic of his own departure as at hand. His health had long been failing; but, though faint, he was still pursuing his chosen way, and e'en in his ashes lived the wonted fires. The other recent find which he had mentioned in this last letter, was "a manuscript book of travels containing the earliest account of the interior of Shakspere's birth-room that has yet been discovered." This account must have reminded him in his age how in youth he had been among those first and foremost, about 1847, in saving the birth-house from being carried off bodily by Barnum into American captivity beyond the sea. Thanks, too, to Mr. Phillipps, the Shaksperian garden at New Place was long ago restored as nearly as possible to the appearance it had presented at the era of Shakspere's retirement and death amid its flowers. Exact knowledge regarding Stratfordian topography may be said to have begun throughout with Phillipps, nor is it easy to see how research in this direction can go further than it is carried in later editions of his 'Outlines.' His discovery of the deeds of the poet's New Place—the only ones of his time known to exist—dated 1532, 1563, and 1567, was chronicled by the *Nation* in 1886, and encourages hope of further light in unexpected quarters. Mr. Phillipps's monograph on the travels of Shakspere's theatrical company (and hence possibly of Shakspere himself), and another on "Misprints," showing how in the text of the plays we may "by indirections find directions out," are two recent specimens among scores of booklets in which Mr. Phillipps, in every way inventive love could dictate, was every year, for a generation, throwing side-lights on his favorite dramatist and his works. His only mistake lay in printing these booklets, Halliwelliana, almost all of them, for presentation among friends, and not putting them on the market at all. Recondite lore or subtle speculation has thus been hid in a corner: it should have been proclaimed on the house tops.

During less than twenty of his last years was Mr. Phillipps rich enough to indulge his Shaksperian tastes. Indeed, he never bore the name Phillipps till 1872, taking it with his wife's fortune. Born James Orchard Halliwell, his first schooling was in his birthplace, Chelsea, and Brighton. Then he was a Cambridge student for two years. But in 1840, when only twenty years old, he had already edited an edition of Sir John Mandeville. Henceforth his studies were antiquarian, and mainly in some department of English mediæval history. Some of his themes, as English nursery rhymes, the wise men of Gotham, and old inventories of furniture, seemed trivial—rather subhistoric than prehistoric: but he showed that "poor matters point to rich ends," that small matters had large relations, and he took up great things by little handles. He also dealt in more pretentious works—'Letters of English Kings,' mostly before unpublished, and an 'Archaic and Provincial Dictionary' which is still high authority. So prodigious was his literary fecundity that he had produced threescore works before he was forty years old. Several of these were altogether Shaksperian, and in 1852 he began the most monumental edition of Shakspere that has ever been published—in sixteen elephant folios, limited to 150 copies at £63, subscription-price. During the progress of this vast work, which occupied him thirteen years, his recreations were rambles in Wales, Cornwall, and the Continent as far as the St. Gothard, which furnished material for more than one book.

From his fiftieth year Mr. Phillipps has dedicated himself to illustrating Shakspere in his own way. But he had done much earlier. In 1862 he had engaged an accomplished draughtsman to make sketches of every morsel that could be found of Shakspere's England—that is, of every object that he himself was likely to have seen, following the routes taken by the poet in his various journeys, etc. This alone proved a six years' task. But after the windfall of a fortune, Mr. Phillipps at once proceeded to lavish it on selectest Shaksperiana. His house at Brompton he filled with Shaksperian books. Ere long he set up another establishment upon a hill-top 462 feet above Brighton. Here he treasured all Shaksperian rarities that money could buy, or search and research detect. His success was so great and speedy that it has long been confessed that Hollingbury Copse has the honor of sheltering more records and artistic evidences connected with the personal history of the great dramatist than are to be found in any other of the world's libraries. His motto in a hand-list of these memorials was: "But now he's gone, and my idolatrous fancy must sanctify his relics."

Nearly a decade ago, Mr. Phillipps gave public notice that his collection was open at all times to Shaksperians. He had as great delight in exhibiting as in gathering his illustrative wonders. He printed catalogues that filled volumes, describing the curiosities. No matter whether visitors came as single spies or in battalions, they all, according to their several capacities, found what they sought.

On May 10, 1888, Mr. Phillipps wrote to us: "My doctor says that I must lie fallow this summer—do as little in the way of reading and writing as possible. So it will be a capital opportunity for you to send your American friends here, and I need not say that any arriving with your introduction will be most warmly welcomed." As a help to any Shaksperian pilgrim we might send, Mr. Phillipps had formerly enclosed to us what he called "A rough sketch-plan of the way to Hollingbury Copse from Brighton." This guide covers a sheet of foolscap (17x13½ inches), and abounds in characteristic notes. One of them reads thus:

"'This local habitation and a name' derives the latter from an ancient British camp in its immediate vicinity—a fine and interesting example of a primeval earthwork fortification, which has been known from time immemorial as Hollingbury Castle. The camp is intrenched on the highest eminence in the locality, over five hundred feet above the sea-level, and the copse is situated a little distance towards the west, at a somewhat lesser elevation. Although so near Brighton, being only two miles and a half from the sea, it has an essentially different climate. Upon the day when this is being written, 24th February, 1888, although snow is scarcely visible in the town, the drifts here are several feet in depth outside the fences, and the roads impassable to any description of vehicle. Our only communication with Brighton is, just now, for some distance cut through the solid snow, and if the Hollingbury bungalow, with its present surroundings, is not a fragment of Nova Zembla, it must anyhow be a first-class imitation of it."

Two of our friends found their way to this Shaksperian Mecca on the 8th of last August. They were so received as to feel overpaid for their pilgrimage. Writing next day, they said: "Mr. Phillipps is now, he says, pretty well, and his appearance corroborates this; but he told us that a month ago he was quite ill and unable to see any one." Nor was any formal introduction needed for securing a sight of the Shaksperian jewels. One apt quotation, one intelligent remark on the dramatist, was a sufficient open-sesame. One American youth, just out of college and on a walk about Brighton, calling, as he told us, with diffidence because unintroduced, was so greeted that he felt forthwith at ease, and went away with memories of most instructive hours. Mr. Phillipps has assured us that he was more glad to see Americans than others, not only because they came from far, but because his own lucubrations had been appreciated in their country sooner than in his own.

More than four years ago, inspecting this Shaksperian museum, while the comments of its owner again and again added a precious seeing to our eye, we asked him what he meant to have done with his collection, since he could not always care for it, and no child of his inherited his tastes. His answer was that he was himself still at a loss what to do about it. We then said, speaking more than half jocosely: "Let us have it in America. 'We'll set it in a shower of gold and hail rich pearls upon it.' What a complement it would form to the Boston printed Shaksperiana, which have few superiors anywhere!" Such a disposition of his memorials he confessed had not occurred to him. It seems as if the hint were not wholly lost, for he has bequeathed to the New York Shakspere Society all his electro-plates, woodblocks, etc. His great collection he offers to the municipality of Birmingham for seven thousand pounds.

A TRIP TO DELPHI.

CAMBRIDGE, January 20.

THE conditions of travel in Greece are changing so rapidly, owing to the introduction of railroads and the laying out of highways, that we may expect that within a few years the Greek tour will be as common as the Southern Italian is now. Indeed, more Americans would visit the principal points of interest in Greece even now, but for the prevalence of misconceptions as to the danger, expense, and discomforts of such a trip. The first obstacle—danger—no longer exists. No act of brigandage has been reported since the famous "Marathon massacre" nearly twenty years ago, and that was the work not of Greeks but of Turks; the peasants are as harmless, and often as friendly, as those of the more secluded Swiss cantons. The expense, too, need deter no one; for in Greece as elsewhere it may be pretty much what you choose—from a dollar a day for pedestrians, to six or seven dollars a day apiece for those who take tents, horses, guides, and cooks with them. The discomforts are, indeed, still numerous, and in some cases almost too irksome for ladies; but every year they diminish, and before long it will be possible to take train or diligence to all the most famous spots, and to be fed and

lodged at decent hotels on the way. Perhaps the following account of an excursion to Delphi which I made with four companions in March, 1887, will show how easily one of the most interesting places in the world may be reached, and how the interest of the journey far outweighed temporary hardships.

Leaving Athens by the morning train, we reached Corinth at eleven o'clock. The modern town is laid out in checker board blocks, at a considerable distance from the site of ancient Corinth, and will be the commercial centre of the Peloponnese as soon as the canal through the Isthmus is completed a year or two hence. At one o'clock our steamer started, and we were soon in the midst of the Gulf, surrounded by scenery which can hardly be matched on Lake Geneva. Behind us rose the rocky dome of Acrocorinth, along whose summit the castellated walls of a Turkish fortress ran as a crown. To the south stretched the numberless ridges of the Peloponnesian mountains, Kyllene, white with snow, and many a sharp, bare peak or jagged crest, and, nearer the shore, plateaux on which the ruins of Sikyon and other famous cities are buried. To the north, Kithairon's rounded shoulders shut out the view; then, farther westward, the more imposing heights of Helicon; and, still farther toward sunset, the great mass of Parnassus, partly veiled in clouds. A hundred little inlets and rocky promontories diversify this northern coast, and small islands fringe it. Before five o'clock the steamer entered the bay of Salona, which cuts deepest landwards, at the apex of which lies Itea, a fishing-village of a few hundred inhabitants. This is the landing-place for the traveller bound to Delphi.

From Itea you can go by a good highroad to Salona, the ancient Amphissa, against which the Amphictyons declared war, and which Philip of Macedon razed to the ground in B. C. 338. Good quarters for the night and fair conveyance for the morrow can be had at Salona, but we preferred to proceed on foot directly to Chrysò, a wretched hamlet lying on the mountain slope, and on the shortest road to Delphi. We walked for an hour or more through a large olive plantation, darkness having already fallen, and then clambered up a rocky path to the hamlet, where we were greeted by the howling of the wolfish mongrel dogs which infest every Greek settlement, but rarely harm strangers. Chrysò offered no other accommodation for travellers except a café—a single room as dingy as a blacksmith's shop, many of its window-panes broken, and its air reeking with the smoke of the open fire on which the proprietor heated the muddy coffee which the natives delight in, and with the fumes of cigarettes. A hard-boiled egg, a glass of Greek wine flavored with resin, some bread and coffee, were all the supper we could procure; and, for sleeping, we had to choose between the wooden benches set along the walls or the floor itself. The proprietor and an Albanian in fleece capote and fustanella stretched themselves on the floor, while we settled ourselves as best we could on the benches and chairs.

By five o'clock on the following morning we had breakfasted and set out. The path rises rapidly in zigzags over the shoulder of a mountain spur, but a carriage-road (not then completed) makes the ascent more gradually in ampler curves. After a climb of perhaps three miles we reached a rocky shelf, and then, turning to the left, Delphi lay before us, only a quarter of a mile distant. Surely no site more impressive could have been chosen for the most sacred spot of a nation's religious life. Two mighty cliffs rise perpendicular to the height of about a thousand feet—those Gleaming Cliffs which the pilgrim could see as his ship sailed up the Gulf of Corinth. Once there was but a single wall of rock, but a deep, narrow cleft now cuts them midway from top to bottom. At their foot the erosion and storms of ages have heaped a thin belt of soil to which the present village of Kastri clings—I say "clings," for the slope is so steep that it seems as if the earth and the hovels upon it would, at the slightest jar, slip down into the valley of the Pleistos far below. The miserable dwellings of Kastri look like those stones with which the Swiss secure the slanting roofs of their chalets. It is but a mass of rubbish, which has buried the inestimable treasures of Delphi. "O for a spade, and free scope for digging!" is the wish of every enthusiast, as he compares the actual scene with that which his imagination assures him might once have been beheld here. Then marble temples rose, tier above tier, against the dark background of the cliffs; statues, votive offerings, and monuments were distributed along the slopes, or crowned each jutting prominence; and instead of the beggarly, dirty, idle, ragged men and women who now squat on this haunt dear to the gods, the place was filled with distinguished pilgrims from all parts of the Greek world, with the most illustrious leaders of the Greek race, with the priests and interpreters of the Greek religion.

We must not forget that Delphi was one of the three centres of European religious zeal. What Jerusalem was to the Crusaders, and Rome to later Catholics, that Delphi was, for nearly a thousand years, to the devout Greek and the devout Roman. Hither, in prehistoric times, came Œdipus and Hercules; here the Alcmæonidæ built the first magnificent temple to Apollo; here Lycurgus and Solon consulted the oracle; and here the elder Brutus heard the response which confirmed him in his resolve to expel the Tarquins from Rome. Could we call up the long procession which filed along this road seeking counsel of the Pythian priestess during the historic period, we should recognize most of those whose deeds have been handed down to us by Plutarch, and many of whose career only the scantiest mention remains. We all recall instances of the importance in which the oracular sayings were held—how the shrewd Themistocles construed the prediction that "Athens should be saved by a wall of wood," to mean that the Athenians should conquer the Persians in a naval battle; and how, when Cicero asked the Pythoness how he could attain most glory, she replied, "By making your own genius, and not the opinion of the people, the guide of your life."

From the point whence we had our first view of Kastri, the slope curves sicklewise to the village. In the rocky parapets which line the road on the left, small niches have been cut; then we pass larger chambers, perhaps intended for tombs. On the right, on a spot now partly covered by the Chapel of St. Elias, are a few indistinct ruins, presumably of the Synedrion. A few hundred yards' walk brings us to the village, through which a single narrow street runs northward. The remains of ancient Delphi which have hitherto been excavated, are lamentably small in comparison with those which may some time be unearthed. The most interesting is the foundation of the Temple of Apollo, where the lower drums of some of the columns and many fragments are collected; but most important is part of the peribolos wall, composed of slabs, on which are many inscriptions. Near by is the so-called Hellenikò, part of the wall which once bounded the sacred precinct. The position of the theatre has also been determined, but as yet few traces of it are visible. In a shed belonging to the *phulax*, or "guardian of antiquities," bits of sculpture, altars, inscriptions, and architectural fragments are piled in disorder on the ground. Descending a few rods from the Temple of Apollo, we come to that deep cleft in the Gleaming Cliffs—the seat of the oracle itself. A little spring rises at its base and flows out in a tiny rill: this is the Castalian Spring, whose waters were once dear to the Muses, and have been since the days of Ovid the symbol of poetic inspiration. When the snows melt on the mountains above, or after a heavy storm, the water is said to pour out of the chasm in a torrent; but when we saw it, it was only the little rill I have described, hurrying down into the valley and making a span-wide riband of verdure on its course.

We do not know, nor shall we ever know, the construction of the oracle and the secret of its power. Time and earthquakes have destroyed the buildings here. We are told that vapors rose from the spring, and that the Pythoness, seated on a tripod, inhaled them, and was thrown into a trance in which she uttered her prophecies. Priests took down her revelations, and, having composed them in hexameters, gave them out to the inquirer. Certain it is that no mystery founded upon tricks alone could have commanded the reverence of the keen-witted Greeks during many generations. In the earliest times, the uncultivated and superstitious may have exaggerated very ordinary wisdom, and may have believed it to have had a supernatural source; likewise, in the period of decadence, when the more enlightened became what we should now call agnostics, the old mysteries may have been kept alive to awe the ignorant—just as the Roman Church still encourages such pseudo-miraculous performances as those of Lourdes and Loreto. But we may be sure that during the period when Greek civilization was at its highest, something more than a religious tradition or a pious fraud caused the best men to respect the decrees of the oracle. Not until the time of the Emperor Theodosius, in the fourth century of the Christian era, were the lips of the Pythoness closed.

Just below the Castalian Spring, and beyond two tall platane trees, are the remains of several edifices—the Gymnasium, now built over by the monastery of Panagia; the site of the Temple of Athena Pronoia; and some others, unidentified. After visiting these, we retraced our way to the village, where we procured a guide and pack-horse, and were soon winding along the steep mountainside. Above Kastri, on a small oval plateau, we could easily distinguish the site of the stadium, or race-course, for the wise Greeks always associated health of body with spiritual health; there was no dyspepsia in their religion. Every zigzag in the path now gave us a grander view. We looked down on the roofs of the Kastri hovels, and thought of the time before earthquakes and barbarism and neglect had shaken down the beautiful temples and the hosts of statues (there were 3,000 of the latter, even as late as Pliny's day). Then the eye wandered into the valley of the Pleistos, a slender stream flowing from the vineyard-clad hills of Arachova. Just opposite, a majestic wall of cliffs, similar to those which overshadow Delphi, formed the eastern boundary of the valley. To the south lay the Corinthian Gulf and the Peloponnese. A hard tramp of two or three hours brought us to the Corycian Cave, in which Bacchic festivals were once celebrated—festivals so famous that there is a tradition that Xerxes once attended them. The place is wild and desolate enough for a Walpurgisnacht revel. Then, across mountain meadows, where the farmers were ploughing, we regained the upper valley of the Pleistos, and came by nightfall to Ara-

chova, a thriving town, where, in the Greek war of independence, Karaiskakis annihilated an army of five thousand Turks under Mustam Bey, and made a pyramid of their heads.

But of our further expedition I do not intend to speak here in detail. The day's journey from Arachova to Lebadiea took us past the *triodos* where Œdipus killed his father; and by Chæronea, where Plutarch dwelt, and where the fragments of the colossal lion, set up to commemorate the patriots who fell in the battle against Philip, still strew the ground. A good carriage-road leads from Lebadiea to Thebes, skirting the outposts of Helicon on one side and the reedy marshes of the Copaic Lake on the other; and from Thebes to Eleusis a diligence-road, equal to the best in Switzerland, winds over Kithairon to Eleusis. Doubtless the time will soon come when the whole trip from Itea to Thebes can be made in a carriage, and when one can leave Athens in the morning and comfortably reach Delphi before dark. What is needed to complete the interest of the trip is the excavation of Delphi itself. Instead of being thwarted by the rubbish-heaps and hovels of Kastri, we would see one of the most famous spots in the world cleared of these, and whatever remains of its temples and statuary and inscriptions brought again to view for the instruction and delight of ourselves and of posterity. We owe to the French the excavations already made: the chance is now offered to Americans of achieving the work. Is there no rich man among us—no body of men—who, at a comparatively small cost, will win this honor for himself, and earn the gratitude of all educated men?

WILLIAM R. THAYER.

PASTELS AT THE GROSVENOR GALLERY.

LONDON, January 2, 1889.

THE recent exhibition of pastels at the Grosvenor Gallery has attracted a great deal of attention as an attempt at reviving a lost method of artistic expression in England. That the art of pastels has never been extinct on the Continent is sufficiently proved at this exhibition by the technical skill of the drawings exhibited by Parisian artists of the Société de Pastillistes Français, by Anna Bilinska, the Polish artist, by Hubert Vos, Fantin-Latour, and others.

As a whole, the effect of a great number of pastels together is very wearisome. The material has its distinct limitations, and we should pronounce the more finished productions the least artistic. The color of flesh in pastel is opaque and chalky; there is no possibility of rendering the delicate gradations of half-tints, as in oil or water color. The same opaqueness is felt, when landscape is treated, in the want of luminous color in skies and a lack of depth and variety of tint in foliage. The material seems well adapted for hasty notes of color for the artist's own working studies. Some slight sketches of Whistler exhibited here of Venice in this vein are quite delightful in suggestiveness. We may add that the impressionists show to better advantage in pastels than in any other form, the material lending itself to the limited scale of color and decided forcing of effect through contrast.

Theodore Roussell has a romantic Pierrot, all in white against a white background; the face alone is in color, with sad gray eyes contrasting strangely with the surrounding fanciful cap and dress of pure white. "Ma fonction est d'être blanc" is its motto. The different tints of white are so dexterously managed that the head is in good relief. Anna Bilinska has several life-size studies of Polish peasants in national costume, drawn and modelled with great power, but remarkably coarse and raw in color. Among the more successful of the highly finished examples of portraiture is "A Spanish Lady" by Helleu (No. 148) lent by Mr. John Sargent. The lady is sitting very erect in evening costume, beside an elaborately-drawn harp; her black tulle, deep cut V-shaped, contrasts strongly against her white, thin shoulders; her eyes, with drooped eyelids, look meditatively out of the picture. There is a disagreeable chalky whiteness in the flesh, due, no doubt, to the nature of pastel.

Fantin-Latour has several groups of figures, all of them executed in a disagreeable, rather scratchy manner. No. 67, "Scene from Berlioz's Opera, 'Béatrice et Bénédict,'" reminds us of nothing but illustrations for music covers. It may be that this was the original destination of the design, as also of "The Dance" (No. 70), in which rather solid nymphs are wildly whirling in a circle. There is no trace of the full, brilliant color we generally admire in the works of this artist.

"Confirmation Day," by Lhermitte (No. 6), is the one work of this collection which can be called a picture, the rooms being crowded with experimental studies, portraits, and sketches. A number of young girls, in stiff muslin dresses and white confirmation veils, are waiting their turn, while the priest is giving the holy communion to one of their party. The anxious, eager faces of these village maidens are rendered with great individuality and character, although the heads are not an inch long. The priest and his acolytes, with touches of purple and scarlet in their costumes, the gray walls of the chancel with its painted glass window—all seems quite faithfully given, with ample detail and delicate drawing throughout. The same artist has another picture (No. 50) of children fishing from a wooden bridge, very cleverly drawn and agreeable in quality of touch; in this the prevailing colors are gray, blue, and green.

Among the landscapes those of Peppercorn, especially No. 66, "A Bend in the River," seem most satisfactory, probably because this artist generally chooses late evening effects, when the trees are nearly black and the sky silvery white. The landscapes of W. Stott, of Oldham, are very unlike his usual work; the same artist's "Near the Fireside" (No. 248) represents a lady sitting beside a very ungainly black-leaded grate.

Of French studies of the semi-nude, there is no lack, all very poor in workmanship, and in the worst possible taste. Machard's "Juno" is simply the undressed model with peacocks' feathers in her hand.

The contemplation of highly-finished pastels in this exhibition recalls to memory the papier-maché tea-trays of thirty years ago, and a style of art reserved for their decoration which we hoped would be by this time obsolete. But the facility of pastel seems to be a temptation to which most artists succumb sooner or later, and we have examples here of well-known names—Holman Hunt, G. Solomon, C. H. Shannon, W. F. Yeames, B. Sickert, G. Clausen, Mark Fisher, Mrs. Jopling, etc. There is no doubt that this first pastel exhibition will incite fresh enthusiasts to try their hand, and will be followed by others, since it has been so very successful from the business point of view. That the material is not very durable does not seem to deter purchasers, and that the works in question will not outlast our own time is scarcely to be regretted.

DÖLLINGER ON AMERICAN LITERATURE.

MUNICH, January 1, 1889.

LAST week, before a crowded public meeting of the Bavarian Royal Academy of Sciences, Dr. Döllinger read a paper an hour and a half in length on America's Contributions to Literature. It was a sight truly sublime to see the venerable scholar, ninety years of age, rich with the best learning of the Old World and disciplined in its combats, turning with the enthusiasm of a youth to study the intellectual conditions of the newest of the nations. Though age had won some victories on the wrinkled face and stooping shoulders, the eyes were penetrating, the voice clear if slow, and the step limber. Sign of age in the paper itself there was none, unless indeed of the ripeness of age. The style was easy, altogether free from German ponderosity, lucid, sometimes witty, every sentence and paragraph finding a predetermined place in the whole. The scientific mind was visible everywhere—the mind trained to gather evidence at the best sources, criticizing everything and forming its own conclusions, and in its exposition of results incapable of superfluity, suggestiveness, or hortation. With adequate simplicity he spoke whatever he had to say, and where he was ignorant he remained silent.

He pointed out how impossible it has become for a people any longer to dwell apart and live for itself alone. With our present means of communication, nation must influence nation as formerly citizen influenced citizen. What America is doing concerns Germany. Both belong to the same intellectual world, a world in which the English-speaking race must soon obtain such a primacy as formerly was held by Greece and Rome. No other European language is spoken by two world-powers. Let our own books be made where they may, the books of our grandchildren will largely be formed by America.

For more than the first hundred years after its settlement, America was isolated, and related its intellectual life but slightly to that of other lands. Its settlers brought with them a few books of divinity and philosophy, and these formed the starting-points of their own thought. Milton's poetry, especially his "Samson Agonistes," stirred their deeper feeling. Roger Williams's tract on the 'Bloody Tenet of Persecution' is the only piece of early indigenous writing which can be called literature. Ministers were the chief literary men of the colonies, and their printed sermons and harsh verses were but ephemeral. In the eighteenth century, however, the dominant theological tendencies rose to a form of genius in the person of Jonathan Edwards—*ein weithin leuchtendes Gestirn*. He and his followers created a distinctively American theology, which to-day has life and breath. The works of Edwards are the one large contribution America has made to the deeper philosophic thought of the world.

In the political field a parallel impulse was given by Benjamin Franklin, whose Autobiography must be classed among the books of perpetual worth. Washington, too, deepened among his countrymen the conception of what a man may be, and thus contributed something to their literary life. The separation of the United States from England, the lecturer did not regard as fortunate for either party. Had England acknowledged the necessary connection of taxation and representation, she would have been strong enough to defy Napoleon on the Continent; in both countries the monarchical principle, in a very mild type, would have been preserved; and America would have es-

caped the calamity of a civil war by freeing her slaves peaceably when England freed her own.

No literature came out of the Revolutionary War. For nearly fifty years after that struggle, the still isolated and hard-working people were too closely engaged in developing their new institutions and in earning their daily bread to write much besides political pamphlets; but as the middle of the present century approached, four men stood forth to show that American books might win the world to read them. Cooper, Irving, Prescott, Channing, are the true fathers of American literature. Cooper has domesticated his Indians in Europe. Irving's voluminous writings have stimulated the taste of his countrymen as no other books of their own have done, and still they are books which may be read everywhere and always. Prescott treats certain epochs of Spanish history better than they have been treated by any other historian. Channing is more local, more limited in range; yet his services in quickening the American conscience, especially in the matter of slavery, must not be overlooked.

These four were the only writers individually discussed by the lecturer. Whether on account of an imperfect acquaintance with the writers of to-day, or because of the size and extreme complexity of our present literary exhibit from this early point to its distant conclusion, Dr. Döllinger turned his paper into a discussion of the conditions and shaping influences which attend literature in America.

For many years the physical sciences, particularly in their connections with practical life, have been eagerly pursued in America. Already there are twenty-eight well-equipped astronomical observatories there. The historical and humanistic studies have lagged behind. For evidence on the literary status of the people at large the lecturer ingeniously resorted to publishers' catalogues. These show the favorite books to be the Bible, Pilgrim's Progress, Shakespere, and Burns The 'Vicar of Wakefield,' Macaulay, and Dickens have also been printed in more than half a dozen editions each. To a German the appearance of Gibbon's History in thirteen editions is a fact decisive in determining the low state of historical studies in America. Yet what a contrast is there between the largely-sold books of America and of France! A true Anglo-Saxon in taste and temper the American remains; and though North differs from South and East from West in culture, a common type of character, and of those social ideals which leave their mark on literature, dominates the land.

In studying this type and these ideals, we find the well-known English antipathy to speculative philosophy. The American does not trouble himself about metaphysics, though he exceeds the men of all other lands in the acuteness of his inventive power and in his passion for knowledge of a certain grade. Appletons' Biographical Dictionary (?) devotes a section to "Inventors," as one elsewhere might to soldiers or to lords. Institutions of education abound, as do those of art, charity, and mutual helpfulness; but there is no aristocracy, unless, indeed, the whole native population may be called an aristocracy. At any rate, no native American ever becomes a servant: domestic service is performed by foreigners. Distinctions of wealth remain; but these, when so obviously mutable, lose half their bitterness. Of that oppression which in other countries is exercised by a few high-placed individuals over the multitude, there is none; yet an oppression exists, and one perhaps more fatal—the oppression which the multitude itself here practises upon its more advanced members. The reverence for the mighty monarch, public opinion, is nowhere so universal and so stifling. The country must not be criticized: it will hear nothing but praise. A shallow optimism in regard to all things American has become widespread, and was noticed even by Emerson, who himself contributed to its currency. Yet, existing half unconsciously, there is also a general sense of limitation. The Americans are great travellers. They say they travel in order to see how superior to others their own country is; but something in the tone of their better writers makes us suspect that these nomadic habits are rather due to unrest at home, and to the desire to widen a range of vision too much restricted by democratic surroundings.

Social conditions like these present many hindrances to the growth of literature. Three deserve a separate notice—the popular newspaper, the absence of a learned class, the absence of an official class. The American newspaper stands on a much lower level than the English; it terrorizes and vulgarizes the community. Many a good book remains unwritten either through fear of the press or because its intending author has finally adjusted his standards to the tone of the ephemeral writing about him; and no learned class comes to his aid. America knows no *Gelehrtenstand*—no body of men securely devoted from youth to age to the pursuit of science. Specialists in the physical sciences, particularly in those departments which are connected with mechanics and the technical arts, are not lacking; but the few Americans who in Germany might be counted learned have not received their training at home, nor have they any sure position there. There is not in America an institution of higher education which can bear comparison with a third-class German university. This absence of high standards and of opportunity for high discipline works great injury to law, medicine, and pure letters.

In other countries the class of permanent office-holders affords a strong support to literature. Its men of partial leisure supply a body of discerning readers, and out of it comes not a few good writers. It forms a connecting link between the specialists and the ignorant public. Under the patronage of securely-placed officers of the state, the army, the church, the bench, and the medical profession, letters have always flourished; but in America many of these persons have a culture extremely meagre, many others hold offices which are only temporarily theirs. Political offices being newly filled with each incoming administration, the service of the State never becomes a profession. Jackson's maxim—that to the victor belong the spoils—has indirectly done serious damage to literature.

As we try to forecast the future of literature in America, we see that it must be largely affected by the solution ultimately reached of three political problems—the treatment by the State of the great corporations, the railroads especially; the management of the negro population, already admitted to the vote but not to social equality; and the power of the country to absorb an undiminishing stream of European immigration. The horde of foreigners burdens the North, fills its jails, cheapens its wages, and exhausts its charities. The South still desires immigration, and everywhere Germans are welcomed; but the old belief that America can make good citizens out of all the restless and improvident who have failed in their own lands, has received a rude shake.

The problems here indicated are not, it is true, problems merely of the New World; were they so, we need not concern ourselves about them: they are merely problems more urgent at present there than elsewhere, and they are presented there in terms of peculiar distinctness. This fact, that the questions on trial in America are world-questions, makes it important for the man who would be acquainted with his kind to study America, its government, its society, and, as an expression of all else, its literature.

In this summary, reported by memory and corrected by a brief newspaper report the next day, I am sure I do injustice to the thought of Dr. Döllinger; but perhaps enough is here given to show at least the curious psychological interest of the lecture. An acute man, singularly free from prejudice, accustomed to weighing evidence, undertakes to construct a picture of a people whom he has never visited. That people is less distant from him than Greece formerly was from Rome. It is in daily communication with his own city of Munich. Its newspapers are on file everywhere. Books, pictures, and statistics relating to it abound. Hundreds of Munich citizens have visited America; hundreds of Americans are now living in Munich. This very scholar counts Americans among his intimate friends. Under such exceptionally favorable conditions, how true a picture can be drawn of an unseen land? It was this question of descriptive accuracy, I confess, which interested me more than the critical estimates of Dr. Döllinger; for I thought the lecture might throw some light on the probable success of the efforts scholars are always making to reconstruct across thousands of years the private life of nations enormously unlike ourselves. The result was something of a surprise to me. I detected no large number of false statements; from errors of this sort the habits of the scientific historian guarded him well. There were some important omissions. But the most striking distortion was in the perspective. Even those monarchical-minded Americans from whose writings a large part of the facts stated was obviously drawn, would have acknowledged that the picture as a whole was considerably out of drawing. Proportions, relative degrees of importance, are not easily obtained at second-hand. The most diligent, the most unbiassed of scholars needs to substantiate by experience the report of books.

G. H. P.

Correspondence.

PROFESSOR LANCIANI AND THE AGE OF BRONZE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Prof. Lanciani's charming study of 'Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries,' you speak of the difficulty of following his reasoning when he argues that the cinerary hut-urns found on the Alban Mount belong to the prehistoric age of bronze, while the shepherds who made them also possessed foreign imported pottery which was not introduced into Italy earlier than the seventh century B. C. The trouble lies in the fact that Prof. Lanciani, although he is an expert in classical antiquities, is not such in regard to prehistoric times. He asserts that "the foundation of Rome dates from the age of bronze," and attempts to establish this from the fact that certain cinerary urns, made in the shape of a hut or tent, were discovered underneath a layer of peperino on the slopes of the Alban Mount. These contained "the remains of an incinerated body with fibulæ and other objects in amber and bronze." But he

goes on to argue that, because no iron was found with them, they belong to "the age of bronze." He might just as well have maintained that they belong to "the age of stone," since he also states that they were found enclosed in jars of an exceedingly rough kind of terracotta, "hand-made and sun-dried." Does Prof. Lanciani suppose that the shepherds on the Alban Mount had not advanced beyond the stage of culture of our American Indians, none of whose pottery which we find in the "shell-heaps" marking the site of their ancient dwellings, is "sun-dried," but always well baked—not, it is true, in a covered kiln, but upon an open hearth?

The truth is, that the hut-urns and all their contents of black Latial pottery, together with the rough jars that enclose them, belong to what is called by European archæologists the "Early Iron Age." The dispute is as to whether this period represents the earliest "proto-Etruscan" time, or a prior Italic "pre-Etruscan" civilization. The bronze age pure—that is, the time before the use of iron was known—is found in Italy only in the Terremares of Umbria, which show no traces of iron, and are contemporary with the lake dwellings of the bronze age in Switzerland and Savoy.

I quite agree with Prof. Lanciani in thinking that Prof. Middleton is wrong in arguing that the recent discovery of early tombs on the Esquiline in Rome indicates a prior Etruscan settlement there. The black pottery found in them is Latial and not Etruscan in character; but Lanciani is equally wrong in stating that "Ponzi, the late leader of Italian geologists, decided the vases [found on the Alban Mount] had *not* been buried by the lava eruptions." His opinion is exactly the contrary, as may be seen in his paper on "The Relations of Prehistoric Man with the Geological Phenomena of Central Italy" (p. 69), in the *compte rendu* of the Bologna Congress of Prehistoric Archæology, in 1871. The commission that had investigated this question in 1866—not in 1867, as Lanciani says—consisted of Profs. Ponzi, De Rossi, Pigorini, and Senator Rosa; and it was the last gentleman who held the opinion that the vases "had been introduced under the lava-bed from a Roman road which crosses the Pascolare close by." It was with the desire of settling this matter beyond a possibility of question that the late Prof. Edward Desor of Neuchâtel arranged for a reinvestigation of the question by quite a large committee, including De Rossi, who had participated in the previous inquiry. This was done on April 2, 1877, and I had the pleasure of accompanying the party by Prof. Desor's invitation. The result of our studies he communicated to the *Matériaux* (vol. xii, p. 297), and it shows that Rosa was mistaken. As the subject of the original discovery of the vases in 1817 is interesting, and the memoirs in which it is discussed are difficult to procure, I will state that a complete account of the circumstances will be found in Hobhouse's 'Illustrations to the Fourth Canto of Childe Harold' (p. 328), which was published the following year.

As stated before, these hut-urns belong to the early iron age, which the Italian archæologists call the "period of Villanova," from the discoveries made at his villa there, near Bologna, by the late Count Gozzadini. They have been discovered in five different places in Italy, besides in the cemetery upon the slopes of the Alban Mount—in tombs of the earliest description at Corneto, the ancient Etruscan Tarquinii; in others near the alum-works at Tolfa, about twelve miles east of Civita Vecchia; in the recently-discovered cemetery near Colonna di Buriano, which undoubtedly represents the ancient Etruscan Vetulonia, whose site has been so long sought for in vain; in the great cemetery on Lake Bolsena, a relic of the Etrurian Volsinii; and lastly in the one recently discovered in Rome, on the Esquiline. Probably it was the circumstance that all the sites where hut-urns have been discovered, except on the Alban Mount and at Rome, were unquestionably Etruscan, which caused Prof. Middleton to maintain the theory of an Etruscan origin for Rome. But the hut-urns are only one of the types of the pottery and other objects which mark the epoch of Villanova; and the recent discovery of tombs containing undoubted objects belonging to the period of Villanova, near the site of the old Greek city of Sybaris, in southern Italy, in a region beyond the farthest reach of the Etruscan power, has greatly strengthened the position of those scholars who believe in an early Italic pre-Etruscan civilization.

Prof. Lanciani's conclusion is, that "when Rome was founded, the inhabitants of central Italy, Etruria excluded, had only attained that degree of civilization which is called the civilization of bronze," because no iron was found in the cemeteries at Alba Longa and upon the Esquiline. But as everything else found in them corresponds exactly with what is found in tombs of the Villanova period, in the early iron age, these two arguments fall to the ground. His third argument, drawn from the abhorrence of iron manifested in the Roman religious rites, proves too much; for the same survival of old habits and traditions in religious matters is manifested in the use, down to very late times, made by the *fecialis* of a stone axe to slay the victim at the sacrifice offered on the ratification of a treaty.

So I will conclude, as I began, with the statement that Prof. Lanciani might as reasonably have argued that Rome was founded in the age of stone as in the age of bronze.

I am yours, HENRY W. HAYNES.

BOSTON, January 20, 1889.

LANCIANI AND PLINY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The charge has sometimes been brought against archæologists that their classical scholarship is deficient, and Prof. Rodolfo Lanciani's 'Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries,' just published, furnishes some ground for this charge. This book contains several remarkable statements, but there is one instance of such curious misinterpretation that it deserves to be called to the attention of your readers. The error is such that it is very difficult of explanation except as a result of great carelessness or ignorance of the Latin language. On page 113, Prof. Lanciani, speaking of the reading-room of the Palace of the Cæsars, says:

"It is probable that in this reading-room were held the sittings of the literary academies and societies described by Pliny the Younger in his letter to Sosius Senecio (I, 13), which were the delight of the Emperor Claudius, the abhorrence and the horror of literary men, who were obliged by their connection with the imperial court to lose hours upon hours in listening to silly and narcotic lecturers. Nothing could be more graphic than the description by Pliny of one of these compulsory sittings. 'We approach the hall,' he says, 'as if we were compelled by main force; many of us sit outside of the door, and try to overcome the *ennui* by discussing the gossip of the town. Messengers are surreptitiously sent in to inquire whether the lecturer has really made his appearance, whether he has finished his prologue, or how many sheets are still to be read. Then, when we hear that the moment of deliverance is not very far off, we come in slowly, sit on the edge of our chairs, and do not even wait for the end of the discourse to slip or steal away.'"

Let us turn now to the text of the letter in question (I,13). We read as follows:

"Magnum proventum poetarum annus hic attulit: toto mense Aprili nullus fere dies quo non recitaret aliquis. Juvat me quod vigent studia, proferunt se ingenia hominum et ostentant, tametsi ad audiendum pigre coitur. Plerique in stationibus sedent tempusque audiendi fabulis conterunt, ac subinde sibi nuntiari jubent, an jam recitator intraverit, an dixerit præfationem, an ex magna parte evolverit librum: tunc demum ac tunc quoque lente cunctanterque veniunt; nec tamen permanent sed ante finem recedunt, alii dissimulanter et furtim, alii simpliciter et libere. At hercule memoria parentum Claudium Cæsarem ferunt, cum in palatio spatiaretur audissetque clamorem, causam requisse, cumque dictum esset recitare Nonianum, subitum recitanti inopinatumque venisse."

The rest of the letter contains Pliny's lament over the fact that in his time the men of the most leisure did not care enough about literature to listen to the readings; or, if they did use any of their time in this way, complained that it was lost. He himself asserts that he has missed scarcely one, and expresses his pleasure in such exercises.

A moment's glance at the original is sufficient to show how thoroughly wrong the impression made by the translation is. There is no evidence in the letter that any "literary academies and societies" existed, or that they met usually in the Palace of the Cæsars. A single instance related of Claudius is not sufficient ground for asserting his "delight" in such exercises. From the language of Prof. Lanciani one might easily infer that this letter described the state of things under Claudius, and that, because of his fondness for recitations, the literary men were grievously tormented. The date of publication of this letter was probably 97 A. D., and the emperors of that time did not indulge in excessive literary enthusiasm or compel audiences to assemble to hear "narcotic lecturers." There was nothing "compulsory" about these recitations: on the contrary, Pliny bewailed the fact that so many refused to take advantage of their opportunities. It is difficult to see how the meaning of so simple a passage could be so mistaken. SAMUEL B. PLATNER.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, January 19.

DECAY OF EASTERN FARM LANDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The exigencies of argument become very obvious when men like Senators Hoar, Dawes, and Hiscock are driven to assert, as they did in the Senate on January 15, that farming property in the Eastern States has not depreciated. Senator Hoar becomes amusing when he claims that "the existence of mortgages is a sign of life and health."

Perhaps no better answer to the stock argument of the protectionists—that the farmer gains more from the local market made by manufacturing villages and towns than he loses in the increased cost of the goods he buys—can be found than a statement of the condition of some of the towns near these manufacturing cities on the Merrimac River. The Merrimac turns more spindles than any other river in the world. Within a few miles of each other, around the great bend of the river from south to east, are the cities of Nashua, Lowell, Lawrence, and Haverhill. In the farming towns of Windham, Pelham, and Hudson, N. H., situated within the bend, and so within easy access of all four of the above-named cities, we *ought* to find prosperous "protected" farming.

On one main road from Lowell to Windham, twelve miles, I count six deserted sets of farm buildings, besides several which have already

gone to ruin. Fields and pastures are growing up to wood; houses in which, a generation ago, sturdy manhood and womanhood flourished, are gone to utter ruin; in many school districts there are not sufficient children to have a school. The whole appearance is one of poverty and decay; to ride along our country roads is extremely depressing. In no part of New England with which I am acquainted is the decay of the farming interests so obvious and so complete as here by the manufacturing cities. Instead of the homogeneous population of thrifty, intelligent, self-respecting farmers and mechanics that occupied this section fifty years ago, we now have, in our cities, a few fine streets of residences for the capitalists and employers, and then our "French Acre," "Irish Acre," corporation boarding and tenement-houses, and in our country *a desert*—for it is already nearly that.

Possibly this may be "progress," and a modern, improved kind of progress—one that has not been brought about by rude, natural causes, but one that results from the incomparable wisdom of our legislators, who are so kindly taxing us into wealth. Our farming interests would have suffered enough from the inevitable competition with more favored sections; but the ruin has been precipitated by the tremendous burden of taxation that the farmer has borne. It is no small thing when a nation renders impossible the existence of a class that has been the source of so much energy, talent, and character as have the New England farmers. G. W. A.

Nashua, N. H., January 16, 1889.

HOW TO REACH THE FARMERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a farmer as well as an innkeeper, and I recognize the importance, the necessity, of educating the farmers on this great question of the tariff. Facts and non-partisan arguments are not found in the publications that reach the farmers. To reach them with the right sort of information upon this subject is the problem. Could there not be a national organization, with members in every county if possible, who would see to it that the best tariff literature was sent to the homes of farmers? The farmers of the West are intelligent and open to conviction, but partisan harangues and "campaign documents" will never educate them, or hardly change a vote. H.

Beatrice, Neb., January 12, 1889.

Notes.

It is proposed to undertake a series of facsimiles of the choicest treasures of the Bodleian Library, if adequate support is forthcoming. The works will be selected for their special rarity or for some unusual importance or interest attaching to them. Subscribers will secure lowest rates. The first three reproductions will be the Caedmon MS. (10s. 6d. per part of twelve); 'Ars Moriendi: that is to saye the craft for to deye for the helthe of mannes sowle' (a supposed unique Caxton, 1491, 2s. 6d.); a rare and perhaps unique description of the procession ordered by the Pope in thanksgiving for the St. Bartholomew massacre (1s. 6d.). Prepayment is required. Subscribers should address Mr. Henry Frowde, Oxford University Press Warehouse, Amen Corner, London. Specimens of the facsimiles have been sent out, with descriptions of the above documents.

Harper & Bros. publish directly 'The Government of the United States,' a text-book and manual, by W. J. Cocker; 'Our English,' by Prof. Adams S. Hill; 'Modern Science in Bible Lands,' by Sir J. W. Dawson; and Charles Reade's 'Bible Characters.'

A translation of Duruy's 'Histoire de France,' abridged, for the use of schools, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co. Prof. J. F. Jameson of Brown University has supervised it.

Ginn & Co. publish next month 'An Introduction to the Poetry of Robert Browning,' by Prof. Wm. John Alexander of Dalhousie College.

Frederick Warne & Co.'s next issue in their "Cavendish Library" will be 'Leigh Hunt as Poet and Essayist,' being the choicest passages from his works, selected and edited, with a biographical introduction, by Charles Kent.

The production of novels continues without abatement. We are promised 'A Shocking Example, and Other Sketches,' by Frances Courtenay Baylor (Lippincott); 'Raleigh Westgate; or, Epimenides in Maine,' by Mrs. Helen Kendrick Johnson (Appletons); 'Vagabond Stories,' by Prof. H. H. Boyesen (D. Lothrop Co.); 'A Nine Men's Morrice,' by Walter Herries Pollock, and 'A Dangerous Catspaw,' by D. Christie Murray and Henry Murray (Longmans); and 'Frederick Struther's Romance,' by Albert Ulmann (Brentano's.)

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn will undertake a "Student's Series of Latin Classics," under the editorial supervision of Prof. Ernest Mondell Pease of Bowdoin College. The collaborators represent many and widely separated colleges.

Lockhart's 'Ancient Spanish Ballads' is the latest volume of the Messrs. Putnam's "Nugget Series." It is no small part of the merit of this edition that it reproduces, at a reduced scale, wood engravings of the school of Harvey which are well worth comparing with our present style, by way of correction of excessive complacency.

The same publishers send us their 'Pocket Gazetteer of the World,' edited by J. G. Bartholomew. Its 625 pages will be found sufficiently inclusive for ordinary reference, and the information generally trustworthy. Where the single-line brevity is departed from, a disproportion is sometimes observable. Both New York and Baltimore, to take American examples, are allowed less than their due space. England and her dependencies have been especially well looked after. Sir W. W. Hunter's Indian orthography has been adopted, but with cross references. A few maps of rainfall, population, races, etc., conclude the little volume.

Roberts Brothers continue their reissue of Arthur Helps's works with his 'Story of Realmah."

B. Westermann & Co. are the American publishers of the new edition of the "Porta Linguarum Orientalium," which has introduced so many students to the study of Oriental languages. The latest additions to the series are the Syriac Grammar of Dr. Eberhard Nestle, translated by Prof. A. R. S. Kennedy of the University of Aberdeen, and an Arabic Bible-Chrestomathy, with a Glossary, by George Jacob, Ph. D., of the Royal Library of Berlin. Dr. Nestle is in every way qualified for the task, and the German original of his grammar has already reached a second edition. Dr. Jacob's Chrestomathy is published as a sort of appendix to the Arabic Grammar of the series by Dr. Socin. On the theory that the Arabic Bible versions did not properly represent the language, he omitted them entirely from his Chrestomathy. For practical reasons, however, teachers of Oriental languages desired portions of the Bible in their text-books, and it was to meet this want that the Bible-Chrestomathy was published. The selection is representative, including texts from Genesis, Judges, Samuel, Kings, Psalms, and Matthew. The latter work is poorly translated. The publication of the series in English affords a striking proof of the interest had in Semetic studies in this country and England.

In this connection it may be remarked that the inaugural dissertations at the German universities generally reflect the impress of the teacher on the student's mind, and may therefore be taken as indicative of the prevailing lines of work. Among the newer dissertations in the line of Semitic research are "Rabbi Meir: the Life and Work of a Jewish Scholar of the Second Century after Christ, from the sources," by Adolf Blumenthal; "The Age of the Prophet Joel," by G. Kessner; "Syriac Version of the Twelve Minor Prophets," by M. S. Schönberger; and "The Kuteans as Observers of the Law, from Talmudic sources," by Israel Tagelicht.

The German Government is engaged in publishing catalogues of the manuscripts preserved in the Royal Library of Berlin. There have appeared recently the volumes on the Armenian manuscripts, by Dr. N. Karamianz; Persian, by Wilhelm Pertsch; Sanskrit and Prakrit, by A. Weber. The Trustees of the British Museum have just published a catalogue of their Turkish manuscripts prepared by Dr. Charles Rieu.

There has just issued from the Calcutta press the Report of the Archæological Survey of India, by Joseph Daviditch Milik-Beglaroff; from Bombay, the original Pahlavi text of the 'Dinkard' (vol. v.), the great religious commentary, with a translation and glossary by Peshotan Dastur Behramjee Sanjana; and from London (Trübner), 'Next-of-kin Marriages in Old Iran,' by Darab Dastur Peshotan Sunjana.

In addition to the £50 granted to our countryman, Mr. L. H. Mills, translator of the 'Zend Avesta,' by the British Secretary of State for India, the trustees of the Sir J. Jejeebhoy Translation Fund of Bombay have voted Mr. Mills 925 rupees towards his translation of the Gâthas, the first volume of which has been doing its work in widely-extended private circulation among specialists in Germany and elsewhere for the past four or five years.

Among the recent publications of the United States Geological Survey is Bulletin 47, containing "analyses of waters of the Yellowstone National Park, with an account of the methods of analysis employed." The investigation is the work of Dr. F. A. Gooch and Mr. J. Edward Whitfield upon the waters collected by those engaged in conducting the geological survey of the region, and gives the result of an examination of forty-three waters. It includes the waters thrown out by such geysers as "Old Faithful," "Splendid," and "Giantess," and the principal hot springs found throughout the Park. Surface waters have also been studied, including those from Yellowstone Lake and the supply to the hotels at the Mammoth Hot Springs. Estimations of the amount of boric acid, bromide, arsenic, and lithium have been made in most instances in the silicious waters; they may properly be called arsenical waters. This able research should be of value, not only to geologists and chemists, but to physicians and all interested in the therapeutic qualities of thermal waters from volcanic areas.

Against the day when the Maritime Provinces of the Dominion of Canada obey the law of their geographical position, and join our Republic, there should be a certain interest taken in the collections of the

Nova Scotia Historical Society. The volume for 1887-88 has just come to hand, and the titles of the leading papers will show that the more the Province cultivates historical studies, the more it must turn its face westward. Justice Weatherbe discusses at considerable length "The Acadian Boundary Dispute and the Ashburton Treaty," and concludes that the unfair settlement "must be rectified." The Rev. T. Watson Webb has an equally long paper on "The Loyalists at Shelburne," with much curious matter about slavery in Nova Scotia. "It was the harsh treatment of a slave by a Loyalist master who had carried him to London," he says, that evoked Lord Mansfield's famous decision, a prelude to the decisive attack on the slave-trade. A decision of Chief-Justice Osgoode's abolished slavery in Upper Canada in 1793. Ten years later it was abolished in Lower Canada. A third paper, only a little less directly international, is Mr. J. J. Stewart's "Early Journalism in Nova Scotia," a subject not without its attractions for our genealogists at least. Moreover, John Bushell, who founded the Halifax *Gazette* on March 23, 1752, was a printer from Boston, and our Bostonian Isaiah Thomas worked in the office of this journal, which was the first issued in the present Dominion, and, being continued to this day (*Royal Gazette*), is the oldest in America. No complete file exists. "King's College and Episcopate in Nova Scotia" and "Notes on the Early History of St. George's Church" complete the volume.

Mr. S. S. Rider, Providence, R. I., sends us the bound fifth volume of his *Book Notes*, a periodical having a very marked individuality, and consisting, as the editor-publisher says, of "literary gossip, criticisms of books, and local historical matters connected with Rhode Island." It is these local matters which ensure the preservation of *Book Notes*, and they are properly honored with an index which fills a page and a half. But, as our readers are aware, Mr. Rider not seldom touches topics unenumerated on his title-page, and especially our iniquitous tariff, which is, indeed, a "local matter," but only because no corner of the country can escape from it, and which deserves speedily to become "historical." We commend *Book Notes* to the class whom this description interests.

The *American Architect*, Boston, will award in June a travelling-scholarship of $500, "open to architectural students, draughtsmen, and architects, between the ages of twenty and twenty-five years, in *any* part of the country, whether they be male or female, white, red, or black." A condition previous to the required examination (oral and written) is that the applicant must have had two years' practice in offices of members of the American Institute of Architects or the Western Association of Architects, or one year in the case of graduates from a technical school.

The *Belletristisches Journal* of this city, one of the oldest and in former days most influential of German-American weeklies, has passed under the editorial control of Dr. Julius Goebel, until recently of the Johns Hopkins University. The *Journal* will, as hitherto, maintain its politico-literary character, drawing equally from German-American and European sources. We notice, by the way, in its issue of January 17, an elaborate article from the Leipzig *Grenzboten* on "The United States in the light of the last Presidential Election," which, in spite of its pessimistic views as to our moral status, and its gratuitous anti-Semitic fling at the Belmonts, instructively belies its own thesis, that "European interest in the political affairs of the United States is steadily decreasing."

Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., will publish his *American Genealogical Queries* for 1889 in April. It is a sort of clearing-house, in which advertisers notify each other and all readers of their wants.

The new monthly *Poet-Lore* (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is typographically well conceived and attractive. Dr. D. G. Brinton furnishes the leading paper, on "Facettes of Love; from Browning," and everything else is scrappy in comparison, Shakspere dividing about equally with Browning.

The quality of "natural science" likely to be provided by the founder of a periodical called *Greeley*, may be inferred. Published not on the Plains but in Boston (Dorchester), Mass., on yellow paper and with yellow covers containing a full-length portrait of the late editor of the *Tribune*, this new venture is a curiosity.

Another queer Boston notion is the monthly *Collegian*, launched in the present month. It opens one more medium for ambitious undergraduate writers, and has a nebulous and noncommittal programme. The editor himself writes of college journalism that "one cannot locate it antipodal to the secular press, certainly not above it, and yet not parallel"

The *Jurnal ov American Orthoepy*, published at Ringos, N. J., by Dr. C. W. Larison, is not new, but it has a perennial freshness and capacity to amuse, both by its odd phonetic spelling and type, and by its contents. The editor tells a story very graphically, and he has in the January number a frank delineation of his grandfather. This humorist, who "livd in a da in hwich fiting woz fashunabul," finding it necessary, in one of his numerous encounters, to bite off his antagonist's ear, got up "chuing it lustili. He yuzed tu lafingly sa: 'That iz the onli tim I ever tasted ro sous' [raw sousse]."

Mr. J. H. Hickcox's monthly 'Catalogue of Government Publications' (906 M Street, Washington) has, by the compiler's persistence in combination with excellent performance, weathered its fourth year, and now enters with good prospects on its fifth volume. We may remind our readers, and all librarians, that it embraces *all* the current publications of the Government, and makes "separate entry of every paper or contribution contained in reports, bulletins, or serial publications of the Government." Each volume (of about 300 pp.) is indexed.

The seventh series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies opens with a sketch of Arthur Toynbee, by F. C. Montague, Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, with an account of Toynbee Hall by the Chairman of the Council.

The *American Journal of Psychology* for November is strong in three leading articles on "Personal Equation," by E. C. Stanford; "Memory, Historically and Experimentally Considered," by W. H. Burnham; and "The Place for the Study of Language in a Curriculum of Education," by Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi.

Sun and Shade for January has an excellent variety of plates from very dissimilar sources, Mr. Jackson's view from nature of the cañon of the Rio Las Animas being at the front, in our estimation. Some of Mr. Muybridge's instantaneous views of horses in motion are instructively grouped with one of a horse race.

—In its issue for January 3, *Nature* has added to its series of "Scientific Worthies" a sketch of Professor Sylvester, whose fruitful activity at the Johns Hopkins University during the first seven years of its existence makes his career of special interest to Americans. The biographical part of the article is brief and rather meagre, though, to be sure, little can be expected to be said concerning the mere outward events of a mathematician's life. Apart from the record of his successive positions and honors, the most interesting point mentioned is contained in the closing sentence: "Wherever Dr. Sylvester goes, there is sure to be mathematical activity; and the latest proof of this is the formation, during the last term at Oxford, of a Mathematical Society, which promises, we hear without surprise, to do much for the advancement of mathematical science there." It is pleasant to those who came within the sphere of his stimulating enthusiasm in America to be thus assured that, in his seventy-fifth year, his ardor and activity are as unimpaired as his mental powers. The sketch of Sylvester's mathematical writings is from the pen of his great comrade in mathematical arms, Professor Cayley. It covers four columns, of which nearly two are devoted to the papers which appeared in the *American Journal of Mathematics*. The bare record of mathematical achievements, of which the very names are symbols of mystery to the uninitiated, is enlivened by several illustrations of that "adornment or enthusiasm of language" which is so marked a peculiarity of Sylvester, sometimes launching him into mere extravagance, but often full of deep significance as well as of beauty. In his account of Sylvester's work during the years 1851-4, when the great structure of what is known as Modern Algebra was being built up, Cayley is, naturally enough, silent as to the overwhelming importance of his own share in that achievement; but one is all the more reminded of the complete absence of jealousy or rivalry between these two men, whose discoveries were then so treading upon one another's heels that it is difficult to trace the exact measure of credit due to each. The steel engraving which accompanies the article is an admirable portrait.

—The initial number of the *Library* (London: E. Stock) which takes the place of the *Library Chronicle* as the organ of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, recommends itself by its neat and pleasing typographical appearance, and offers a very attractive table of contents. The place of honor is occupied by Austin Dobson's paper, "A Forgotten Book of Travels," descriptive of C. P. Moritz's 'Travels through England in 1782.' It may be questioned, however, whether a book reprinted in popular form in 1886 ('Cassell's National Library,' No. 46) can fairly be called *forgotten*. Mr. Blades contributes an interesting account of some very curious proposals made two centuries ago for the founding of public libraries in Great Britain. A. H. Bullen has a short article on W. J. Linton's "Appledore Private Press," near New Haven. H. R. Tedder's paper on the "Bibliography and Classification of French History" is chiefly devoted to a review of Monod's recently issued 'Bibliographie de l' histoire de France,' with a few words in illustration of the writer's own proposals for a bibliography of the printed sources of English history—proposals which it is to be hoped he may be enabled to carry into practical effect. "Theophrastus Junior" begins what promises to be a series of entertaining sketches, describing the characteristics of some of the more notable varieties of the species *Librarian*, the first place—"for indeed he considereth himself *facile princeps* in all things"—being given to the "Practical Librarian."

"Himself chooseth this name, and is proud when he is spoken of as a 'Jack-of-all

trades,' and observeth not that his flatterer thrusteth his tongue into his cheek and chortleth softly, as who should say 'and eke master of none.' He vaunteth himself above his fellows, and speaketh learnedly of buckram and of its virtues. The wares he deals in are the beggarly elements of books and things bookish; and if one should speak to him of the spiritual essence of books, or would fain have his opinion on a doubtful passage in Dan Chaucer, your practical librarian (God save the mark!) hath ever ready a pat quotation from an ancient author who ever loved a doubtful epigram—'The librarian who reads is lost.' His library is littered with cunning inventions, more apt to attract the wayward attention of a thoughtless student, and to amuse him by their ingenuity, than to tempt him to his book. Speak to this librarian of his catalogue, and he will presently wax eloquent on the importance of all cards being of the size prescribed by the 'Universal Emporium,' and he will straightway draw a fine metre from his pouch and triumphantly prove to you the orthodoxy of his. He disdaineth the old-fashioned ladders—fit emblems to the student of his upward path—and will peck at his topmost books with a sort of mechanic crane. The fair bindings be chipped and the goodly tomes fall about his long ears, but what of that? Is not the thing mechanic, which he misnames practical, and so also himself?"

—a sketch which reads as if drawn from life, nor is this variety unknown in America. A brief notice of the recently issued report on the progress of the Bodleian Library from 1882 to 1887, if it does not damn with faint praise, certainly pays some rather equivocal compliments to the energy of the librarian. The remaining contents of the number comprise notices of new books, library notes and news, a record of bibliography and library literature, and a letter from Walter Besant, containing an appeal in behalf of the library of the People's Palace for gifts of books, which should find a hearty response from all interested in the good work which is being done in the East End of London.

— For 'The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States in German, French, and English, in Parallel Columns' (Laidlaw Bros.), the claim, both false and absurd, is made that it is the first translation of these documents into French and German. They have, on the contrary, been translated into French scores of times, and frequently into German. Both documents were published in French in a volume entitled 'Constitutions des Treize États-Unis de l'Amérique, etc.' (Paris, 1792); and both, with many other documents in French, in a volume issued at "Nouvelle-Orléans" in 1810. The Declaration of Independence is translated into French, German, and Italian, and printed in English, in a volume (without date) probably printed in France during the Revolution. The Constitution is printed in German and English in a little volume called 'Der Deutsche in Amerika,' etc. (1851). These indications will suffice for our purpose. The present publication, nevertheless, has many valuable features. It is just the thing to put into the hands of a Frenchman or a German who wishes to understand our Government, or into those of an American who desires to familiarize himself with certain important words and phrases in German and French. The table of contents is very copious, and gives a complete skeleton of the Constitution, easy of reference. Best of all are the notes, which, though very brief, are clear, and embrace an outline of the constitutional organization from the time of the first colonies; they give the most important historical facts and dates in connection with the constitutional history, contrast the Constitution with the Articles of Confederation, and carefully explain the technical phrases and many of the clauses of the former.

—'Die Geschichte der Deutschen Universitäten' by George Kaufmann ('Erster Band: Vorgeschichte.' Stuttgart: Cotta. 1888. Pp. 442) is a work that will add much to the reputation of the well-known author of 'Deutsche Geschichte bis auf Karl den Grossen.' In the preface we are informed that he was induced to write this book by Dr. Von Goslar, Prussian Minister of Education, to whose cordial official support the author acknowledges his obligations. The volume before us is a general history of European universities down to the year 1500. As the mediæval universities were the product and supporters of scholasticism, the author discusses the latter subject in detail in chapter i. (pp. 1–97). The early history of the universities of Italy, France, England, and Spain is carefully considered in chapters iii., iv., and v. The remaining chapters (ii. and vi.) are devoted to a discussion of the origin and development of universities in general. The history of the German universities in the Middle Ages will be taken up in volume ii. The list of authorities (pp. 430-442) forms a useful bibliography of the literature relating to mediæval institutions of learning. In many important points the author differs with Denifle, though acknowledging the value of the latter's great work on 'Die Universitäten des Mittelalters bis 1400.' Dr. Kaufmann expects to publish two more volumes, concluding the whole work with "a critical view of the many schemes of university reform made since the days of Kant and Schleiermacher." The volume before us is dedicated to the University of Bologna, in honor of the latter's anniversary celebration. In this connection we may call attention to two excellent pamphlets, recently published, relating to the history of the University of Bologna: Leonhard's 'Die Universität Bologna im Mittelalter' (Leipzig: Veit. 1888), and Fitting's 'Die Anfänge der Rechtschule zu Bologna' (Berlin: Gutentag. 1888).

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

The Diary and Letters of Gouverneur Morris, Minister of the United States to France; Member of the Constitutional Convention, etc. Edited by Anne Cary Morris. 2 vols. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888.

The publication of Gouverneur Morris's diary, substantially as he left it, is a literary event of no ordinary importance. We have had glimpses of it before—first in the pages of Sparks, where, however, the reader was not quite sure how far the outlines and colors of the picture were modified or obscured by the anxious care of the editor; and then in Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's short biography, which, from its brevity, could give us little more than occasional extracts. But now we have the diary itself in its integrity. The expurgations have been few and far between, and are only such as were absolutely necessary. The editor has added a running text of comment and explanation, and has very wisely allowed Morris to tell his own story, without attempting discussion or argument on controvertible points. Of these, of course, there are a multitude, as especially the subject of Lafayette's career and Morris's relations with him.

The important thing in such matters is that we should get the whole story, and this we certainly do from one side. From first to last, from the time when in 1789 Morris makes this entry of a conversation with the French Commander-in-Chief—"I ask him if his troops will obey him. He says they will not mount guard when it rains, but he thinks they will readily follow him into action" (Vol. I, p. 156)—down to the time when, after the unsatisfactory termination of their pecuniary relations, Morris sums up his character by saying: "There is no drawing the sound of a trumpet from a whistle," we see Lafayette as he appeared to Morris—a second-rate and rather dishonest man, attempting to play a part much above him. This is not the usually accepted view of Lafayette's character, but it is the more important on that account, coming as it does from a man with Morris's opportunities of observation. One or two points the diary make quite clear: Morris at heart despised Lafayette, partly as a revolutionist, and partly as a phrasemonger; Lafayette found it difficult to get on with Morris because the latter was for ever trying to convince him how foolish all his opinions were.

Morris (who was of French extraction on his mother's side) went to Paris in 1789, at the age of thirty-seven, to superintend some business affairs, and remained abroad some nine or ten years. He thus arrived just as the Revolution broke out. He lived in Paris through most of it, and, at its most stormy period, in 1792, was made American Minister. With undaunted courage he remained at his post, the only representative of a foreign government in the city; and his diary accordingly gives us a sort of photograph of the revolutionary period as it appeared to an exceptionally intelligent and well-equipped foreigner, who had the *entrée* of French society as few other foreigners have ever had. He was exceptionally well-equipped, for he had not only every advantage in the way of education, but had already taken a leading part in our Revolution and the formation of our government. What the French were doing, or thought they were doing, he had already seen done and helped to do. The friend of Hamilton, Washington, and Jay, he approached the subject of the French struggle for liberty with a thorough comprehension of the forces at work, and without illusions. So much has been published within the last thirty years about this period that it cannot be said that Morris's picture is absolutely novel. Through the researches of Taine and the publication of innumerable French memoirs, we have become familiar with a view which is more or less that of the diary. Thirty years ago the book would have created a profound sensation. The picture of the Revolution is wonderfully complete. The King, benevolent and irresolute, the victim, in a certain sense, of his own virtues; the Queen, detested and detesting, certain only to do the wrong thing; the nobles, urging on the pitiless revolution which was to swallow them up; the army, a hotbed of treason; the Tiers-État, in the name of liberty, steadily preparing despotism and a dictatorship—of all these we get glimpses more or less picturesque, always clear and accurate, as the panorama unrolls itself. It is not Carlyle's lurid canvas, but a philosophical exhibition of a revolution by an observer who actually understands the mechanism of the disturbance much better than do most of those who think they are guiding it.

Morris's character appears very clearly in these volumes, and it is partly because of this that they are so entertaining. He is not one of the majestic shades of the Revolution who stalk through the pages of a pious biographer, an incarnation of the domestic virtues and public spirit, flawless even in the privacy of dressing-gown and slippers. On the contrary, he is a cheerful and somewhat cynical man of the world, seeing clearly what is going on about him, and with a good gift for putting down in black and white what he sees. Skeptical by disposition and habit, this half-English, half-American gentleman cuts rather an odd figure

in the midst of the enthusiasts of the French Revolution, pointing out to this patriot that they are all going, as Carlyle would say, to "the mother of dead dogs," and to the other that his scheme of reform is utterly inane and worthless; preserving through all the dangers and horrors of the time a constant cheerfulness and a power of sympathy which enables him to effect the difficult combination of the rôle of a prophet of evil with that of a popular favorite.

Morris may be said to have been English in his convictions and French in his sympathies. He liked the society of Paris, enjoyed its brightness and charm. It is evident that he enjoyed his mastery of a language which gifted him with new powers for the exhibition of his own cleverness. If there was one thing that he liked better than to write doubtfully poetical English verses in the taste of the period, it was to turn a neat phrase in French. He was very fond of women's society, to judge by the amount of his time it took up, though he himself professes great indifference; and where were to be found more charming women than in Paris? But Morris as an observer was never diverted from the truth by his likes. This interesting people, he felt, were children in the art of government, and consequently immeasurably below the race to which he belonged. Contempt, mingled with pity and sympathy, was what he really felt at the bottom of his heart for his charming and witty entertainers. In 1790 he gives an account of the Assembly and its deliberative methods which is inimitable, and which is scarcely an exaggeration of what may still be witnessed in the French House:

"They discuss nothing," he says, "in the Assembly. One large half of the time is spent in hollowing and bawling—their manner of speaking. Those who intend to speak write their names on a tablet, and are heard in the order that their names are written down, if the others will hear them, which they often refuse to do, keeping up a continual uproar till the orator leaves the pulpit. Each man permitted to speak delivers the result of his lucubrations, so that the opposing parties fire off their cartridges, and it is a million to one if their missile arguments happen to meet."

He then goes on to speak of the custom of reading these speeches beforehand to a small society of young men and women—"generally the fair friend of the speaker is one"—who of course give their approval. "Do not suppose," he adds, conscious that this method of preparing for a critical political debate will hardly be intelligible to his correspondent (Washington), "I am playing the traveller. I have assisted at some of these readings." He gives an account of one at Mme. de Staël's where

"the Comte de Clermont-Tonnerre (one of their greatest orators) read to us a very pathetic oration, the object of which was to show that, as penalties are the legal compensation for injuries and crimes, the man who is hanged, having by that event paid his debt to society, ought not to be held in dishonor; and in like manner he who has been condemned for seven years to be flogged in the galleys should, when he had served out his apprenticeship, be received again into good company as if nothing had happened."

This particular oration was never delivered, it seems, because Morris was at the pains to explain to the company that, notwithstanding the eloquence of the oration, its principles were not very solid. "Universal surprise. A few remarks changed the face of things. The position was universally condemned and he left the room." But Morris insists that Clermont-Tonnerre's speech was "of the kind which produces a decree by acclamation" (there being no Morris present to refute), and adds,

"For sometimes an orator gets up in the midst of another deliberation, makes a fine discourse, and closes with a good snug resolution which is carried with a huzza. Thus, in considering a plan for a national bank proposed by M. Necker, one of them took it into his head to move that every member should give his silver buckles, which was agreed to at once, and the honorable member laid his upon the table, after which the business went on again" (Vol. i. pp. 278–9.)

But this contempt was an attitude of the mind. Morris's sympathies were all with the people whom he so mercilessly ridicules.

The diary is a perfectly matter-of-fact record of events, such as it can hardly be supposed Morris ever could have contemplated publishing exactly as it stood. This by no means detracts from its value. The omissions made by the present editor have been slight and unimportant. Some day, perhaps, the diary will be published *verbatim*, but we certainly have the substance of it now, and, to take a single instance, it could only be a prurient curiosity that would desire to know more of Morris's relations with Mme. de Flahaut than we have here given. This whole *affaire de cœur* adds greatly to the personal interest of the book. Morris, cynic that he was, always represents himself as raised by reason or indifference above the influence of the tender passion; he even uses some such expression as that of having a "vast fund of indifference" to the attractions of women. Yet here, in the privacy of his diary, whom do we find to be the person round whom it revolves? Whose name is inscribed on every other page, whose conversation is given at length, with whom do we continually have tête-à-têtes? Whose fortunes do we follow with the same keen interest that we feel for those of the heroine of a romance? Whose views and conversations are always sensible, whose situation always touching? Mme. de Flahaut, as the story progresses, gains our warm regard and sympathy; her father-confessor, the Bishop of Autun, who is always sure to be in the way whenever Morris makes a call, who is always in the wrong whenever he attempts to advise or act, serves as a foil for Morris's own cleverness. Morris had undoubtedly a "vast fund of indifference" for the Bishop, and the figure the latter cuts in these pages is such that it really requires a footnote to remind us that he is no other than the celebrated Talleyrand. A dull fellow—we cannot help thinking—a much overrated man. He seems to be sitting in the corner, blinking in his sacerdotal way at Mme. de Flahaut, while his witty rival is scintillating on the other side, or listening with sympathetic interest to the husband's lamentation over the immorality of the times and the wrongs of married men. The whole picture is perfect. We can only wonder whether Talleyrand has left behind him in his yet unpublished memoirs as amusing a caricature of Morris as Morris has left us of the Bishop.

Morris's remarks on the condition of France during the Revolution and his prophecies with regard to the future, with which the diary abounds, are full of interest. Though not blind to the economical benefits to be derived from the Revolution, he was entirely skeptical as to political results, and foresaw almost from the beginning that the convulsion would end in a despotism, though the kind of despotism he anticipated was not quite that which the Revolution actually produced. Coming from a country of simple habits, and in which the struggle for freedom had brought out the best qualities of both people and leaders, he was shocked to find the operation of cause and effect reversed in France, and liberty produce the wildest excesses of vice, folly, and crime; and this, combined with his strong race instinct that the Revolution, from the very fact that it was French, was in bad hands, made him always a prophet of evil. In detail, his prophecies were as remarkable for their number as for anything else. He seems to have thought originally that the despot was to be in the end some one representing the royal or aristocratic party; he was entirely wrong in his predictions of disaster to the French armies. As to the assignats and other devices of French finance, he was always right, owing, not to any special gift for prophecy, but to his having had a thorough economical education and an unusually clear mind. He probably did astonish the French society in which he was living by his power of prevision, because he was particularly skilled in a matter of which they knew little or nothing—the application of common sense to public affairs.

As a diplomatist, Morris's career was striking. At a time when, as we have said, the representatives of other powers all abandoned their posts, he remained at the French capital, surrounded by dangers to which most of his friends thought it needless that he should expose himself. Had the Government or the people of Paris known his real sentiments about the Revolution, or got wind of his attempt to save the unhappy King, he would probably not have escaped alive; but Morris, in dealing with Frenchmen, whether at a dinner-table or in the midst of a domiciliary visit, was gifted with an extraordinary tact which never deserted him. Whenever he came into collision with the authorities he always managed to come off triumphant, and generally to extract an apology from them. In fact, it may be said of him in a certain sense that he was more successful in France than in his own country; for his career after his recall and return to America was a little that of a statesman *en décadence*, though this was also due to the fallen fortunes of his party, and the rise of the new Democracy led by Jefferson. The Federalists, though they laid the foundation of the Constitution, and of America as we know it, were, after all, in feeling and tradition English country-gentlemen, and felt towards the new party very much as people with property to lose now feel towards anarchists, communists, and dynamiters—or even more strongly, because its leaders were educated men, their own acquaintances and quondam friends. But Morris's period of true glory was in France, when, as a private citizen, he took an active part in the opening of the great drama of the Revolution; when, respected and trusted by all parties, he was consulted to-day by the King's friends, the next by Lafayette, again by Sieyès or Necker; when, in the midst of the gayest and brightest society of his time, he was courted and flattered by the leaders, and envied by the multitude; when he was photographing the scenes of the Revolution for posterity in his diary, and explaining with the utmost clearness to audiences astonished at his profundity and foresight, how it must surely produce disaster and sorrow—and when, it should be added, he was never weary of relieving disaster and sorrow. No foreigner in a great capital at a critical period ever played a more interesting and at the same time more creditable part.

Outside of society and politics, Morris appears to have had few interests. His diary is singularly barren of references to literature or art. In this respect he was essentially an American of his time. He differed from most other Americans of his time in being thoroughly at home in Europe. He was a complete man of the world; and, distinguished as was the part he played in American politics (on which these

volumes throw no especially new light), what he is most likely to be permanently remembered by is his curious record of his life in Paris. From a thousand other sources we know now, what we might have doubted a generation ago, that it is true to life, an invaluable memorial of the stormy dawn of republican government in Europe, an exact picture of the times, with just enough biographical interest to lend an added zest. It is not, to be sure, a flattered picture. But the very contempt with which this newly arrived American philosopher watches the struggles and intrigues of the French politicians is based on profound differences of national character and habits, which more or less justify the feeling they inspire. In reading Morris's pages, what we feel to be most strange is that the French Revolution did not turn everybody into a Conservative.

It must be remembered that in getting an impression of Morris's character from his diary we are not seeing him in the most favorable light. He scorned to make himself out better than he was, and, being of a cynical turn, there is a tone of hardness and calculated self-interest in these pages which, as we read, we feel is a little assumed. Mr. Sparks's biography has the merit of letting us see, not merely how Morris looked to himself, but how he appeared to other people; and one of the best things in it is an analysis of his character drawn by a French lady whom he had protected from some of the horrors of the Revolution —Mme. de Damas, if we remember right. This, while it lays bare several blemishes, sums up the other side with a warm encomium such as the reader hardly expects, and which certainly few of the rivals and contemporaries of his social heyday in Paris ever had said of them —"He is good." It was no doubt in accordance with the bent of his disposition that the world should find him always clever, but that his friends should know him to be something more.

TWO GLOBE TROTTERS.

People and Countries Visited in a Winding Journey Around the World. By O. W. Wight, A.M., M.D. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

Aalesund to Tetuan : A Journey. By Charles R. Corning. Boston : Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

HERE are two large, handsome, well-printed books ; but why they were published, unless simply to gratify the vanity of their authors, is hard to imagine. Surely, the publishers could not have expected to make a profit from them, and the profit to the reader will be even less. Mr. Corning's book is by far the better and more amusing of the two. He goes over well-known ground—France, Italy, Spain, Norway, and Russia ; but he tried to see things thoroughly, and his impressions are evidently genuine. Occasionally there are remarks that are clever, as where, referring to Monte Carlo, of which he gives a good description, he says :

"You may pass the remaining hours of your stay in the innocent pleasures of the orchestra, in the reading-room, or in sauntering through the perfumed gardens, where virtue and sin meet face to face, only to disappear among the winding walks."

Or again :

"Each nation carries its gods to Nice, so that the pleasures of exile may not be embittered by the pangs of forgotten necessities. Vodka and prime cocktails may be had, and the red pyramids of Bass adorn cafés and grocery shops. Nice is a fertile field for missionary work; but neither during my stay, nor since, have I heard of its vigorous prosecution. The trouble seems to be that the climate and the surroundings are opposed to attempts tending to hard work of any but a secular kind."

His account of Russia is better and more accurate than in most books of the kind. Its chief defect—although the author has evidently fought against it—is generalizing too hastily from insufficient observation.

This defect is, if one may so speak, the chief quality of Mr. Wight's 'Winding Journey Around the World,' "made in order to observe every country in which an Aryan people has established civil government." He was assisted, as he boasts, by his previous profound studies in history and philosophy ; his book is indeed rich in long quotations, but his historical statements are of the kind found in every guide-book, and his statistics are those of the contemporary newspaper. In order to study Aryan civilization, the author left New York early in the spring of 1887, and by the first of September had seen Germany, Italy, Greece, Turkey, European and Asiatic Russia, Norway and Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, France, and Switzerland. It looks very much as if he had used a Cook's ticket. Hungary is not entirely an Aryan country ; but why should Austria, Spain, and Portugal be omitted from his studies of life on the spot, from his "pursuit of such vital knowledge," from his effort to "observe at once people and country in their intimate relations"? In these three or four months he had made such close, though necessarily rapid, observations, and had acquired such a fund of political knowledge, as to enable him to speak decisively and with the authority of a master on the present and future of Europe. As his steamer only touched at Corfu for an hour, he says : "I had no time to explore the island and seek out its many points of beautiful view. Somehow I preferred to gaze in imagination on the dark stream of Time flowing swiftly past, freighted with the débris of three thousand years of human history." And yet he is able to write half a dozen pages on the island. The Austrian Lloyd steamers stop for a few hours at the Piræus on their way to Constantinople, and thus Mr. Wight was able, like many others, to pay a flying visit to the Acropolis. "I did not stop a moment to look at the modern city of Athens. . . . It [the Acropolis] was the only thing at Athens that I cared to see." Of course, there was no time for the interesting Byzantine churches, for the Temple of Theseus and other classical remains, for the tombs at the Ceramicus, for the splendid Museum of Sculpture, for the Tanagra statuettes, or the antiquities from Mycenæ—which may not indeed have been Aryan—even had Mr. Wight ever heard of these objects of interest. And yet he was able to study the character of the modern Greeks so deeply as to say :

"The living Greeks are only a hopeless reminiscence of their great ancestors. . . . They talk politics very bravely in the coffee-houses, but are not very dangerous except as highwaymen. . . . There are people of worth and culture among the modern Greeks, but they are exceptions to the rule. The Greeks of Athens to-day are no more like the Greeks in the time of Themistocles and Pericles than gray night is like the sunny day. The people are changed quite as much as the city itself."

He was able, too, to write a good, long chapter about Greece, with the help, it is true, of a nine-page quotation from Curtius.

In Russia the author's hasty trip through the Caucasus and thence to Moscow and St. Petersburg enabled him fully to understand the present position of that country, and to refute, to his own satisfaction, Mr. Kennan's statements about the working of the exile system in Siberia. It is surprising, however, to hear him say: "Of the one hundred and fifty bridges that span the Neva, unite the islands, and cross the canals, only two are permanent; all the rest are built on pontoons and are removable in winter." He evidently misread and mistranslated his German Baedeker, to which those who wish to know the real state of the case are referred. In point of fact, all the bridges of St. Petersburg are permanent, except two of those across the Neva. A page, however, would be too small for a catalogue of incorrect statements, misspellings—even if they are kindly called misprints—to say nothing of the incorrect use of language.

Leaving England on September 1, the author sailed straight for Australia, which he reached in forty-eight days. Passing by India without stopping, although that was one of the early homes of the Aryan race, he landed at Sydney, took a flying trip by railway to Melbourne, sailed from Sydney to San Francisco, touching at Auckland in New Zealand—and this book is the result. The best part of it is the beginning, where there is an account of some earlier journeys, during which Mr. Wight met Sir William Hamilton, M. Cousin, De Quincey, Carlyle, Mme. Mohl, and a number of other interesting people; but even about them he does not say much that is entertaining, for somehow he seems not to have belonged to their set, but appears as an outsider. In spite of his intimacy with Sir William Hamilton's family, he seems to think that he was succeeded by his son Hubert, who was not the eldest son, but whom he apparently happened to meet. He tells us what he said to Carlyle at some length, but he does not repeat what Carlyle said to him. He tells, too, how he had "occasion to sharply rebuke" the American Minister at Rome, Mr. Cass, "for supercilious treatment of distinguished people from his own country"; the fact being that on some occasion, when the author was dining with a lady in the company of Mr. Lowell, Mr. Cass sent up his card, and, finding them at dinner, went away without entering, although the lady of the house had left the table to give him a proper reception in the drawing-room, "and soon returned in a state of high indignation."

MORE STATE HISTORIES.

A History of Ohio, with Biographical Sketches of the Governors, and the Ordinance of 1787. By Daniel J. Ryan. Columbus, O.: A. H. Smythe. 1888. 12mo, 210 pp.

Ohio: First Fruits of the Ordinance of 1787. By Rufus King. [American Commonwealths Series.] Boston : Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

Indiana : A Redemption from Slavery. By J. P. Dunn, jr. [American Commonwealths Series.] Boston : Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 12mo.

MR. RYAN'S rather flimsy performance was made under the inspiriting influence of Ohio's centennial. It opens with the discovery of Ohio by LaSalle in 1669, and brings the connected history of the State down to the close of the late war in 1865, and the sketches of the Governors (in the Appendix) to the present day, that is, to Joseph B. Foraker. The last sixteen pages are a reprint of the Ordinance of 1787. Historical events of the earlier days are treated from the Federalist and Whig standpoint, those of later date from the point of view of a most ardent Freesoiler and Republican. The heroes of the book are Arthur St. Clair, the first Territorial, and Dr. Edward Tiffin, the first State Governor.

The growth of Ohio during the first forty years of her statehood is extraordinary. Ad-

mitted in 1802, the State in 1820 was the sixth in rank, becoming the fifth by the detachment of Maine from Massachusetts, and in 1840 the third, a place which she still maintains. The rapid growth after 1825 is ascribed mainly to the long lines of canal which were begun in that year, connecting the Ohio River at two points with Lake Erie, and costing the State nearly sixteen million dollars for a mileage of six hundred and ninety-seven miles owned by the State, besides the Muskingum slack-water improvement of ninety-one miles controlled by the United States. Hence our author bestows his highest praises upon Ethan Allen Brown, the legislator and Governor who, following the lead of DeWitt Clinton in New York, carried the canal scheme first over all opposition in the Legislature, and next through all the financial difficulties with which it had to struggle. To raise sixteen millions of dollars was no easy task.

"The establishment of the school system of Ohio was contemporaneous with that of the canals. Neither could have been accomplished without the other. The opposition to both was widespread and aggressive, but the friends of the respective measures associated their interests and thereby succeeded" (p. 105). The first working school law was passed in 1825. "In 1886 the total expenditure for common-school purposes was $10,121,897, an amount greater than in any other State in the Union, excepting New York and Illinois."

These facts are not surprising to any reader. But, in view of the high-strung notions of humanity that have prevailed in Ohio for the last forty years and more, many may read with a little astonishment of Ohio's early days:

"The criminal legislation of St. Clair and the judges was very severe in its penalties. But the primitive condition of the people and the absolute necessity of totally suppressing crime made it imperative that no mercy should be shown to lawbreakers. The whipping-post was made a standing institution at every county seat, and was inaugurated as early as 1788. In 1792 the judges passed a law directing the building of a county jail, court-house, pillory, whipping-post, and stocks in every county. . . . The law of August 15th, 1795, provides for servitude for debt, not exceeding seven years, at the demand of the creditor" (p. 49).

And those who are wont to look upon Ohio as a model of loyalty to the Federal Union will be surprised to read this resolution, which the General Assembly passed in 1820, in its contest over the United States Bank. The State had in the preceding year tried to destroy the branches of the bank set up in Ohio, by a hostile tax of $50,000 on each. The United Circuit Court enjoined its collection (Bank of the United States vs. Osborne); the injunction was disobeyed, and the Court sent the State officers to prison for contempt. The General Assembly then resolved:

"That in respect to the powers of the governments of the several States that compose the American Union, and the powers of the Federal Government, this Assembly do recognize and approve the doctrines asserted by the Legislatures of Kentucky and Virginia, in the resolutions of November and December, 1798, and January, 1800, and do consider that their principles have been recognized and adopted by a majority of the American people."

The Miami convention of Whigs held at Dayton in September, 1840, in the heat of the Harrison campaign, is described as the largest political meeting ever held in the country. "The multitude covered ten acres by actual measurement, and at no time were more than two-thirds of the people on the ground. While General Harrison was speaking, the ground upon which the crowd stood was *measured* by three different engineers; the three estimates numbered the audience at 77,600, 75,000, and 80,000 respectively."

A pretty full account is given of the clever game of the eight Freesoilers in the Legislature of 1848-1849 who, under the lead of Morse and Townsend—one of Whig, the other of Democratic antecedents—used their balance of power so as to elect S. P. Chase to the United States Senate, and to obtain a repeal (in part, at least) of the Black Laws. Our author is mistaken when he says that there was a total repeal, putting the negro on an equality before the law with the white man. Nothing is said of the hard times from 1837 to 1843, about the failure of the Miami Exporting Company and other banks; in fact, there is not a word as to finance or banking. The writer is also silent about the temperance and no-license movements, which have played such a large part in the history of Ohio, and about the Germans in the State, the great foes of prohibition. The war period is disposed of in twelve pages, dealing largely with Vallandigham's disloyal work, his arrest, expulsion, and political defeat.

The introductory chapter of Mr. King's 'Ohio' closes with these words: "As a centenary memoir, its purpose is to set forth the foundations of the State, rather than its full growth." Indeed, the history stops short at the close of the civil war, and of its 400 pages no less than 294 lead up to the admission of Ohio into the Union. From a literary standpoint, it is superior to the other centenary books on Ohio or the Northwest that have come before us; in fact, Mr. King may be called, not a mere bookmaker, but an author.

He has his own views on some historic points. Thus, he ignores the English colonial charter as having any bearing on the title to the Northwest. The Kings of England had no lands beyond the Alleghenies to give away, either to the Virginia Company or to the Duke of York, or to the Massachusetts and Connecticut colonists. Setting aside all consideration of the rights of the native savage, the first European power that explored the Northwest was France, not England. The French posts extended as far east as Fort Duquesne, as far west as Kaskaskia, and their possession of these points was fully acquiesced in by the English to the very day when the seven years' war broke out. In fact, the correspondence about the hostile intentions of the British Government against Fort Duquesne seems to have led to that war; and in that correspondence the British Court did not insist on those claims to hold the territory south of the lakes from sea to sea which its revolted colonies afterwards set up against each other under their musty charters. The first real claim which the King of England had to the lands northwest of the Ohio River grew out of his victory over the King of France in the seven years' war, and the consequent cession in the Treaty of Paris; that is, he acquired Ohio and Indiana by the same title by which he held Quebec. The rights of France west of the Mississippi were recognized, and with them the futility of the "sea to sea" clauses in the colonial charters of the seventeenth century.

Our author follows the "British Conquest" with a chapter, "Annexed to Quebec." In this he says: "As the ceded territory embraced what is now the State of Ohio, this consequently passed to the Crown, in the same full right and dominion as the King of France had held it at the beginning of the war" (p. 83). "From this it results that the present territory of Ohio, in common with all the reservation thus made by the Crown to its own immediate dominion, has its proprietary and political basis exclusively in the Treaty of Paris and the King's proclamation of 1763." The British Parliament took the same view when, on the 22d of June, 1774, it passed an act "making more effectual provision for the government of the Province of Quebec," by which the whole country west of the Pennsylvania line and north of the Ohio was made part of the province of Quebec. To the men of the Revolution, this view was very distasteful, as it narrowed quite materially the limits of the country for which they sought independence; and the American title to the Northwest, at last, rests on the victorious march of George Rogers Clark and the skilful diplomacy of Benjamin Franklin.

We find here, as in all histories of Ohio or of the Northwest, an account of the King's proclamation of 1763, prohibiting the sale of or settlement on any western lands—that is, of any lands lying beyond the headwaters of rivers flowing into the Atlantic; the formation of land companies seeking to evade this decree; the Fort Stanwix treaty of 1768 with the Iroquois or Six Nations; Clark's attempt at an expedition against Detroit; and some mention of the few and slight skirmishes which were fought on Ohio soil during the Revolutionary war. But what we have not seen in any of the centenary histories is a pretty full account of the Moravian missions (pp. 119-160). "The villages planted by the Moravian missionaries on the banks of the Tuscarawas river in 1772 are fairly entitled to rank as the first settlements of Ohio." Going back to the "Unitas fratrum" which arose in Bohemia and Moravia during the Hussite wars, Mr. King traces it down to the days when Count Zinzendorf, on General Oglethorpe's invitation, led a band of missionaries to Georgia, whence they went, to escape the hateful duties of war, to Pennsylvania; and among these refugees was David Zeisberger, the future head of the Ohio missions at Gnadenhütten and Schönbrunn, the former being so named after an older station of the same name on the Lehigh, as this in turn had its older namesake ("huts of grace") in Germany. Zeisberger, his younger coadjutor Heckewelder, and his zealous and ill-fated Indian disciple, Glickhican, are the heroes of the most interesting chapter of our book. The story is sad. After eight years of peaceful progress, the "praying" Indians were forcibly removed by English officers and their savage allies to Upper Sandusky; in the following winter, driven by hunger, Glickhican, with a hundred or more men, women, and children, returned to their abandoned cornfields on the Tuscarawas, where David Williamson's roving band of Americans pounced upon them, and, by a vote of seventy-two to eighteen, decreed their death. They were murdered, and their bodies burned in two houses, where in 1798 Heckewelder found their charred remains, which he brought to Christian burial. The chapter thus closes: "That these missions, though not enduring, were none the less the primordial establishment of Ohio, is as true as that Plymouth was the beginning of Massachusetts. . . . The Moravians may justly be remembered and honored as the Pilgrims of Ohio."

In the next chapter, "The Northwestern Territory," we find the well-known discussion among Virginia and the other States concerning the western lands, which our author has already decided against the Mother of States by his denial of any title in the British King before the Treaty of Paris. The cessions of New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Virginia, the ineffectual Ordinance of 1784, and the great Ordinance of June 13, 1787, follow in due order. While full of admiration for this latter instrument, which in importance has

shown itself only second to the national Constitution, our author is not blind to one of its demerits. It conferred too much power on the Governor, who, by his absolute veto, became a third branch of the Assembly; St. Clair's stubborn exercise of his powers disgusted the people of Ohio so much with anything like a strong executive that, in framing a constitution, they gave the Governor nothing at all to do, except, to use the words of a witty Whig of later days, to appoint notaries public and to pardon Democrats out of the penitentiary.

"Briefly stated, it was a government which had no executive, a half-starved, short-lived judiciary, and a lopsided legislature. This department, overloaded with the appointing power which had been taken away from the executive, became so much depraved in the traffic of offices that, in an assembly where there was a tie vote between the Democrats and the Whigs, two 'Free Soilers' held the balance of power, and were permitted to choose a United States Senator [S. P. Chase], in consideration of giving their votes, for every other appointment, to the party which aided them in this supreme exploit of jobbery" (p. 291).

The chapter "Progress" treats in a general way of the growth of Ohio in population, wealth, schools, libraries, churches, etc., between 1820 and our own time. There is no chronologic statement of changes in the government, of the ups and downs of parties, or of the rise and fall of statesmen. "Ohio in the War for the Union" is the last chapter; its hero is John Brough, the War Governor, who beat Vallandigham by 101,000 votes, and took the lead in the conference of five northwestern States in April, 1884, which resulted in the raising of 85,000 men for a service of one hundred days. The forty regiments and one battalion raised in Ohio for this temporary purpose were got ready in sixteen days. "The service performed by these regiments was not nominal." A short appendix follows the 400 pages of history. The subject of its last number is rather unlooked-for and sad withal, "The Grape, and its Gradual Failure in Ohio."

In a volume on Indiana, in a series of State histories, one naturally expects to find information concerning the political conditions under which such famous Indianians as Julian, Morton, Colfax, Hendricks, and Harrison prepared for and pursued their political careers. Yet this book ends with Indiana's Territorial existence: the history of the State is left untouched. It therefore seems proper to inquire, By what right has author or publisher included this volume in the "Commonwealths Series?" for if its full title does not deceive the purchaser with promises which the book does not fulfil, its classification does. This offence is aggravated by the inexcusable verbosity and extended quotation that occupy in its 450 pages the space that should have been given to, at least, an adequate outline of the political history of the State. One long chapter is almost entirely devoted to the exploits of George Rogers Clark in the Northwest Territory, though the story of Clark's unique expedition has frequently been told, and never better than by the hero himself in an account written at the request of Jefferson and Madison.

Although Mr. Dunn has failed in some important respects, he has been remarkably successful in others. Certain phases of the lives of the French pioneers seem to have had especial attraction for him, and he has described them with rare grace. After two unattractive chapters on early explorations and French posts, he surprises us with a vivid description of the first white residents of Indiana—the *coureurs de bois*. Under this title were included those Frenchmen who lived neither in a village nor at a post. Frequently they were of the best families. Revolting against the rigid piety then prevalent at Quebec and Montreal, they went to the other extreme amid the wildest surroundings. They became as reckless as the aborigines, to whom they sold brandy while borrowing their libertinism. "They discarded clothing entirely, and not only roamed the forests and went among the Indians in this airy mode, but also appeared in the settlements without addition to their raiment." The contrast between the French settlers and the American immigrants is forcibly drawn:

"The French were vivacious, noisy, and spendthrift; the Americans serious, taciturn, and thrifty. The past misfortunes of the French begot new ones. . . . They had not the patience to clear away forests. The Americans relied on agriculture. They came into the wilderness to open farms, and they pursued their purpose patiently and systematically. Men, women, and children drudged and saved, while their French neighbors gossiped and danced."

But the most prominent feature of the book, as is indicated by its sub-title, is the history of slavery in the Northwest Territory, and particularly in Indiana. The treatment of this subject is painstaking, skilful, and almost exhaustive, and gives the book its chief value. The earliest records of the French settlers show that slavery existed among them. For many years Indian slaves, known as *panis*, were the more common in the Northwest Territory, while farther south negro slaves were the more numerous. In 1787 slavery everywhere met with strong theoretical opposition. As it had never been very widely or profitably established northwest of the Ohio, the opposition to it there early took an aggressive form. Furthermore, the settlers and land-owners south of that river saw that the exclusion of slavery from the Northwest Territory would lessen the supply of those articles which were essentially the product of slave labor, and thus improve the market for them; that it would hasten the settlement of the new territory by a hardy people who would ward off the savages; and at the same time it would secure to the Southern territory all the pro-slavery settlers. This was the secret of the all but unanimous vote in favor of the Ordinance of 1787, with its anti-slavery provisions.

There is a popular belief that this Ordinance ended slavery in the Northwest Territory, but it did not. There was a clause in it guaranteeing to the French and Canadians who had already professed themselves citizens of Virginia, "their laws and customs now in force among them relative to the descent and conveyance of property." The better opinion at the time was that this protected the slave property then in the Territory. Certain it is that slavery retained a foothold and a fighting chance. Almost immediately those who were anxious to have the Territory rapidly settled, and all of those who were interested in slavery, began a vigorous movement to open the Territory to the importation of slaves for a term of years, with gradual emancipation thereafter. They claimed that the anti-slavery clause of the Ordinance unjustly interfered with vested rights, and that the scarcity and high price of free labor rendered agriculture unprofitable. After repeated efforts along this line had failed, the pro-slavery party undertook to gain by craft a position which they had been unable to carry by assault. In this attempt they were for a time largely successful. In 1803 and 1805 they obtained indenture laws which permitted the importation of slaves and the retention of them as such for two months; thereafter they might be held in qualified slavery for a term of years, and also their offspring up to a certain age. These laws, together with the provisions for their successful execution, constituted a most soulless "Black Code." Despite the increase in numbers and sentiment opposed to slavery, the slaves also increased so rapidly that there was need of a bitter struggle before the party of freedom gained the upper hand. In 1816 slavery in Indiana received its death-blow in the adoption of a Constitution that for ever prohibited it. And at this point, where the Commonwealth begins, the volume ends.

The book gives us several charming pictures of the every-day political life in the Northwest Territory, and sketches the careers of some of the leading politicians. Although Mr. Dunn devotes only a few pages here and there to William Henry Harrison, the parts, when put together, give one a more judicious conception of the man than is to be found elsewhere. He was a political pioneer, clever but honorable; a leader both brave and crafty; a "Virginia aristocrat" and pro-slavery in his ideas, but in his ordinary relations kind, upright, and admirable.

Madame Chrysanthème. By Pierre Loti. Translated by Laura Ensor. Paris: Édouard Guillaume et Cie. 1889.

It has often been said, somewhat cynically perhaps, that the exuberant admiration which appears in most of the books upon Japan is in some sense a bid for favor from the powers that be. To this end the beauties and graces of the flowery land are greatly dwelt upon, while ugly and repulsive features are discreetly hurried out of sight, or glibly explained and palliated. Whatever its other faults, this cannot be charged upon 'Madame Chrysanthème.' The writer, in his quality of French naval officer, arrives at Nagasaki, ready to be enchanted, but finds the city at first sight like any other seaport or commonplace town, with its mass of masts, steamboats, and quays; and he remarks pertinently (page 16): "Some day, when man shall have made all things alike, the earth will be a dull, tedious dwelling-place, and we shall have even to give up travelling and seeking for a change which shall no longer be found." His first landing, in a dismal downpour of tropical rain, strikes at once the keynote of his whole disillusioning experience. He announces in the first page his intention to marry immediately for the period of his stay —perhaps three or four months—and his first errand is to find a certain "matrimonial agent." At length he procures a seemly bride, and the nuptials are celebrated with much dignity and assembling of relatives, giving thereby a curious air of righteousness to the whole farcical proceeding. Indeed, this world-worn hero writes of his "marriage" with engaging frankness and innocence, and, except in this one naughty but central incident, the book is proper enough; and at all events, it is written from an interior and domestic standpoint which other and more serious writers have perhaps been unable to attain.

But, after all, he is not happy in his country-house, "almost opening upon the woods." His Chrysanthème, while she seems to have all the dainty attractiveness of her race and sex, still fails to arouse his real attachment. With unavailing regret he recalls a particular Turkish ex-wife of his, who once diffused a rosy mist of romance over all Stamboul, and compares her bitterly to his "doll" in this Nagaski suburb. The characteristic noises of Japan greatly impress him—the continual hum of the cicalas, forming the inevitable undercurrent and accompaniment of all its summer life; the

noisy slamming of shutters at night; and the endless rapping of the little pipes against the *tabakobon*, as the various fair smokers through the house knock out the thimbleful of ashes to begin afresh, making an incessant *pan, pan, pan.* One expressive illustration represents this irritating little custom in a wonderfully fine perspective of sound, if one may so speak. Another bit, with only a few tree-branches in the rain, conveys a whole tropical storm—a typhoon of vast possibilities.

The wealth of charming illustration is most perfectly representative of Japan as seen by an artist's eye. The decorative part of the book is superb. The artists, Rossi and Myrbach, have caught and retained the spirit of Japan and its inner life to a most unusual degree. The great difference between the faces of the young and the old women, which so impresses the foreigner but is generally lost in attempted reproduction, is here entirely preserved; and the illustrations come always close to the letter-press description, thus adding immensely to the pleasure of reading, without formal reference to cuts. Similarly the "remarques"—a cicala, a bronze stork-candlestick, a jug, a grotesque inkstand—are delightfully fascinating. The text, indeed, even with the aid of the translator's exquisite English, seems hardly worthy its beautiful and sumptuous setting.

The book is not bad enough to be exciting, nor good enough to be an entirely true picture, nor yet happy enough to be satisfying. Its tone is quite without sentiment or lofty feeling of any sort, and it is written apparently from a standpoint of criticism and actual dislike. Even the humor is dreary. The short chapters are alluring, but the writer's estimate of Japan may be summed up in one sentence (page 242), of which the whole book is a more or less elaborate amplification: "Little, finical, affected—all Japan is contained, both physically and morally, in these three words." Just before his final departure this supposably merry Frenchman undertakes to sketch his room as a souvenir; but although each article is shown in its correct place, and he can find no fault with his drawing, something is lacking. "It has an ordinary, indifferent French look," he says; "the sentiment is not given"—which, while undoubtedly true of his sketch, is truer still of his book. The soul, the aroma of Japan, is lost, or missed in some way, and, spite of pleasant and easy reading, the reader is left unfilled. Chrysanthème herself, in whom the author fails to find attraction, sentiment, or poetic grace (except, perchance, in the nape of her neck, which almost arouses enthusiasm), is in truth far more interesting and real than is Loti himself, even showing a little touch of pathos here and there. She is slightly disenchanting at the end, to be sure, where, instead of the sad little farewell scene which the hero might possibly have anticipated, he finds her seated upon the floor among her lately-received silver *yen*, ringing each with a little hammer to prove its genuineness. But at last this cynical gentleman finds himself moving slowly out of the harbor, bidding a permanent farewell to the land of teapots and many-ribbed umbrellas. The only touch of real strength in the book occurs here: "Now the great sea opens before us, immense, colorless, solitary—a solemn repose after so much that was too ingenious and too small."

The End of the Middle Ages: Essays and Questions in History. By A. Mary F. Robinson (Mme. James Darmesteter). 1 vol. 8vo. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Miss Robinson, now Mme. Darmesteter, has acquired some reputation as a poet, and now turns her attention to the actualities of history. The experiment is somewhat hazardous, for the intense subjectivity and fervid imagination cultivated by the poet are precisely the gifts to be rigorously held in control by the historian. His duty is to distrust his imagination, to repress his sympathies, and to treat his subject as objectively as possible. The minute accuracy essential in modern historical methods compels him to endless drudgery and a rigid adherence to fact. He rejects all *à priori* conclusions, and strives to look upon events and personages with the eye of a judge and not of an advocate or of an artist. His sole object is to discover and proclaim the truth, and even his boldest generalizations must have a solid foundation, built up with infinite care and patience. This incompatibility of the historical and poetical temperaments receives its supreme illustration from Carlyle, who, with all his genius and power of word-painting, made a travesty of every historical study that he undertook—conceiving his personal prejudices to be eternal verities and the phantasms of his imagination to be facts, sketching characters and events with the powerful hand of an artist, and arguing his theses with the impassioned special pleading of an advocate.

On opening Mme. Darmesteter's book, we are at once struck with misgiving at finding from her prefatory dedication that her historical training has been under Mr. J. Addington Symonds, whose florid inaccuracy and habitual subjectivity render him a most dangerous teacher. We are somewhat reassured by her allusions to her palæographical studies under Prof. Paoli and her dull researches in London, Paris, and Florence, and are led to hope that the exhausting labors of the Dryasdust may somewhat check the exuberance of the poet. With such expectation we open the first essay on the interesting but complex subject of the Beguines and Beghards, one of the most obscure and intricate that the Middle Ages afford. No one is competent to its discussion who has not gone through a long and weary examination of the original sources, weighing conflicting evidence, sifting out laboriously the grains of truth from the mass of falsehood, and correcting the errors of contemporaries, which, down to the present generation, have misled almost all students. Of all this there is not a trace in Mme. Darmesteter's essay. Fragmentary scraps of information, gathered at second-hand, are welded together into an undefined and contradictory whole; crude and vague impressions, clothed with the romantic idealism of the writer, take the place of fact; old errors are summoned from their ghostly slumbers, are fitted with new and fashionable garments of the most approved modern cut, and are bidden again to parade the stage; new errors, evolved apparently from the author's internal consciousness, are brought forward with calm assurance. We are told (p. 14) that in 1224 "Blanche of Castile and the child St. Louis were ruling Paris as King Arthur might have ruled his court at Camelot, by the authority of love and gentleness"—an idyllic picture of which the chronology is as false as its conception of that cruel and turbulent period, when Thibault of Champagne was singing love-ditties to Queen Blanche and was shrewdly suspected of poisoning her husband. Of the Beguines it is said (p. 10) that they received their death-blow when Dominic and Francis founded their Tertiary Orders; but the author subsequently (p. 29) postpones their execution until 1311, at the Council of Vienne (not Vienna), from which time "Beguinism as an institution was at an end." In either case, it was a tolerably lively corpse, or, as Charles II. said of himself, it was an unconscionable time a-dying; for in the fifteenth century the Council of Constance vindicated it from the attacks of the Dominican Matthew Grabon, and twenty years later Eugenius IV. so favored it that Felix Hemmerlin accused him of having been a Beguine himself. This misty and elusive method of compiling history is not rendered more acceptable by the sentimentalism of the thought or the fine writing in which it is exhibited. The search for verbal quaintness and artificialities of expression which is so characteristic of the modern school of poetry, is singularly out of place in a work which purports to be a serious study of the past.

Histoire de la participation de la France à l'établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique. Par Henri Doniol. Tome III. Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, Alphonse Picard, éditeur.

A few weeks ago we noticed the first two volumes of this great work. The third volume is now before us. Like the others, it is largely made up of previously unpublished documents, drawn from the French archives. M. Doniol does his part of the work with great learning and discretion. It is true that we do not always get the whole of every document, and that we are perverse enough to feel that most interesting matter may lie concealed behind those annoying little lines of dots; yet it would be unreasonable to expect a more voluminous work than this, and enough, surely, is given us to make the book not only interesting but indispensable.

This history is published by the French Government in connection with the Universal Exhibition which is to take place in Paris next summer. It is the intention to make the book a specimen of the work of the National Printing Office. We must therefore consider it, not only as a contribution to historical study, but as a piece of book-making; and it is from this point of view that we find most to blame. The first question which an intelligent publisher should consider is the proper size and shape to be given to his book. If the latter is to be read, and not merely consulted, nothing but the necessity of introducing large plates should swell the volume to a size which will prevent its being held comfortably in the hand. But this book is published in quarto volumes, of which the thinnest contains more than 850 pages. No mortal grasp could sustain such a weight. Moreover, the lines are too long for the comfort of the eye, even where the type is as large and as generously spaced as it is here. The size is not justified by the presence of remarkable plates, for the illustrations are neither numerous nor important. Here, however, our unfavorable criticism must cease. The paper and printing are admirable.

The editing, although not quite perfect, is careful; and we imagine that "Walley Forge" may be a quotation from some contemporary manuscript. In the numerous papers of the Comte de Vergennes, the spelling of the original is preserved. It is a rather curious fact that the Count was very weak in orthography—that branch of education as to which Frenchmen of to-day are almost pedantically particular. This is the more striking as Vergennes was not a great lord, who might consider himself above grammar, but a hard-working diplomatist who had risen by his own exertions; yet he spells so badly that it takes a little practice to read him fluently, especially as the editor, in deference to what he considers good typography, has omitted the capital letters with which the Count made up for the

absence of apostrophes. Vergennes was of his time in his neglect of spelling, although he exceeded even the license of his day.

The third volume brings down the history of French intervention in America from the time when the treaties between the United States and France were concluded, to that of the close of an offensive alliance between France and Spain. It was well known that Spain did not during the war become the ally of the United States, a fact which deeply affected the conduct of hostilities and the negotiations for peace. The French Government was thus placed between two allies whose interests were different and not infrequently antagonistic. This may account in some degree for the languor with which military operations were conducted in 1779 and 1780. In 1778 the news of the alliance between France and the United States was received with great enthusiasm on both sides of the Atlantic. M. Doniol describes in this volume the abatement of that enthusiasm in America, in consequence of the course taken by Gérard, the French Minister at Philadelphia, and of the misfortunes of D' Estaing, the French admiral, on our coast. Gérard was, in fact, trying to prepare Congress to give up some of the interests of the United States for the sake of bringing Spain into the quarrel. D' Estaing was doing what he could, in a not very forcible manner. M. Doniol sets the conduct of each of them in the most favorable light, and relies much on the necessity to America of the aid of France.

Hints about Men's Dress: Right Principles Economically Applied. By a New York Clubman. D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

AMERICAN men, as a rule, are said to be less enlightened on the subject of dressing well than the men of a good many other modern nations. This, the author of 'Hints about Men's Dress' thinks, is because "their forefathers, immediate and remote, have not been able to give them much information about dress or manner, having always been too busy to think about the minor things of life." This explanation has been made use of to explain almost all the deficiencies of American life, from lack of "culture," and the corruption of municipal government, down to inefficiency of domestic service. The reason why we fall short—if in anything we do fall short—of the highest pitch of civilization is because our forefathers' time was so fully occupied in hewing down the forest, planting new settlements, keeping the savages at bay, etc., that they had no time to spare for the humanities and amenities. Whether defects of this sort can be remedied by manuals—even by manuals as good as the one before us—we very much doubt. The difficulty is, that the art of dressing correctly, like the art of speaking correctly, or of good manners, is part of that breeding which, while it may be more or less closely described in books, is derived in practice from inheritance and the early formation of habits.

At the first blush it may be said that, while this is true of good manners and speech, it is rather straining a point to apply it to such a purely mechanical thing as dress, and that there ought to be no difficulty in learning from a book how to dress; but, after examining the author's treatise with care and impartiality, we are more than ever convinced that there is an impalpable something about a well-dressed man which cannot be taught through the medium of print, and, worse than this, that there are here and there mistakes, even in this very manual, which show that the author is not perfectly fitted for the delicate task he has undertaken. Most of his advice is excellent. When he says that the morning "tub" is not a mere English affectation, and that a man, to be well dressed, must first be well washed; when he insists that perfumes should not be used; when he recommends white underclothing (except in cases of rheumatic tendency, requiring of course material of a different color); when he objects to top-boots for evening dress; when he warns the student against having his boots blacked at the street-corner; when he places paper collars and celluloid collars under the ban, and says of a shirt which opens behind that it is only one remove from the "dickey," than which nothing could be lower; when he says that to be well dressed is to be inconspicuously dressed; when he urges upon us that we should never be afraid to be well dressed, whether others are so or not—in all these and a thousand other matters, we are entirely at one with the author, and in all that he has to say on the subject of economy he is very judicious. Except for one fatal chapter, we should be almost ready to commend his work as a perfectly satisfactory vade-mecum of the learning on the subject; but this one chapter is so fatally pernicious, it is so at variance with the delicacy of perception and familiarity with the best usage which elsewhere marks the book, that we should prefer to believe it the work of another hand, did not its very errors tend to corroborate our theory that there is no such thing as perfect manual writing on these subjects.

In this chapter the author gives a list of clothing which he considers essential to a gentleman, and, melancholy to relate, this is what he has to advise as to shirts: Shirts with collars and cuffs attached, 2; shirts without collars and cuffs, 6; collars, 10; cuffs, 10 pairs. Here is the difference between the most careful theoretical study and the practice of dressing as a matter of early training and breeding. The author evidently does not know the great cardinal principle that the unit of shirts is one dozen—that it is not possible to have less than a dozen shirts. Nor is he aware that the custom of having collarless and cuffless shirts, with more cuffs and collars than shirts, however economical it may be, is a relic of that pioneer period when our forefathers acquired the slovenly and indifferent habits which he is now trying to eradicate. This cuts deep. It is these inadvertences and incompletenesses, these weak spots in the best teaching, which makes us doubt whether we shall ever be perfectly well dressed. Nevertheless, as a sign of the times, as an indication of the way men's thoughts are turning, and as a help to numerous well-intentioned young men who would like to dress well, but do not know how, the manual deserves notice. But to these last we say, Trust no book implicitly.

Holland. By Professor Thorold Rogers. [Stories of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons.

IF Professor Thorold Rogers, in writing this book, intended merely to give a brief and popular sketch of the most important and striking events in the history of Holland up to the middle of the eighteenth century, he has been successful in his attempt. His style is clear and graphic; he tells his story well; and, while there is absolutely nothing new or original in his book, it is a good résumé of the more elaborate works from which he derives his information. But it is not a history of Holland. If it were not for the illustrations which the book contains, and which represent, in part, views of Holland of the present time, we should hardly know, after reading these pages, that there is still in existence a people which cherishes all the glorious traditions of Holland of the seventeenth century, which has a national life based on those traditions, and more strongly developed, perhaps, than that of any other nation on the continent of Europe. Its present form of government is the result of natural and steady growth out of the institutions of the republic. There has been no breach of continuity except during a few years when the country was annexed to France, and no reason can be given why the book ends where it does except that there are no English works easily accessible which treat of the period omitted.

The omission is a grave one, particularly since the series to which the book belongs aims (according to its prospectus) at showing "the philosophical relation" between the different events and periods in a nation's history. Holland in the seventeenth century presents a remarkable instance of the states'-right doctrine pushed to its ultimate limits: there was practically no central government which had power to coerce a minority. It certainly would have been of interest to show in some detail how, after the Restoration, although a central government was established, the provincial and communal peculiarities and forms of government were to a great extent preserved, and how they were abolished by the Constitution of 1848 and the legislation under it. From a heterogeneous mass of discordant elements, Holland has become a homogeneous whole. The fact that its importance as a nation has diminished does not render this transformation less important from the point of view of the political student.

But even from a story-teller's point of view, the present age would have deserved at least a passing mention. The struggle of independence in 1813, the Belgian war in 1830, the Atcheen war, are certainly considered, in Holland at least, as forming part of the national history.

Fossils of the British Islands, Stratigraphically and Zoölogically Arranged. Vol. I. Palæozoic. 4to, pp. 468. By Robert Etheridge. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888.

THE place of this work is among books of reference. To any one working in its field it is an absolute necessity. It is a compilation that could only be made by one thoroughly conversant with the things as well as with the literature treating of them. From such works as this, in view of the amount already accomplished and of the shortness of life, the student has his greatest assurance of the possibility of traversing what has been covered and of going a little in advance. There is probably no one better fitted for the task taken up in this volume than Mr. Etheridge, and its completion is an outcome of his researches for more than twenty years. The volume includes the palæozoic species, from the Cambrian to the close of the Permian, some 6,022 in number, belonging to about 1,588 different genera. They are arranged according to their horizons, chronologically, and also in accordance with zoölogical classification. To refer the species to the particular horizons was hardly possible; consequently, the more general subdivisions were used. For example, in the Devonian the locations are Lower, Middle, or Upper; and if the fossil existed in the last, and continued in the overlying strata, it is marked "pass up," or, in the Carboniferous, the indications are placed under one or more of the following: Calciferous Series, Lower Limestone Shales,

Carboniferous Limestone, Upper Limestone Shale, Millstone Grit, or the Lower, the Middle, or the Upper Coal Measures, and "pass up" if need be. With the numerous references and cross-references to the most important descriptions and illustrations, this is sufficiently explicit. The greatest chances for criticism and for differences of opinion occur in the zoölogical classification and the nomenclature; but much may be expected, in approximation to more generally acceptable systems, from the consequent discussion. The Supplementary Appendix, about eighty pages, is both an addition and a revision; it revises the earlier portion and brings the entire volume up to the year 1887. Though it concerns itself with the fossils of the British Islands, this catalogue is invaluable to the geologist of whatever part of the world. The Delegates of the Oxford University Press, through whose liberality and consideration it has been so well published, are abundantly entitled to the gratitude of all students of palæontology.

In a note at the end of the preface, the author says he has prepared the MSS. of the Mesozoic and Cainozoic species, about 13,000 in number, bringing the complete history of British fossils up to the year 1888, but at present does not see his way to publish. It is earnestly to be desired that the obstacles preventing may somehow, in the interest of scientific advancement, be speedily removed, and that the results of Mr. Etheridge's labors may become the property of the world with as little delay as possible.

Three Greek Children: A Story of Home in Old Time. By the Rev. Alfred J. Church. With illustrations after Flaxman and the antique. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. 8vo, pp. 205.

Mr. Church's stories of ancient life are always welcome, and form a useful aid to education, supplementing the dry details of historical study, which needs some such appeals to the imagination in order that far distant events may be clothed with life and reality. This knowledge is so wide and accurate that we may take for granted the substantial correctness of his portrayals, and may accept them as on the whole true to the spirit of antiquity. That he always succeeds in keeping his pictures of ancient life and character free from modernisms, we will not say; perhaps it is impossible to do so perfectly, for this would require an absolute substitution for one's mental processes of those of an age which one can know only from the outside. But it is as hard to detect transgressions of this sort as it is to avoid them, and all we can say is, that the present publication seems to us truer to Greek life than 'Two Thousand Years Ago' is to Roman life; and that, at any rate, more good is done by this spirited presentation of ancient life than the harm that may result from casual inaccuracies. Inaccuracies in matters of fact we do not find; if there are any, they consist in those subtle and intangible characteristics of society which are hardest to depict. We have here a great range of experience for the three children in the years of the Peloponnesian War, reminiscences of Marathon and Salamis, life in Sparta, and the bitter memories of an old Messenian woman.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allingham, W. Flower Pieces, and Other Poems. London: Reeves & Turner.
Bartholomew, J. G. The Pocket Gazetteer of the World. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Clemmer, Mary. His Two Wives. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 31, 1889.

The Week.

TELEGRAMS from Indianapolis make it almost certain that Mr. Allison is to be the next Secretary of the Treasury, and leave little room to doubt that Mr. Blaine is to be Secretary of State. As to the former, it may fairly be said that, next to Mr. Sherman, Mr. Allison is the fittest man in the party to be at the head of the Treasury. His qualifications are, close acquaintance with the public finances in all departments, thorough knowledge of the underlying principles of finance, equal knowledge of political machinery in general, the confidence of his party associates, an unsullied personal reputation, and a very liberal endowment of *savoir faire*. These would seem to be all the qualifications necessary for a successful administration of the Treasury, but it must be added that Mr. Allison is not a strong man in the sense of one "having convictions." He has never had any financial policy which he would enforce against the will of the people, or what he considered to be their will. Nobody except Mr. Sherman has had greater opportunities in our time to impress himself upon the financial policy of the country. Yet he has made no such impression. The silver bill that is associated with his name is a makeshift, a device, a dodge, and it does not yet appear whether it is a better policy than the original Bland bill would have been. If the Bland bill had passed, the mischief it would have caused would in all probability have worked its own cure ere now. What the Allison bill will do, nobody can yet say.

On the absorbing question of the tariff Mr. Allison's course has been highly inconsistent. The inconsistency has not been of the kind which is allowable to statesmen, and is sometimes, as in the case of Sir Robert Peel, the mark of statesmanship; because it does not admit of explanation. Otherwise, undoubtedly, Mr. Allison would himself have attempted to explain it. When a man says, for instance, that the nation has passed, in the industrial sense, beyond the period of tutelage, and ought to reach out for a share in the commerce of the world by lowering the duties on raw materials, he is bound, when he advocates the very opposite policy, to give as good reasons for his change as he gave for his original position, or at all events to give some reasons. Mr. Allison has given no reasons. He has never answered himself as Sir Robert Peel did. His speech of March 25, 1870, was in some respects the best low-tariff speech made since the close of the war. Nineteen years have passed, and each year has given new emphasis to the facts he then pointed to and the arguments he based upon them. If we had passed the period of tutelage then (Henry Clay thought we had passed it in 1888), how much more have we passed it now! Yet we find the same Mr. Allison, in the year 1889, voting for higher duties on wool and tin plates, and for a real bill of abominations, whose effect must be, according to his own earlier showing, to still further disable us from taking our true place in the commerce of the world.

Our views of Mr. Blaine as a public character do not need to be repeated. Desiring that Mr. Harrison's Administration shall be creditable and beneficial to the country, we have hoped that he would not call such a trickster to his councils. Mr. Blaine's position in the Republican party is such that he cannot, in the estimation of the Blaine faction, hold a second place. If he is Secretary of State, he will be, to their minds, the most important figure in the Administration, Mr. Harrison not excepted. This may be an erroneous estimate, but it is likely to prove an embarrassing one. If Mr. Blaine goes in, he takes with him, in addition to all his natural aptitudes for mischief, a backing of mischief which no other man could muster.

The President, in his communication to Congress on the 16th of January, said that the war ship *Trenton*, under the command of Admiral Kimberley, had been ordered to join the *Nipsic*, already in Samoan waters, "for the better protection of the persons and property of our citizens, and in furtherance of efforts to restore order and safety." A definition of what is meant by the furtherance of efforts to restore order and safety is supplied by the instructions of Secretary Whitney to Admiral Kimberley. The latter is informed that "the German Government invites this Government, in the common interest, to join in establishing order in Samoa, giving assurance of careful respect for our treaty rights." Then the Admiral is directed to extend full protection to American citizens and property, and to coöperate with the German and British Governments in restoring peace and order. Beyond this he is not allowed to do anything except to "protest against the subjugation and displacement of the native government of Samoa by Germany." These are perfectly safe instructions, but they do not help us to understand how the proposed appropriation of $500,000 is to be used. The expenses of the navy are paid out of the regular naval appropriation. The extra appropriation, if made, must be for an extraordinary purpose. What is that purpose? Some light is thrown upon the situation by a telegram to the Baltimore *Sun*, which represents Secretary Bayard as saying:

"The question for Americans to consider is whether we shall continue to maintain neutrality as between Mataafa and the Germans, or assume the rôle of belligerents towards Germany in behalf of one of the two claimants to the throne. Thus far Germany has given us absolutely no cause for war. The flag which was burned in Samoa was not hoisted in assertion of American rights. There is no analogy between the cases of Samoa and Hayti."

This statement of the case is so exactly in accord with the facts that we must regard it as authentic.

We cannot recommend to any person of leisure more amusing reading than the "documents relating to the condition of affairs in Samoa" lately submitted to Congress, if he will only read them in connection with the Samoan articles in our morning contemporaries. Taken together, nobody could do justice to them in a summary but Gilbert and Sullivan or Offenbach. The condition of affairs in Samoa, as a basis for the warlike utterances of our bellicose contemporaries, is very good bouffe. We have no rights by treaty, by law, or by morals in Samoa which are not possessed by Holland, Belgium, or Italy. Our mercantile business there is a mere trifle. The islands are 5,000 miles away from our nearest port. The rows that go on between our Consul and the German Consul, and between our handful of American speculators and the natives, are equalled in importance every day among the ladies of a score of boarding-houses and hotels in this city. Our sole conventional right there is to keep a coaling-station, but this right we have not used. We have no coal there, and should probably rarely burn it if we had.

One letter in the correspondence throws much light on the trouble. An American named Moors had a lease of a lot from a native gentleman named Seumanatafa, whose title was disputed by the German Consul, and the lease thus impugned. The German invited him to take the case into a land court the German Government was setting up, but Moors declined, and said he would sooner defend his lease "rifle in hand"; and as a substitute for this he remarks plaintively:

"My interests in Samoa are not small and are increasing (I believe that the next assessment of property will show that I alone will then be paying one-half of all rates paid by United States citizens in Samoa). My trade with San Francisco would have doubled itself this year if the late troubles had not occurred. Could not the United States annex Samoa, Tamasese and all, and so impress upon German diplomats that they cannot play fast and loose with a country so great as ours? We surely need a coaling-station in the south Pacific. No other place remains but Samoa. Why should we not have it?"

Moors is evidently not a humorist. He seriously wants us to save his lease by cowing the European despots, and annexing a group of islands in another hemisphere; but he is sly, so he pretends that it is not on account of the lease he asks it, but because he feels deeply his country's need of a "coaling-station." If it be true, as it seems to be, that James G. Blaine is to go into the Cabinet, there will be plenty of fun got out of this Samoan affair yet. "J. G. B.'s" despatches on it will be to the German diplomats like the rumble of distant but fast approaching thunder, and we may be sure a stock company of some kind will grow out of them.

Secretary Fairchild has made to the *Times* what that journal calls an "explicit statement" about the removals at the Custom-house, but we are sorry to say that, although it may be explicit, it is not explanatory. He does not explain that the difference between the Boston and New York sugar rulings was due to a defect in the Boston polariscope discovered and reported on by a Committee of the Academy of Sciences, which report has been in possession of the Department since January, 1888. When he admits that "nearly or quite all of the removals in the sugar division were names mentioned in the report prepared by Mr. Byrne of Boston," he fails to tell how he ever came to attach any importance to a report by "Mr. Byrne of Boston" on any subject. Nor when he says that he has not "received a single protest" from sugar importers since the Boston polarization was introduced here, does he explain how he has failed to receive them, seeing that over fifty, to our knowledge, have been sent in and passed upon. Nor when he says that Byrne's report is before the Senate, and "is full of startling facts and glaring developments," does he explain that the evidence or exhibits on which Byrne based his report are not before the Senate, and that the "startling facts and glaring developments" are simply Byrne's stories, which no one who knows Byrne would allow to affect a negotiation for a peanut-stand.

On the strength of a report made by this paltry and ignorant adventurer, to whom it would have been scandalous to give an inspectorship on a steamboat wharf, the Secretary has admitted the existence in the Appraiser's Department, during nearly the whole of President Cleveland's term, of enormous frauds on the Government, and has dismissed, without charges, without a hearing and without notice, a considerable number of experienced, and, as is generally believed, faithful officers. To do this a year or two years ago, even on the strength of Byrne's testimony, would have been bad enough; but there would then have been time left to Mr. Fairchild to improve the service, if improvement was needed, by instituting reforms the carrying out of which he could have superintended. In failing to act on Byrne's stories until only six weeks of the present Administration were left, until reform by this Administration was impossible, until only confusion and discredit could be the result of change, he leaves us face to face with a great puzzle. The only explanation of the affair we have heard attempted is, that he wants "to spite the Mugwumps." This solution will not be acceptable to those who believe a Secretary of the Treasury must not only be fairly wise and just and prudent, but of mature age. It is only children who commit egregious follies in order to vex somebody.

For an Administration which has laid claim all along, in spite of many backslidings and shortcomings, to the character of a reformer, to go out of office on top of a piece of folly and cruelty like this, is, from the lowest point of view, a remarkable display of political stupidity. If Byrne had furnished Assistant Secretary Maynard, the patronage man of the Treasury Department, with materials for sweeping changes in the Custom-house two or three years ago they might have been used to curry favor with the spoils element in the Democratic party, because they would have furnished places to some of the waiting "boys," and have filled the breasts of a great many more with hope. But changes made now are, from the party standpoint, absolutely useless. They do nothing for the "party," and in fact are likely to excite the derision of the more experienced managers, who have jeered at President Cleveland from the beginning, and would not trust or reward Secretary Fairchild no matter what he did for them. We must only hope that President Harrison will, when he comes into office, promptly undo this farce as far as it can be undone, restore to their places all those Republican officers whom nobody but Byrne accuses, and have charges made by reputable persons investigated openly by a proper tribunal. We say "openly," because there is no more reason why a Custom-house officer should be tried for his place secretly than tried for his life secretly. In fact, the public interest demands public investigation in all such cases, both as an act of justice to Government employees, and as a guarantee that charges have not been trumped up in order to make vacancies for political reasons.

Since the bad character of the Senate Tariff Bill, with its increased duties on wool and tin plates, its sugar bounties and other monstrosities, became known, it has been very plain that an extra session of Congress would be necessary. Of course the House would not pass such a bill, or send it to a conference committee to be juggled with in secret. To consider it in committee and then in the House, section by section, in the five or six remaining weeks of the session is simply impossible. Therefore an extra session is not a matter of choice, but of necessity, unless the new Administration should elect to run the risk of a financial crisis. The suggestion has been made that by anticipating the payment of interest on the 4½ per cent. bonds, the principal of which falls due in September, 1891, the Treasury surplus might be shouldered along till the next regular session of Congress. But this would be a very doubtful expedient, since the surplus is a continuing and increasing evil. Getting rid of it to-day by anticipating payments only increases the evil to-morrow, and invites censure upon those who have the power to avert it altogether.

The St. Paul *Pioneer Press* is so much troubled about the Senate Tariff Bill, and especially the duties on tin plate and fresh fish, and the bounty on sugar, that it hopes the House will find a way to kill the whole thing and remit the subject to the incoming Congress. Regarding the increased duty on tin-plate, it says that this "would foster a practical monopoly, while laying a heavy tax on the multitudinous home industries to which tin plates are indispensable." It thinks that this extreme position would not have been taken by the Senate but for the extreme positions taken in the Mills bill. The positions taken in the Mills bill, being on the whole less radical than those recommended by the chiefs of protectionism who constituted the Tariff Commission of 1883, can hardly be called extreme. It is much more probable that the provoking cause of the outrageous bill passed by the Senate was something in the shape of the pillars of Hercules with a scroll binding them together thus: $. Mr. Quay and Mr. Dudley and Mr. Wanamaker could tell us the significance of this emblem in the present posture of political affairs.

Nothing is droller or more symptomatic in the present situation than the joy which some of the Republican papers are expressing over the discovery that we were wrong in saying that Wanamaker and Quay had burned their campaign accounts (Quay has not yet denied that his are burned). These journalists evidently think that if it can be shown that the accounts exist, Wanamaker and Quay's innocence is established; the fact being that, in the forum of morals, proof that the accounts could be produced aggravates the difficulties of their position. This reminds us very much of the pickpocket brought up recently in a London police court who protested loudly against being committed for trial, because the prosecutor swore he saw him throw the watch away, while a policeman testified that he found it in his boot. On this subject that amusing old moralist the editor of the *Independent* is peculiarly diverting.

Advices from the New Jersey and Indiana Legislatures indicate that the ballot-reform bills now under consideration there are likely to become laws within a comparatively short time. As the Legislatures in both States are Democratic, their action may have some effect in showing Gov. Hill how the popular mind is behaving. Hopeful reports come also about the chances of the bill which is before the Maine Legislature. A public hearing is to be held by the Committee in charge of it this week, and among the advocates who will appear are several clergymen. It is interesting to notice that Congressman Boutelle's Blaine organ, the Bangor *Whig*, which is leading the opposition to the bill, and alleging that there is no popular demand for it, is forced to devote more or less space daily to labored explanations and apologies for its position. If there were no popular interest in the measure, this daily task would not be necessary.

Ohio is the latest State to join the ballot-reform procession, which now includes nearly every State in the Union. A bill has been presented in the Senate of the Ohio Legislature which is substantially the Massachusetts law with a few changes to make it conform to the Ohio statutes. It contains

the Massachusetts provision for marking the backs of the official ballots—that is, with is a printed facsimile of the signature of the State or county officer whose duty it is to have the ballots printed. The prospects for the passage of the law appear to be good. The fact is, that public sentiment has been educated somewhat on the subject of electoral reform by the admirable working of a law which was enacted four years ago, applying to all cities in the State having 90,000 inhabitants and upwards, and providing that there should be no electioneering of any kind within 100 feet of the polls. It made it unlawful for persons to congregate or loiter within that distance, and forbade any person within it to hand a voter a ticket, or to solicit his vote, or to try in any way to influence him, and also forbade the voter to unfold his ballot or in any way reveal its contents. This simple statute has done wonders in securing honest and quiet elections, and the natural consequence is that the people of the State are now in a condition of mind to welcome further reform in the same direction.

The hearing before the Assembly Prisons' Committee on Thursday brought out some direct evidence from the prison authorities which ought to make the members of the Legislature sufficiently ashamed of themselves to take prompt action on the question of convict labor. One prison inspector said: "I say to you, gentlemen of the committee, that if you pass through the corridors of the prisons, you will hear five out of every six of these unfortunate men say: 'Give us something to do!'" Another prison official said: "If there is to be any reformatory influence exerted upon convicts, they must be worked honestly, and not made to feel that they are degraded." All the testimony agreed that the demoralization which the present lack of labor is causing is little less than appalling. On the question of competing with free labor, the testimony was especially interesting. One superintendent said that the opposition of the labor agitators was preposterous, because fully 85 per cent. of the goods which had previously been manufactured in the prisons had been sold outside the State. When it is remembered that the total percentage of the product of convict as compared with free labor is only a fraction of 1 per cent., this statement—that nearly all the convict goods are sold outside the State—ought to bring the legislators to their senses.

Each new report of the Superintendent of Education in a Southern State furnishes fresh proof that those States need no appropriations from Washington to enable them to build up a good school system. West Virginia has been among the foremost in developing that "local supervision and interest" which General Harrison years ago well said is the only thing that "will bring these constituencies that are now so backward in the race of education abreast with other States." The expenditures are rising steadily and rapidly, advancing from $1,087,674 in 1887 to $1,240,649 in 1888; and the number of schools and pupils grows with almost equal pace, the percentage enrolled in the schools to the whole number of children being now 70 per cent., which is almost precisely the same as in Maine. The length of the school-year was increased one week each year, and is now almost identical with the limit in Maine. Experience has thus fully vindicated the Republican Senators from Maine and the Democratic Senators from West Virginia in their attitude of combined opposition to the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy."

The city of Providence, under a prohibitory law, has 529 places in which liquor is openly sold. This is the total given by the Providence *Journal* in its summary published with the last of the diagrams which it has been giving, showing by police precincts each place where sales are made. It says that this number does not include drug-stores, some of which have a private drinking-place for customers, and a considerable number of other places in which liquor is suspected, but not positively known, to be sold. We believe there is nothing in Maine quite so glaring as this, although it is notorious that, in spite of the prohibitory law there, liquor is sold, with little or no attempt at concealment, in every city in the State. The defiance of law in Providence, and in many other parts of Rhode Island, is more open, probably, than it is anywhere else in the country, and a curious thing about it is that there appears to be no strong public sentiment against its continuance. Of course, under these circumstances, it practically comes to this, that the State is under a system of free rum-selling, with no income from the traffic.

It is discouraging to find two such eminent doctors of journalism as Mr. Charles A. Dana and Mr. Murat Halstead disagreeing on a question of ethics. Mr. Dana was chosen last year as the guest and orator of the Wisconsin Press Association at their annual meeting held at Milwaukee. His discourse gave general satisfaction, and was especially commended by the New York *Herald*, which was so charmed by some parts of it that they have been kept standing in its columns ever since. One of Mr. Dana's maxims was: "Never print a paid advertisement as news matter; let every advertisement appear as an advertisement; no sailing under false colors." It has been hinted repeatedly by the *Herald* that the newspaper under Mr. Dana's control has printed paid advertisements as news matter frequently since the Milwaukee maxim was promulgated. A correspondent usually well informed wrote to us some time ago, saying that the reprinting in Mr. Dana's paper of a very long article from a quarterly review, defending Trusts, was paid for by the Standard Oil Company; but we dismissed the suggestion as an idle tale. Whether Mr. Dana has followed his own maxims or not, the maxim is good in itself, and therefore we are much concerned to find Mr. Halstead taking the other side of the question in his discourse to the Wisconsin editors at Madison a few days ago.

Mr. Halstead takes issue with Mr. Dana squarely. He announces at the outset that he has tried it both ways, and is thus able to speak from experience. Perhaps he means to insinuate that Dana has only tried it one way, but which way he does not indicate. "Once upon a time," says Mr. Halstead, "I sacrificed many dollars in an endeavor to establish that great principle, and have receded from it, yielding to the material manifestation of general judgment." The "material manifestation of general judgment" is a phrase not free from ambiguity, but in its context it seems to mean cash. This interpretation is justified by a subsequent sentence, in which Mr. Halstead says that he has been constrained to associate "the advancement of great principles with pecuniary profit." (Billy McGlory has felt constrained to associate the great principle of personal liberty with pecuniary profit by selling liquor without a license, but the Mayor says he shall not allow him to do so any more.) One would suppose that this might end the matter altogether, and that further reasons for rejecting Mr. Dana's maxim would be superfluous, because, when you know that your principles are great and that they cannot make head without pecuniary profit, any form of deception must be allowable, especially if your readers are easily humbugged. "A large percentage of the people think the editor writes the advertisements," continues Mr. Halstead. "What is the objection if some of them should find out that the advertiser occasionally dictates the editorials?" No objection indeed to that; the objection is when they don't find it out. If Mr. Halstead would only begin one of this kind of editorials by saying, "The following is dictated by the Boston Clothing House," or by the Mutual Reserve Fund, or by the Standard Oil Trust, as the case may be, no harm would result, even to those simple persons who think that the editor writes all the advertisements. We shall not follow Mr. Halstead through his abundant list of reasons for differing from Mr. Dana, whom he grossly accuses of "biting off more than he can chew without facial distortion;" but we must notice one more observation which, we have no doubt, met a sympathizing response from the Wisconsin editors, viz.:

> "If one may be permitted to speak of local experience, the question of never printing a paid advertisement as news matter has not been so important as the printing of advertisements that are not paid. The notable feature of journalism for fifteen years under my immediate observation has been the printing of free advertisements."

Who knows but that the exaction of payment for these free advertisements, properly marked as such, would have supplied the pecuniary profit needful to enable Mr. Halstead to promote his great principles? Speaking from local experience, we have never found any occult influence or overpowering hand of fate moving us, against our will, to print advertisements without getting paid for them. But we suppose it is different in Cincinnati.

THE SAMOAN AFFAIR.

THE public have had great difficulty in understanding the Samoan dispute, and even now the subject is far from being clear. The statement of the *North German Gazette*—that there is no treaty between the United States, Germany, and Great Britain, guaranteeing the neutrality of Samoa, or precluding any European Power from acquiring ascendancy there—takes most of us by surprise, because the contrary opinion had been sedulously promulgated from Washington, not by or through the State Department, but by a coterie opposed to Mr. Bayard, headed by Senator Frye and Consul Sewall. It turns out that the *North German Gazette* is right. There is no treaty, protocol, or other engagement between the United States and either of the other countries, which forbids either of them to occupy the islands to-morrow. There is a treaty between England and Germany which is said to preclude Germany from taking such a step; but, of course, we have nothing to do with that, and it does not comport with our dignity to solicit England to enforce her treaty rights against Germany in our interest.

The "secret protocol" which Mr. Bayard is chided for not sending to the Senate with the other papers relating to Samoan affairs turns out to be no protocol at all, but a daily record of the proceedings of a conference with the German and English representatives, which neither party was at liberty to make public without the consent of both the others, and which the English and German Governments declined to permit Mr. Bayard to make public. There is one fact in the history of the negotiations which may perhaps be made public now without detriment to anybody on this side of the Atlantic. Very soon after Mr. Cleveland's Administration was seated, a German citizen of rank from Berlin, but holding no diplomatic position, called on Mr. Bayard, and put the question to him, in the name of Prince Bismarck, whether the United States would object to Germany's assuming the exclusive control of the Samoan Islands. The question was put bluntly, but with the utmost deference and friendliness. Mr. Bayard, having become satisfied that the questioner was really what he assumed to be, namely, an unofficial representative of Prince Bismarck, replied that the United States could not consent to any such separate control of the islands on the part of Germany. Thereupon the interview ended in the same friendly spirit in which it began, Mr. Bayard's interlocutor returning immediately to Berlin, and the impression was left that no step would be taken by Germany inconsistent with the amicable relations that had previously existed with this country. It is evident now that Bismarck had formed the design of getting possession of the islands, and that he wanted, if possible, to get an unofficial assurance from our Government that his movements would not be impeded. Failing in this, he did not desist from his purpose, but set about it in another way. As there is no written record of what occurred at the interview above mentioned, it is comparatively easy for so skilful a practitioner of "journalism" as Bismarck to interpret it in any way he pleases, or to ignore it altogether.

The scales having fallen from our eyes in this particular, we are next told that we have a treaty with Samoa, dated in 1877, which gave us the right to establish a coaling-station at Pago-Pago. This treaty was to remain in force ten years, and until notice of termination was given by one or other of the contracting parties. The ten years have expired, and we have not established the coaling-station, nor taken any steps to that end, obviously for the reason that we did not need any coaling-station there. We have no steam-vessels passing that way. If we had established the coaling-station, we could have done nothing with it except to sell coal to other people. The Government wisely kept out of that speculation. The sudden zeal of Senator Sherman to establish this coaling-station before the Samoan Government (whatever that may be) gives notice of termination of the treaty, becomes a trifle ridiculous, while the proposed appropriation of $500,000, to secure our Samoan rights in general, requires explanation, to say the least.

But, it is further urged, this treaty with Samoa, if not already terminated, pledges us to use our "good offices" to adjust any difficulty arising between Samoa and any foreign Government. This pledge was in direct contravention of our national policy, enjoined by Washington's Farewell Address, to avoid entanglements with European Powers. But, overlooking that feature of the case, there is nothing disclosed by the Samoan papers, or even by Senator Frye's speeches or Consul Sewall's interviews, which prevents us from tendering our good offices in the emergency provided for. If our good offices fail, we shall have earned the blessing of the peace-makers promised in the Sermon on the Mount, and that will be no light satisfaction.

If we have no treaty with Germany respecting Samoa, if we have no treaty rights at all in that quarter except the right to establish a coaling-station, which nothing has prevented us from establishing except our own disinclination, and the right to tender our good offices, which it would seem that we might tender even without a treaty, what is it that has raised this awful pother o'er our heads? The following paragraph, taken from an interview with an eminent New England Senator, seems to be the answer to this natural question:

> "The Samoan Islands are on the highway of commerce across the Pacific Ocean, and are of great importance with relation to the development of the trade via the projected canals across the Isthmus of Panama and across Nicaragua. To a Power whose ships are sent on long cruises, the establishment of coaling-stations is a necessity, and the location of one on the central island of the Samoan group, as provided for in the proposed amendment to the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation Bill reported by the Committee on Foreign Relations, is looked upon as one of great importance to us."

We do not see that the right to establish a coaling-station has been or is likely to be interrupted by anything except our own supineness. As for commerce with Australia, the only commerce that anybody thinks of in connection with Samoa, we have been doing our best to cripple and curtail it for years by hostile tariffs. It was only a few days ago that the Senate put a new obstruction in the way of such commerce by adding two cents a pound to the duty on wool. To talk about the needs of Australian commerce, and about facilities for promoting it under such circumstances, is laughable in a high degree.

The Cologne *Gazette* makes the singular mistake of attributing all the pother at Washington to the Cleveland Administration. The truth is, that the Samoan party at Washington is the same which made all the difficulty with Great Britain respecting the Fisheries Treaty. Its object is to show that Mr. Bayard is not sufficiently alive to the country's honor, that he is in the habit of truckling to foreign Powers and hauling down the American flag, and all that. It is the Harrison party in the Senate, and not the Cleveland party, that is running this wild-goose chase respecting a group of islands in the South Pacific Ocean more distant from our shores than Berlin itself, and where we have no interests to speak of. The more the matter is looked into, the more plainly does it seem, on our part, an outbreak of sheer Jingoism and meddlesomeness in other people's affairs. Our Jingo contemporary, the *Tribune*, is fain to admit that there is no treaty between the United States and Germany respecting Samoan independence and neutrality, but insists that the "obligations" which Germany has assumed in respect thereto "are defined with authority in the correspondence which has passed between Berlin and Washington." This means that, although the negotiators never came to an agreement which could bind anybody, they laid down certain principles which would be the basis of an agreement if they should eventually make one.

Now, what are "obligations"? In plain language we say that an obligation *obliges* an individual or a nation to do or refrain from doing some particular thing. Supposing that Germany, in spite of this alleged obligation, lands a military force at Samoa, and actually takes possession of the islands. This is the worst that she could do, and we therefore make this a test case. The question is, What would we do about it? Would we fight Germany? If so, upon what ground? Not upon that of an infraction of treaty, because there is no treaty. Shall we fight her because she has changed her mind? The right to change one's mind before making a bargain is among the reserved rights of nations, up to this time. Moreover, it is easy for Germany to say that a change of events has caused her to change her mind. She is not "obliged," however, to explain what has led her to change her mind, to anybody to whom she is under no treaty obligation. Suppose, in the case named, we reply that we had a treaty with Samoa giving us the right to establish a coaling-station at Pago-Pago, and that Germany, as the successor of the Samoan Government, is bound by that stipulation. Very likely Germany would

agree to everything that could be urged on that point, and would tell us to go on and establish our coaling-station at Pago-Pago. Then we might urge that we had the right under this treaty to tender our "good offices." It would be very churlish in Germany to refuse us that privilege. She would open a wide door to our good offices and *pourparler* over them to any extent, and in the end accept them or not, as she pleased. What next? Would we go to war or not? This is the test that we apply to the "obligations" assumed by Germany in the premises, and we wish that some Jingo Senator or editor would tell what he thinks about it.

BOULANGER I.

THE triumph of Boulanger in the Department of the Seine, by a majority of 54,432 in a total vote of 433,708, is more complete than was generally expected. Neither his friends nor his enemies expected so large a majority. That he owes his victory to the Monarchists of various shades there is but little doubt. They have supported him *en masse*, both Bonapartists and Legitimists. The other malcontents, the people who are disgusted with the working of the parliamentary system, or with the heavy taxation, or with the attacks of the Republic on the Church, or with the dulness of trade in Paris, could not have dealt such a blow to the existing régime without the aid of the Conservatives. The order was given to the Monarchists by the Comte de Paris; and the Bonapartists—who, Paul de Cassagnac now says, are Bonapartists no longer, but anything that will overturn the Republic—fell in with the plan.

They do not attempt to conceal the fact that their designs are purely destructive. They would not have voted for Boulanger if they had believed it would result in any sort of reform. For the man himself, both personally and politically, they have the utmost contempt. He was noted when in the army for his untrustworthiness and charlatanry, and the exposure of his falsehood and ingratitude when Minister of War in denying the letter which he wrote to the Duc d'Aumale, thanking him for his promotion, made all respectable Frenchmen blush to think that such a man should be in such a place. His performances since then as a political agitator have only confirmed the earlier impression. He has produced no programme, and made no promises, beyond denying that he aimed at a dictatorship. He has risen to fame and power literally as "a pig in a poke." He has made no speeches worthy of note in the Chambers. He has simply rung changes on the faults of the Republicans, and expressed himself favorable to nearly everything—such as the Government support of the Panama Canal—which the Republicans refused.

The situation now is made humorous or horrible, according to the point of view from which one looks at it, by the fact that nobody knows or pretends to know what the result of the election will be. It is almost certain that Boulanger does not know himself. The direct effect on the strength of the Ministry in the Chamber is simply the loss of one vote. It is said that Boulanger will not sit for the Seine, but choose to remain where he is as a member for the Nord, which will necessitate another election in Paris. The political value of the election lies solely in the fact that through it Paris, by a large majority, condemns the Republic as now administered. The importance of this condemnation will largely depend on the way in which the Ministers take it. The policy of the Republicans, ever since the Commune, has been to lessen in every way the political ascendancy of Paris, and thus put an end to its power of making revolutions and setting up new governments. Both Thiers and Gambetta and all their successors have striven with all their might, through schools, public buildings, roads, canals, and harbor improvements, to win the provinces over to the Republic, and give the peasantry a sense of political power, and deliver them from their slavish subjection to the mob of the capital. That their efforts have been measurably successful there is no doubt. There is a more active political life, and a keener interest in public affairs, and a deeper sense of political power now to be found in the country districts than ever before in French history. But should the Floquet Ministry now accept the Boulanger election as the verdict of the country, before which they are bound to resign, of course all this gain would be lost. The domination of Paris over the provinces would be restored, and the Radicals of the streets would feel that the Government of France was once more in their hands. Much the same thing may be said of any recognition of the election as a serious reproof or direction. If President Carnot or Floquet in any way bows before it as a final popular deliverance, by pushing forward a project of revision or hastening a dissolution, Boulanger will at once become master of the situation to rule or ruin.

If he should be allowed to have his way, say, by giving him first his "dissolution," and then his Constituent Assembly, nobody can tell whether the Constituent Assembly, which would be charged with the revision of the Constitution, would suit him. French deliberative bodies are very uncertain. The next Assembly might quarrel with Boulanger just as badly as this one has done. He might have to resign his seat in it in disgust, as he has had to do in the present one, and begin his plébiscite over again. Or, should the revision suit him by the aboli tion of Senate and Presidency, and France be committed, for the second time in her history, to a single Assembly, elected under the patronage of a military adventurer, nobody would be able to see ahead for six months. Such an Assembly would be certain to be under the domination of its most reckless and impulsive elements, eager for experimentation in every direction, and indifferent to vested rights to a degree that would almost certainly produce an overwhelming demand for a dictatorship within a year or two. That Boulanger would furnish the dictator is not at all certain. The army would have its say about that, and what hold he has on the army nobody knows. He is said to have won the affection of the privates, but the privates are a rapidly changing body, and their affections are at best transitory and fickle. The officers, especially in the higher grades, who for political purposes really constitute the military force, are said to be generally hostile to him as a "rhéteur" and humbug, and it is not at all impossible that, if such a crisis were ever reached, the Duc d'Aumale, if he were not too old—he is now sixty-seven—might reap the harvest for his nephew which the Boulangists had sown.

THE INTER-STATE RAILWAY AGREEMENT.

THE agreement which forms the basis of the Inter-State Commerce Railway Association can be understood only in the light of the discussions to which it was subjected. The proceedings of the conference of January 8 and 10, as well as some of the papers which have since been made public, indicate some divergence of opinion among the members. In one sense, this is not a bad sign. The very earnestness of the discussion shows that the representatives of the different railroads regard the agreement as a serious and binding one, and not a mere dead letter, to be entered into lightly and as lightly broken.

One fact which was brought out by the discussions was the importance of the provisions respecting competitive traffic. This is in one sense the central point in the whole matter. As finally adopted, it reads: "The Executive Board shall from time to time, on the application in writing of an accredited representative of any company the president of which is a member of this Association, take such steps for a full hearing of all parties in interest as may be proper, requisite, and legal, to secure to each company its due measure of the competitive traffic." The object of this is clear enough. It is hoped that the good results of a pool can be accomplished without direct violation of the law. We cannot do better than to quote what Mr. Depew said on the subject—for, though the trunk lines were not direct parties to the agreement, it is obvious that his words reflected the general sense of the meeting: "The strength of this present organization seems to me to be, that, in that conference of the Committee with the Inter-State Commerce Commission, you have a committal on their part to the approval of the only scheme to get the railroads together to make the agreement upon rates and adopt the rules for their enforcement. You have also in the clause which they have amended a *quasi*-commendation of some scheme which they will assist in promoting, and afterwards interpret the law in favor of concessions to the differential lines—the means by which they can be protected, and by which their owners and managers will not, for the purpose of getting business, break the agreement; so that, while we avoid the pool so called, we do evidently, under the sanction of the Inter-State Commerce Commission and without any amendment to the Inter-State Commerce Law in general, secure some

machinery by which peace can be maintained."

We just now said that this was the very centre of the whole matter. We believe it to be so, because a company which lost business while faithfully observing the agreement, if it suspected other companies of violating it, would at once withdraw. As stated by Mr. Adams, "The idea would be, the company would go before a board of managers, and say: 'We are good faithful citizens, obeying the law. Our business is gone'"—and would have some remedy. In the absence of such a resort, we do not believe that the agreement could be maintained. The penalties provided by the Inter-State Commerce Act have, in actual practice, proved insufficient to prevent rate-cutting. Under certain circumstances, the road that obeys the law the best loses the most. The presidents' agreement provides for an organized effort to detect violations; but it is not probable that what the law has conspicuously failed to accomplish can at once be carried out by an agreement of this kind. If time is given, the irregularities can be detected and probably stopped, at least in their worst forms; but if time is not given, it is unlikely that a railroad president will passively sacrifice the interests of his own road by obeying the law, while knowing, even though he cannot prove it, that he is suffering through others' disobedience. If the Commission can so interpret the law as to allow these necessary measures of self-protection by division of traffic, well and good; if they cannot, we fear that the agreement will be worth little more than other agreements which have gone before it.

So much for the means of maintaining the organization. With regard to the system of rates itself, we find two conflicting views. One party, including a decided majority of those present, wish to leave matters with as little interference as possible, calling in the aid of arbitration only where an actual conflict between actual interests threatens to produce war. On the other hand, Mr. Stickney of the Chicago, St. Paul and Kansas City, both in the conferences and subsequently to them, thought it necessary to go much further. In an open letter, dated January 11, the day after the second conference, he says: "It is self-evident that before reasonable, uniform, and remunerative rates can be maintained, such rates must be ascertained and established. To ascertain such rates and then put them into effect is the first step. The public mind assumes that such rates have been ascertained, that they are fully agreed to and understood, and that nothing is easier than to put them into effect and maintain them; that it is merely an act of volition; that the presidents have only to order it in good faith, and it is accomplished. This is the theory of the contract of January 1, and to a large extent of the plan adopted yesterday. In my judgment, this is a superficial view."

He goes on to say that any agreement, to be more than a mere makeshift, must fix a basis of rates. He would first agree upon a full and complete classification. On questions which must arise in making such a classification, he would provide in advance for a board of arbitrators. He would have the meetings as public and open as possible, giving the fullest hearings to outside parties interested, and seeking advice and suggestions from State and Inter-State Commerce Commissioners. Having thus arranged his classification, he would adopt some one class as the standard, agree upon the percentage above or below the standard rate that the other classes should bear, and systematize the whole schedule upon this basis.

Efforts of this kind have not been by any means unknown in the history of the country. The Southern Association has done much in this direction, and the results have been at least fairly good. But the difficulties of such a project are greater to-day than they were before, on account of the opposition of certain sections of the Inter-State Commerce Law. We do not believe that Mr. Stickney does full justice to these difficulties, nor do we believe that, under the most favorable circumstances, the matter could be carried as far as he seems inclined to go. The cost to a railroad of doing any given sort of traffic depends largely upon the volume of such traffic which can be obtained. This can often only be determined by experiment. Any arbitrary mathematical standard, if placed high enough to be generally remunerative, would have a tendency to prevent such experiments. It would thus hinder reductions in rates, and stand in the way of increased efficiency in railroad service.

But from another point of view Mr. Stickney's position is much stronger. For arbitration to establish itself as a system, there must be some permanent principles developed and applied. They need not necessarily take the shape of mathematical formulas, but they must be capable of general and impartial application. In default of any such principles, railroad arbitrators have an enormous amount of work, with little prospect of lasting success. The result often is something like that of arbitration in labor disputes, where A is given about half what he wants and B the other half. If either party changes his mind a month later, the whole matter has to be arbitrated over again. The advantage of a systematic basis of rates, such as is proposed by Mr. Stickney, is that it gives a principle on which to base decisions. It takes away the chance for constant renewal of petty quarrels which can only be settled by averaging the claims of the contending parties, and where, in consequence, each party is disposed to claim as much as possible. While it is an advantage to recognize arbitration instead of fighting as a means of settling difficulties, arbitration without a principle often involves quite as much harm as good. There are two logical alternatives: either the old system of independent action, regulated by the self-interest of the contending parties, which has proved on the whole so unsatisfactory, or a system of legalized relations, where the general interests of the different parties are to be considered in laying down certain general principles, but where individual disputes are to be settled by an application of these principles rather than by an unorganized balancing of contending claims. It is a step in advance when our railroads abandon the first: it will be a more difficult, but at the same time far more important, step when they learn to accomplish the second.

EVEN BIBLES CANNOT ESCAPE.

Our readers will remember that the Mills bill, as it passed the House of Representatives, added to the free list "Bibles, books, and pamphlets printed in other languages than English, and books and pamphlets, and all publications of foreign Governments, and publications of foreign societies, historical or scientific, printed for gratuitous distribution." In the Senate substitute for the Mills bill (Sec. 12, clause 482, p. 164), this paragraph is modified to read: "Books and pamphlets printed exclusively in languages other than English." This is by no means a mere condensation of language, but is in effect a material curtailment of the saving which would have resulted to scholars and students under the operation of the clause in the Mills bill which would have permitted the free importation of all books and pamphlets printed for gratuitous distribution, as well as all publications of whatsoever kind by foreign Governments, or by foreign historical or scientific societies, if distributed gratuitously, without regard (in any of these cases) to the language used. Moreover, the insertion of the word "exclusively" in the Senate bill cuts off from free importation two kinds of publications indispensable to students, namely, lexicons and editions of texts, the latter usually containing the original text together with an English version. The production in the United States of books in these two classes is insignificant, so that the duty can scarcely be imposed for any one's "protection;" and it can hardly be that this heavy tax is proposed to be laid upon these implements of knowledge for the mere sake of revenue, in an act purporting to "reduce taxation" upon the ground that there is already a surplus revenue; nor can these books very well be classed as "luxuries" in order to justify the tariff demand, for every man of intelligence knows that to the student they are necessities. It is to be hoped that we have not yet reached the point where our Government would discourage, upon the ground of luxury, the importation of any means of education. But truly it is difficult to imagine any decent excuse for subjecting every poor citizen who thirsts after knowledge to such burdensome taxes, which are the more irksome because it is admitted upon all sides that the money thus extracted from men who are, as a class, not wealthy, is not needed to defray the reasonable expenses of the Government. No other civilized nation, be it ever so strong a believer in the theory of "protection," treats its students in this way.

It is sadly discouraging to note that this important question of free knowledge was not even deemed worthy of discussion upon the floor of the Senate. Paragraph 482 of the bill was reached and read on Thursday,

the 10th instant, and was passed by without a word of remark. On the previous day, Wednesday, the 9th, paragraph 379, imposing an ad-valorem duty of 25 per cent. upon "books, including blank-books of all kinds, pamphlets and engravings, bound or unbound photographs, etchings, maps, charts, and all printed matter not specially enumerated or provided for in this act," was read without a comment. But later in the day Senator Vance moved to insert at the end of this paragraph the words, "Provided, that Bibles printed in any language shall be admitted free of duty," which amendment was voted down by 22 nays to 18 yeas. The few remarks made upon this proposed amendment afford no reasonable explanation of the negative vote. Senator Vance pointed out that Americans who speak a foreign tongue would be allowed, under paragraph 482, to import Bibles free, while native-born citizens would be obliged to pay a heavy tax upon theirs. And while a donation from the London Bible Society would not be taxed, provided the Bibles sent were in other languages than the English, if printed in our mother-tongue their acceptance would impose a payment of duty. The only reply to these arguments was a statement that the work of the American Bible Society practically made Bibles "not only free of duty, but free of cost." But if this statement has any value as an argument, it applies with equal force to the Bibles printed by the same Society in foreign languages. Then why remit the duty on one class of Bibles and retain it on the other? Moreover, if this Society furnishes Bibles "gratuitously" (more strictly, we suppose, it should be "at cost"), it certainly has no need for tariff protection. For what reason, then, is this tax of 25 per cent. to be levied upon English Bibles?

If any one will take the trouble to examine the first page of the catalogue of the American Bible Society, he will find printed thereon: "This Society can supply *only* the Holy Scriptures without note or comment." If, therefore, a Bible student wishes to possess a copy of the sacred text made more useful and valuable by reason of learned annotation and the addition of other explanatory matter, it is clear that he must go elsewhere for it than to that Society; and if he ventures to attempt to satisfy this not unreasonable desire by importing a foreign edition, he is promptly taxed a quarter of its value—that is to say, if he happens to be a native-born citizen who desires his Bible in the English language. If he is a naturalized foreigner, or an alien residing here, our Government exempts him from the payment of such tax upon Bibles printed in his native tongue.

The negative vote recorded above, if the Senate act becomes law, will seriously burden a large class in this country who may certainly claim some consideration at the hands of the Senators who defeated Mr. Vance's amendment. In order to satisfy an easily recognized want, the great Bible publishers of England have issued editions of the Scriptures which have become widely known and justly celebrated under the designation "Teachers'" Bibles. These contain, besides the text, supplied with every possible convenience and help in the way of annotations and references, a great fund of compact information, prepared under the supervision of men of high authority in Biblical learning, and intended to answer all the needs, more especially, of Sunday-school teachers. So varied and valuable is this added matter that one clergyman speaks of it as containing the "essence of fifty expensive volumes by men of sacred learning." These Bibles are not cheap. It is impossible that they should be, for no expense has been spared in perfecting their mechanical production. They are perhaps unrivalled as examples of books most perfectly adapted to their purpose, combining compactness, legibility, portability, and durability, together with beauty of finish, in a very unusual degree. Bishop Vincent of the Methodist Episcopal Church says of one of these Bibles, "It is one of the most perfect editions of the sacred Scriptures I have ever seen. *I wish we could place a copy in the hands of every Sunday school superintendent and teacher in America.*" Nothing at all approaching these books is produced in the United States. One can sympathize with Bishop Vincent's feeling as he reads over the names of the twenty-two Senators who voted to retain a tax of from $1 to $4 upon every copy of these Bibles brought into our country. It must strike him as a remarkable way in which to aid in the diffusion of Biblical knowledge among our people, or to encourage the intelligent study of the Bible.

Our tariff legislation in regard to books has had the lamentable effect of putting the United States at the very bottom of the list of civilized countries in respect to the encouragement given to the diffusion of knowledge. The act of 1883, however, at least possessed the grace of treating books as literature; but in the eyes of our present Senate, it apparently makes no difference whether a book consists of blank pages or contains in print the wisdom of the ages, and accordingly we find the second clause of schedule M of the above act, which provides for a duty upon blank books, incorporated into clause 379 of section 12 of the Senate bill, by which adroit "editing" the duty upon this kind of stationery, which was fixed at 20 per cent. by the law of 1883, is increased to 25 per cent. in this remarkable document entitled "An Act to *Reduce Taxation.*"

AN EXPERIMENT IN PROHIBITION.

CAMBRIDGE is chiefly known as the seat of Harvard College. It is a city, however, of great manufacturing interests, and its population of 60,000 includes a large foreign element. In 1886 there was one license for the sale of intoxicating liquor for each 181 inhabitants. The saloons sought and obtained control of the Licensing Board, and not only did earnest efforts of the best citizens to secure the imposition of a high license fee fail, but the Licensing Board announced in a case of local celebrity that the moral interests of the community did not deserve its consideration in the administration of the license system. A large part of the people, especially the professional and business men, had no belief in or sympathy with the doctrine of prohibition; but the condition of affairs was no longer to be tolerated, and in a burst of indignation, fostered by an ably edited campaign paper, the city voted at the annual election under the Local-Option Law to refuse licenses for the ensuing year. This election was held in December, 1886, and the licenses then in force did not expire until the following May.

The local branch of the Law and Order League was practically dead, and efforts to form an organization on similar principles met with opposition. There was found to be a strong feeling against any organization of citizens that undertook to do police duty, or was likely to give the civil authorities a feeling that their work was to be done for them; and, moreover, the methods necessary to the detection of offences by any such organization were repugnant to many, especially in view of a late experience with corrupt detectives. The situation was serious if neither the police nor the citizens were likely to secure an enforcement of the law.

It seemed, however, that all good citizens of whatever opinions as to the law could find a meeting-ground in an organization which should limit its action to urging the enforcement of the law and arousing public opinion to demand it by means of a printed publication. The association finally formed on these lines declared itself organized "to keep the citizens informed as to the working of the laws regarding the sale of intoxicating liquors in the city, and the efforts of the city authorities in enforcing them; to keep alive by the dissemination of accurate information a healthy public interest as to the best means of dealing with the sale of intoxicating liquors, and to support and encourage the city authorities in the enforcement of existing laws regarding such sale." This plan was regarded by extreme Prohibitionists as lacking in "ginger," and by extreme high-license men as an attempt to support an unrighteous system; but the broadest possible basis of membership for the association was sought, and about a thousand men of all classes and opinions sent in their names as members. An honored professor in the University was chosen president, and the details of the work were intrusted to a secretary under the supervision of an executive committee composed of professors, lawyers, physicians, editors, and business men.

By the time the licenses had expired, the association was fully organized, with a considerable sum of money in its treasury, and had succeeded in giving the authorities the impression that a large body of citizens demanded a fair trial for the experiment. The Mayor of the city, on his inauguration, had announced his intention to secure a thorough enforcement of the law, and later issued imperative orders to the police. Thus supported, the police began active prosecution of violators of the law, and the saloon-keepers found that they had mistaken the extent of

their influence as conviction followed conviction. No discrimination was made, for the proprietor of the largest hotel fled from the city to avoid imprisonment, and later several students of the College were heavily fined for membership in drinking-clubs. This vigorous action practically put an end to the sale of liquor; but little liquor was sold in the saloons, and no new places had sprung up.

The results of this action began to appear at once in a decrease of disturbance in the streets and an improved condition of the poorer classes. The *Bulletin* of the association, published at intervals during the summer and fall, gave publicity to the action of the police and the courts. It secured the enforcement of certain provisions of the law that had been neglected by calling public attention to the delinquency, and it gave, so far as possible, the observable results, whether making for or against the success of the law; and all in a fair and dignified manner.

This novel method fixed public attention on the experiment. Prior to the election, a thorough investigation into the results of prohibition was instituted. The physicians, employers of labor, owners of tenement houses, and those having to do with the poor, were seen and asked for their personal observation, and the information obtained in these interviews was printed and mailed to every voter. The reports generally showed a very remarkable change in the condition of the poorer classes. Physicians noted improvement in the homes; more and better clothing for the children, and more and better food on the tables; the wives of laboring men were anxious for a continuance of "no license." Employers reported better work done in the shops, with more promptness and regularity in attendance, especially after pay-days. Landlords found greater promptness in the payment of rents, and less trouble with tenants. This mass of testimony, given in each case upon authority, went far to arouse popular interest in a continuance of the experiment. The liquor-dealers made every effort to secure a vote for license, but they found a new spirit in their opponents. The large campaign committee included enthusiastic converts to "no license." A campaign fund of two thousand dollars was easily raised, much of it from men who had hitherto voted for license. The clergymen of the city of every denomination united in public services, and held a mass meeting presided over by Dr. A. P. Peabody, and addressed by the Plummer Professor in the University and the priest of the largest Catholic church in the city. The contest brought out the largest vote ever cast, except at a Presidential election, and the city again voted against license by a decided majority, and reëlected Mayor Russell, who had so faithfully enforced the law.

After this election the saloon-keepers began to move out, and at the end of the year all but nineteen of the original saloons were either vacant or occupied by other business. "Kitchen" bar-rooms now began to appear, but it was found that the police, under the stimulus of public opinion, were able to cope with this evil. Repeated convictions were made, and it was demonstrated that liquor could not long be sold in any place without the knowledge of the police.

It must be remembered that Boston, with one liquor license to each 263 of the population, is separated from Cambridge by the Charles River, so that liquor is always obtainable by the people of Cambridge, but, nevertheless, the arrests for all causes have fallen from 1,699 in 1886 to 1,469 in 1888; the arrests for assault, a crime frequently due to liquor, have fallen from 250 in 1886 to 163 in 1888; while the arrests for drunkenness, which were 723 in 1886, and rose to 805 in the first year of prohibition, have fallen to 653 in 1888. The number of tramps lodging in the police-stations has fallen off a third. In November last, after eighteen months of prohibition, there were only 36 arrests for causes other than drunkenness, while in the same month of 1886 there were 74 such arrests.

The investigations of last fall showed still greater improvement among the poor. Coal-dealers reported sales of coal by the quarter-ton where they formerly sold by the basket. A baker in the worst section of the city reported a large increase in the sales of milk. Dealers in furniture on the instalment plan found an increase of trade and prompter payment of instalments. It is said that it is now difficult to give away second-hand garments. Employers reported continued improvement among their men. The poor, especially the Irish, showed their appreciation of prohibition by voting for it in large numbers; in one voting precinct of workingmen, a vote of 96 for no license in 1885 has risen to one of 265 in 1888. The captains of police report less than forty places under suspicion for the illegal sale of liquor, and a freedom from disturbance both in the streets and houses of the city.

THE CAR STRIKE.

THE street-car companies in this city and Brooklyn are again confronted by a problem which they will probably have to face periodically hereafter. The ostensible ground of the strike in New York is that the companies refuse to confer with certain persons entitled "The Executive Committee of Division District No. 1," with the view to "entering into an agreement" for the ensuing year. We hardly need to go over the ground, so well beaten two years ago, as to the consequences to the companies of surrendering to requests of this sort. The greatest difficulty of the labor problem in this country, in all but the highly-skilled trades, is the low character of the men who manage the unions and try to negotiate on their behalf with the employers. The difficulty is peculiarly great in dealing with the employees of street railroad companies, who are not really skilled laborers at all, or a very good class of unskilled laborers. The bulk of them are very ignorant men, and peculiarly liable to deception at the hands of the cunning adventurers who organize and take charge of their unions.

What kind of adventurers these are may be guessed from the fact that the most prominent figure in the strike of 1886 was a man who had, while janitor of an apartment building, completely stripped one of the apartments under his charge of its furniture during the owner's absence in Europe, and then fled. He was very active in pushing the Third Avenue strike until he was recognized by the police as a fugitive from justice, when he again disappeared. Magee, the Chairman of "Executive Committee Division District No. 1," who is directing the present strike, is an ex-convict who has served a term in the penitentiary for robbing the mails when a letter-carrier. About his colleagues less is known, but they cannot be men of very good repute, or they would not be his colleagues.

To enter into any agreement with a body of this kind would be a breach of trust on the part of the directors, both towards the stockholders and the public: towards the stockholders, because it would be admitting outsiders of bad character to a share in controlling the property, and towards the public, because it would be the surrender of a franchise to unauthorized and irresponsible persons. And there would be the additional and, of itself, fatal objection, that no agreement with such men would stand very long. It would be sure to be broken soon with a view to fresh exactions on the part of fresh "Chairmen" and "Master Workmen." The managers of these organizations of unskilled labor, like the car-drivers and stablemen, and coal-heavers and 'longshoremen, are a shifting body. They get up strikes because it is through strikes that they secure their best chance of making money. The "assessments" for the support of the strikers all come into their hands. The total amount of these contributions is large. No account of them is kept or rendered by anybody, and the contributors are generally too ignorant to exact one, or understand it if rendered. Consequently a good strike means a small fortune to each of the leaders, and having got it he is apt to disappear in order to enjoy it without observation or criticism. For instance, the men who were prominent in the strikes of April, 1886, were O'Donnell, Best, Graham, Downing, and Hughes. Not one of them appears in this. Before the last one was over, O'Donnell was to be seen strutting about with a gold-headed cane and gold badge, and exhibiting a roll of bills said to contain $3,000. The others probably fared proportionately well. The turn of Magee, Glennon, Hamilton, Smith, and Grady has now come. They, too, want to "make their pile" by some shorter method than driving cars or grooming horses. The companies, we are glad to say, now appear to understand the game thoroughly, and show no disposition to allow it to be played again on them, or on the poor men in their employ. The cars will probably not run with any regularity for a few days, and the public will have to suffer some inconvenience; but we shall be saved the scandalous spectacle of the payment of blackmail in a great city, by the holders of public franchises, to a parcel of notorious rogues and impostors.

Happily, too, we have in New York a police which knows how to give security on the public highways to people abroad on their lawful occasions. In Brooklyn the inhabitants are less fortunate. The spectacle presented there during the last few days of a uniformed force hobnobbing and exchanging quids with rioters and murderers in the streets, is as shameful a one as was ever witnessed in a civilized community within this century. The cause of such humiliation is a subject too large to be discussed at the end of an article, but we cannot help hoping that it may serve to give the Brooklyn people the kind of shock we got here from Tweed's Ring. Brooklyn municipal politics have been of late the despair of reformers. Perhaps the revelation that the police in a time of disorder is simply an undisciplined horde, may do what argument and entreaty have failed to do. And we hope the pathetic story of the poor man who was murdered for trying to get work after two months of idleness, may do something to cool the heads and soften the hearts of the "friends of labor."

BONAPARTE AT ELBA.

PARIS, January 10, 1889.

GREAT names like the name of Napoleon Bonaparte are, so to speak, centres of crystallization. You could already fill a library with the volumes which have been written about him. The Bonaparte "Literatur," as the Germans would say, is daily increasing. Much has been added to our knowledge of the man during late years. The Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat have been perhaps the most valuable contribution to our stock of documents on the most extraordinary, and in some respects enigmatic, personage of our time. While history tends to become merely documentary, and nobody can criticise the search for truth, we must be very careful not to accept all documents as if they had the same value. The historian must also be a critic. The recent publication of M. Taine on the French Revolution and on Bonaparte is perhaps not critical enough. The same may be said of a volume just published by Marcellin Pellet, under the title, 'Napoléon à l'île d'Elbe.' The author has used documents hitherto left in a corner and which circumstances brought to his notice. He has had the curiosity to study, on the island of Elba itself, a most singular episode in the life of Napoleon, to consult the local traditions of the place; he has found the reports of an agent of the secret police of Louis XVIII. who remained in the island while Napoleon was there. This agent was a sort of reporter, who noted everything with the most minute details. His journal is full of mistakes; it mentions the most idle rumors; but it is nevertheless very interesting, as it makes us, so to speak, lead the life of Napoleon at Elba, and enter into all the passions, hopes, and illusions of the people who surrounded him. This document was found in the archives of the French Consulate at Leghorn.

Article 3 of the treaty signed at Fontainebleau on the 11th of April, 1814, gave to Napoleon the island of Elba, "to form, during his lifetime, a separate principality, which will be possessed by him in full sovereignty." The allied Powers gave him a revenue of two millions of francs, guaranteed by the French treasury, besides two millions and a half of dotation for the members of his family. Napoleon left Fontainebleau on the 21st of April. It is well known that in Provence he had to travel in an Austrian uniform. He saw on his way, on April 26, his sister, Pauline Borghese, who was then staying in a villa near Orgon. Pauline would not embrace him at first, when she saw him dressed as an Austrian; she offered afterwards to accompany him to Elba. Napoleon was accompanied by four commissioners. The English commissioner, Sir Neil Campbell, left a journal, which was published in 1869, 'Napoleon at Fontainebleau and Elba.' The Prussian commissioner, Count Waldenburg-Truchsen, published in 1815 a relation of the itinerary of Napoleon.

Napoleon embarked on the 28th of April at Fréjus on the English frigate *Undaunted*. He only arrived five days afterwards, amidst the applause of the poor population of the island, who looked upon him as a demigod. He immediately began to organize his miniature kingdom, to form a court. Bertrand was made grand marshal, Drouot military governor of the island, Cambronne commander of Porto Ferrajo; he chose chamberlains among the most important inhabitants; he organized the veterans who had been allowed to follow him, the Corsicans who came to offer their services, into battalions. He soon had an army and a navy and a treasury, he began public works. He chose for his residence the Mulini, a house which is high above the town, gave receptions and dinners, and received visitors, chiefly English visitors who were drawn to Elba by their curiosity.

A mysterious visitor came to see him soon after his arrival; it was the Countess Walewska, whom he had first known in Warsaw in January, 1807. The Countess had afterwards joined him at his quarters, and had stayed with him for three weeks. In 1809, after Wagram, he saw her at Schoenbrun. She went to Paris, where she became the mother of a child whom she now took with her to Elba, to show him to his father. All these details were not well known at Elba, and many people thought that the mysterious lady with the child was the Empress Marie-Louise with the King of Rome. When the Countess Walewska left Elba, she went immediately to Naples with a confidential message from Napoleon for Murat.

In reality, Marie-Louise never thought of joining Napoleon again; she astonished all Europe by her attitude towards her husband and her conduct afterwards at Parma, where she had several children by General Neipperg, during the lifetime of the Emperor. Napoleon learned at Elba of the death of Josephine at Malmaison, and he was moved by this news as much, says M. Pellet, as he was capable of being moved, as he had always felt a real affection for the woman who had been the origin of his fortune. Napoleon invited his sisters, Caroline and Eliza, to come to Elba, but they both refused. Pauline and his mother Letitia came to join him. Letitia embarked at Leghorn, with Campbell. "Madame mère," says Santoni in an inedited journal, "though her attitude did not mark any joy, showed, notwithstanding her age of sixty-five years, the admirable remains of an extraordinary beauty." The populace of Leghorn hissed her. She arrived at Porto Ferrajo on the 2d of August. Pauline arrived later, as she had to fulfil a mission to Murat; she remained with her brother till he left for France.

Pauline Borghese was then thirty-five years old. She was so beautiful that Canova had taken her for the model of the "Venus Victrix" of the Villa Borghese, and of the "Venus Bathing" of the Pitti Palace. M. de Sémonville called her "the greatest and most seducing *coquine* that could be imagined." Taine cites this passage of some inedited and anonymous memoirs (they are probably the memoirs of Duke Pasquier): "No woman since the wife of the Emperor Claudius has surpassed her in the use which she dared to make of her charms." There have been many dark sayings on the relations of Bonaparte and Pauline; it is necessary to go back to Cæsar and to Lucretia Borgia to find such a complete contempt of human and divine law. Mme. de Rémusat repeats these words of Bonaparte: "I am not a man like another, and the laws of morality are not made for me." Pauline, if she did not feel superior to the rest of humanity, professed a blind and absolute obedience to her brother. (See, as to this, 'La Corte e la Società romana nei secoli XVIII.-XIX.,' by David Silvagni. Rome, 1883. Vol. iii, p. 57.) I believe, however, that at Elba Pauline acted chiefly as a political agent for her brother, and the insinuations of M. Marcellin Pellet can be answered by arguments drawn from his own book. The state of health of the Emperor which he describes, and which continued till Waterloo (all military writers have insisted on the bad state of Napoleon's health at Waterloo, which prevented his keeping on horseback) is somewhat inconsistent with Pellet's accusations. These accusations are founded only on some letters written by the French refugees at Elba, which were always opened at Leghorn and sent in extracts to M. de Talleyrand, who was then at Vienna. Whatever may be the value of these communications, which were sent by M. de Jaucourt (and not verbatim, but improved by Jaucourt), one thing is certain: Pauline was a most active political agent of her brother.

Napoleon never thought for an instant of remaining quietly at Elba. He entered immediately after his arrival into secret communication with Prince Eugene, who remained in Milan as Viceroy, and with Murat, who was still in Naples. The Cavaliere Mariotti, French consul at Leghorn, organized a complete system of observation; but he could not hinder a crowd of visitors, chiefly English, from going to Elba. During the first months of 1814, a sort of Italian movement sprang up in favor of Napoleon. The great warrior was lost to France: the Italians claimed him as a compatriot. Could he not make a new, a strong Italy? These dreams of unity were still vague, but they haunted many imaginations. Could not Napoleon be made King of Italy, with Prince Eugene, perhaps Lucien, as his successor? Many Italian emissaries were sent to Elba. Let us say at once that Napoleon did not discourage, but he never entertained, the project of becoming an Italian sovereign: his thoughts were chiefly turned on France. He only looked upon Eugene, Lucien, Murat, as allies who could help him in his French enterprise. He did not like the Italians nor Italy, though his wars in one sense assisted Italy and helped to shake her apathy.

Napoleon had his counter-police, and his own agents, who kept their eyes open on Mariotti, and on the Court of Tuscany, which was entirely under Austrian influence. He was in daily communication with Paris (see the 'Mémoires de Lucien' by Colonel Jung); he was informed of all the mistakes of the Royalists, of the sentiments of the army. He resolved to return to France, prepared munitions of war, arms, provisions, almost ostentatiously. Such was the state of public opinion at the time that on the 8th of February, 1815, Count Jaucourt could write to Talleyrand, who represented Louis XVIII. at Vienna: "It would be quite possible that you should be in this *diablerie*." Napoleon learned from Murat of the rupture of the

Congress of Vienna, he received an emissary of Maret, Duke of Bassano (this emissary left an account of his journey, published in 1819, in England). "You will say to Bassano," said Napoleon, "that you have seen me, and that I have decided to run every risk to answer the wishes of France. I shall start on the 1st of April with my guard." The little fleet which bore the fortunes of Cæsar was composed of ten ships, and started in the evening of the 26th of February. M. Pellet tries to prove that the expedition was favored by the English Government; he believes in the complicity of Colonel Campbell. His chapter on this subject deserves to be read, but did not in the least convince me. The idea that England prepared indirectly the terrible events which followed the return from Elba, seems to me simply fantastic.

Little remains at Elba to show the trace of the passage of Napoleon. On his departure, he left his library to the city of Porto Ferrajo. The house of the Mulini now belongs to the Italian Government, but nothing remains in it. The little house at San Martino was bought by Prince Demidoff, the husband of Princess Mathilde (the daughter, still alive, of Jerome Bonaparte, and the sister of Prince Napoleon Bonaparte). Prince Demidoff made of it a Napoleonic museum, composed of objects which had belonged to the Emperor. These objects were afterwards transported to San Donato, and, in our time, all the pictures and relics of San Donato have been sold at public auction. Some frescoes only remain at San Martino. One represents two pigeons which are tied by a string —the further apart they move, the stronger the knot becomes: this was an allusion to Marie-Louise. We read on one of the walls "Ubicumque felix Napoléon." These words were dictated before the return to France, a few months before Waterloo.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF SERVIA.

ALASSIO, January 10, 1889.

ON the 27th of next June five centuries will have elapsed since that Vidovdan, so famous in legend and ballad, when the old Servian Kingdom fell a prey to the Turks on the battlefield of Kosovo, where both the Servian King Lazarus and the Sultan Amurath met their deaths. It is well that the Servian King and people should commemorate this date by a great step in their history as a liberal and civilized nation. If the Servians were among the first Christian peoples to fall under the power of the Turk, they were also among the first to rise against him. The opening years of this century were taken up with their struggles for liberty, first under Karageorge and then under Milosh Obrenovitch. They gained the right at last to manage their own affairs without Turkish interference, though still subject to tribute and to garrisons. But the land was one of patriarchal simplicity, where every one was equal—the old noble families having all disappeared, because, unlike their brothers in Bosnia, they had refused to change their religion in order to keep their lands—and the rule of the Prince, whether he was an Obrenovitch or a Karageorge, for they changed at frequent intervals, was an absolute one. The Prince, it is true, had a Council of State, who, according to the Turkish *Hatt*, "must be men possessing the entire confidence of the people and having public opinion in their favor," but they were merely creatures of the Prince, whose despotism had therefore to be tempered with revolutions. Finally, in 1862, a Turkish garrison could no longer be endured at Belgrade, and it was expelled. Prince Michael Obrenovitch, who was then on the throne, had no sooner arranged matters with the Porte than he was murdered, as the result of a plot concocted by Alexander Karageorgevitch. He was succeeded by his nephew Milan, then a boy not fourteen years old, during whose minority the government of the country was confided to a regency of three, of whom Mr. John Ristitch is the only one still living. This was in 1868. In accordance with the spirit of the time, a constitution was made—equally in accordance with the spirit of the time—of the merits of which something may be said later.

The twenty years' reign of Milan Obrenovitch naturally falls, as he himself said before the Skupshtina, into two periods. The first ten years were devoted to asserting the entire independence of the country from Turkish suzerainty. In this came the war against Turkey of 1876, caused chiefly by the outbreak in Bulgaria and the subsequent outrages committed by the Turks. It so happened that I had arrived for the first time at Belgrade the day before war was declared, and was witness of the enthusiasm which it caused. Although the Servians behaved themselves remarkably well, and were supported by Russian volunteers commanded by General Tchernáyeff, the case would have gone against them had it not been for the interference of the Powers, who were anxious to avoid a general Eastern war. Finally, through the mediation of the English Minister at Belgrade, now Sir William White, the English Ambassador at Constantinople, a peace was concluded, leaving both parties *in statu quo ante*.

It was scarcely two months after this peace before the Russians had declared war against Turkey, and the Prince of Servia, on going to the Russian headquarters, made some sort of an arrangement as to his eventual action. When the Russo-Turkish war was over, the Servians were dissatisfied with the peace of San Stefano, claiming that the conditions which had been agreed upon had not been fulfilled. If so, they were themselves perhaps partly to blame, as they had long delayed their active hostilities. The Treaty of Berlin, while it gave them more than did that of San Stefano, did not entirely satisfy their desires, and their ambitions were thwarted by the Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, inhabited by Servian populations. Nevertheless, what Servia obtained at Berlin was through the mediation of Austria, and in return Austria demanded very much, in the shape of a commercial treaty, which necessitated building railways and placing the country practically under the commercial preponderance of Austria-Hungary. Mr. Ristitch was still Prime Minister, and it was owing to his views and convictions about the necessity of keeping Servia aloof from foreign intrigues, and also to the fact that up to that time Russia had been the only great Power which had befriended Servia, that it was difficult for him to carry out the engagements, not taken by, but imposed upon, Servia under the Treaty of Berlin. It was necessary to change front and follow the path marked out by Austria. A so-called Conservative Minister therefore came into power. The commercial treaties were signed, the railways were built, and Servia acquitted her indebtedness to Austria. But in doing so she naturally placed herself, owing to the force of circumstances, in opposition to Russia. This is the second period of Milan's reign.

This sudden change from a patriarchal and simple-minded agricultural people to a modern state could not occur without friction. Before this all citizens had been equal. There were no poor, and inequalities of wealth had somehow been concealed and were not noticed. Now, with the influx of foreign capital and of foreign labor—for the railways were built chiefly by Italians—with the mania for concessions and large Government enterprises, the distinction between classes, which had only existed in the largest towns, became visible, with its natural consequence on politics. The radical element became developed, a thing unknown before, and Servian politics took an entirely new turn. It was soon seen that the old Constitution was utterly unadapted to the changed state of affairs, and prevented the proper development of the country. In fact, it added to the elements of discontent within it. But the difficulties in the way of amending the Constitution were so great as to cause delays, and although the question was mooted at once, yet even when the principality was raised to a kingdom it was thought better not to propose any except merely formal changes in the wording of the Constitution. In addition to all the other difficulties in the way, there were plots for the assassination of the King, the unfortunate war with Bulgaria, the necessity of deposing the Metropolitan on account of his intrigues with Russia, and the family troubles which finally resulted in the divorce of the Queen. Once these difficulties all removed, the King returned to his own original idea of remodelling the Constitution. He had learnt by experience that it is much easier to govern as a constitutional monarch than as an autocrat, which he was not, or as a semi-autocrat, which he was.

King Milan is a very remarkable man, whose faculties would be at once recognized had he the opportunity of exhibiting them on a large scale in a great country. To all the solid qualities of a Servian he adds what Servians rarely possess, a certain poetic faculty of idealism, derived probably from the Latin blood in him coming from his Rumanian mother, who was one of the Catargi family, distinguished in Rumanian history. He had been little in Servia, and from boyhood had been educated in France, being brought back after the murder of his uncle, Prince Michael. When I first met him, twelve years ago, he was only twenty-two years of age, and had been ruling independently only four years. But even then he seemed to know his country better than any of his Ministers. At the present time he is without doubt the most astute politician in Servia, and his fund of general information, which is constantly growing, has, on each interview, increased my respect for him and for his abilities. The leader of the old party, Ristitch, is by no means the selfishly ambitious man, of retrograde instincts and decided leanings in favor of Russia, that he is generally made out to be. He was one of the Regents during the minority of King Milan, at a time when the admission of foreign influence into Servia, as into any other of the Balkan States, seemed to mean its subserviency to a foreign Power. He believed in Servia for the Servians, and although at that time and since he may have leaned towards Russia as the country which was most likely to help the Servians, he was at the same time indisposed to modern improvements which would bring the country under the influence of the Austrians, and especially under the preponderance of financiers, chiefly Jews, having their headquarters at Vienna, Berlin, or Paris. He was therefore not a fit instrument during the period of transition following on the Berlin Conference; but now that the *volte-face* has been successfully made without too great a surrender of Servian rights, he is as ready as any one else to accept accomplished facts and begin anew. The demands of Austria-Hungary for

the fulfilment of certain conditions inserted in the Treaty of Berlin—which, by the way, was not signed by Servia—for the completion of railways and the conclusion of a commercial treaty were put in such a brutal manner, if the expression may be allowed, that a change of Ministry was absolutely necessary, and a party came into power calling themselves at first Conservatives, simply because the party of Ristitch called themselves Liberals, and afterwards, as now, taking the name of Progressives.

This party has been best represented by two men, Mr. Garashánin, the son of the old Regent, a man of western education, and a westerner also in manners and politeness, and Mr. Miyátovitch. The latter was educated at a German university, married an American lady, and is one of the most learned and most highly cultivated men in the country, being now President of the Academy of Sciences. Although he has been several times Minister of Foreign Affairs, as well as Minister in London and Paris, his strong point is finance, and it is to him that Servia owes the placing of its financial affairs on a sound basis. The only other leader of importance at the present time is the head of the Radical party, General Savva Grúitch, a very charming man, with an amiable and perhaps not too strong character, which enables him easily to be put forward as the mouthpiece of the Radical party, which represents nothing unless discontent, fostered as it has been by the semi-education given to the children of the Servian peasants in the high schools and university. Two foreigners should be mentioned as important factors in Servian politics, Count Bray, the German Minister, a personal friend of the King, and Mr. Persiani, the Russian Minister, who has been in Belgrade since 1875, and who, during his long residence, has very properly made friends and exercised influence wherever he thought it would be best for his own Government.

Servian affairs not long ago came prominently before the public in a disagreeable, sensational way, in consequence of dissensions in the royal family, which resulted in the divorce of Queen Natalie. Sovereigns always find difficulty in the annulment of their marriages, as witness Henry VIII., Napoleon I., and George IV., sometimes owing to religious and sometimes to sentimental reasons. In this case nothing was alleged against the personal honor of the Queen, but she so far forgot what she owed to her husband and to her station as to meddle in politics, and to have views opposite to those of the King. Even when she was living separated from him, and protested that she engaged in no political intrigues, she did not at times conceal the fact that she was greatly interested in politics. At last it became almost a question of the duration of the King's reign and of the Obrenovitch dynasty, and, as divorce is very easy in the Eastern Church, it was finally pronounced by the Metropolitan, from whom, as he is the head of an independent church, there is no appeal. The Queen, unfortunately, not only then, but in all her previous conduct, had forgotten that, although she was connected with princely houses in Rumania, she was not a Servian by blood, and could not count on the entire sympathy of the population, and that she was not of royal family, and would therefore have no supporters among the governments of Europe. Much as the friends of the Queen, and even those of the King, may regret the divorce, yet, as it is now an accomplished fact, and is perfectly legal, nothing more can be said.

On the heels of the decree of divorce came a proclamation asking for a revision of the Constitution. Although it may be thought that this was simply a method of diverting public attention from the King's domestic affairs, yet I at least can bear witness that this idea was in the King's mind fully eight or nine years ago. Fortunately a loophole was found in the old Constitution by which all the delays could be avoided. A commission of seventy members was appointed by the King, including clergy, former ministers, and members of the Council of State, the rector and six professors of the university, two generals on the retired list, and thirty-one members from the community at large—merchants, agriculturists, lawyers, bankers, and priests. The King himself took the presidency—not merely nominally, for he was present at nearly every meeting of the commission—and the three vice-presidents were Ristitch for the Liberals, Garashánin for the Progressives, and Grúitch for the Radicals, although the last was not in favor. What the King desired was not a constitution drawn up by a majority of the members, but a fair compromise between the different parties, and such was the result. The Constitution was to be submitted to a great Skupshtina, or assembly elected for the purpose. The first elections were annulled in consequence of complaints brought of undue influence, the King having promised that the election should be perfectly free. As might have been expected, the Radicals returned a very large majority, and, on the strength of that, the draft Constitution not having yet been passed, they demanded the insertion of various provisions on which they had been previously outvoted. On this occasion the King did not take part in the commission, in order that a compromise might be arrived at without suggestions of his influence. That once done, he informed them in a very telling speech that as all the leading members of all parties had been represented, who were responsible in one sense for the votes of those whom they had elected as members of the Grand Assembly, the Constitution must be accepted or rejected without amendment or discussion. He expressed himself very plainly, much more so than American statesmen would be inclined to do in a similar case, because he was willing to use current political terminology, as, for instance, "Mugwumps" (though in Servia they are called "Savages"); and although he did not say it outright, he gave the politicians to understand that the choice was between accepting the new Constitution or no constitution at all. Naturally he carried the day, and the new Constitution was voted by a tremendous majority—494 to 73.

On comparing the new Constitution, the definitive text of which lies before me as I write, with the old one and with other constitutions of Europe, what strikes one is the great advantage it has over the old, and then that it is one of the most liberal constitutions in Europe. One might have perhaps a hesitation about accepting all its good qualities, were it not that the Servians are an honest, straightforward, conservative, and law-abiding people, who have done so well under an imperfect constitution that they may be fairly trusted to work this one rightly. The statement of the rights of Servian citizens is very clearly expressed, and they are fully equal to those of Americans or Englishmen. No one can be arrested without warrant, except when caught *in flagrante delicto*. Exile from the country is forbidden as a punishment; domiciliary research is forbidden without a warrant, and in no case can be allowed at night; confiscation is forbidden; religious liberty is guaranteed, though proselytism from the state religion is forbidden (this being copied from the old Constitution); instruction is free, primary instruction being obligatory and gratuitous; the press is entirely free; the right of public meeting and of association is guaranteed, as well as of petition and of accusation against all public officials who infringe the law in any of these respects. The extradition of political criminals is forbidden, and the right of expatriation is allowed to every Servian who has fulfilled the duties to his own country incumbent on him at the time of his emigration.

One of the greatest changes is that in the formation of the representative Assembly. There is only one house, as formerly, but the number of members is lessened by having only one member in the country districts for every 4,500 taxpayers, instead of one for every 3,000, as formerly. The cities and large towns, however, are given each a representative, Belgrade, however, having four, and Nish and Kraguyevatz having two each. The commune, including the village, of Takova, where Servian independence was first proclaimed, and that of Dobrine, the headquarters of the Obrenovitch family, are also, for honor's sake, to be allowed a special representative. With the usual exception for loss of rights by judicial process, every Servian, twenty-one years old, who pays three dollars a year direct taxes, is allowed a vote. The members of the Assembly are not to be elected by districts, but by general ticket (*scrutin de liste*) in each province, of which there are to be ten, and at least three of the deputies from each province must have taken a degree, either at the university at Belgrade or at some corresponding university abroad. One of the great difficulties with the old Constitution was that no person who had ever been a Government official could be elected to the Assembly, and the same restriction was imposed on lawyers. The result was to throw the whole representation into the hands of the peasant and uneducated classes. This is now entirely abolished; but, with the exception of Ministers, members of the Council of State, diplomatists, judges, professors, and officials who have retired or are not in active service, no person in the service of the state can be a deputy. Should a deputy become an official after his election, he must retire from the Chamber and submit to a new election, except in the case of Ministers. These exceptions, however, with the provision about three members for each province who have obtained university degrees, are sufficient to secure the representation of the educated classes, and provide against revolutionary intrigues, by allowing the real heads of parties to be members of the National Assembly. The deputies are to be paid, and, in accordance with French rather than English constitutional law, no deputy can be arrested, except when caught *in flagrante delicto*, without the permission of the Assembly, during the whole of his term, and even then a trial cannot take place without the authorization of the Assembly. The term of the Assembly is fixed at three years, unless it be sooner dissolved. One-half of the Assembly is required to be present to form a quorum as usual, but it is to be regretted that in this case the Servians did not adopt the useful provision of the Constitution of the United States that a smaller number can adjourn from day to day, and that the Speaker is authorized to compel the attendance of members sufficient to make a legal quorum. It has been one of the great difficulties of European parliamentary governments that when the Opposition is numerous, and not all of the Government members are present, business may be delayed for days and even for weeks in consequence of there not being a majority of the members of the House present, and of there be-

ing no method of compelling their attendance. Another feature which is common throughout Europe, but which seems to Americans and Englishmen very absurd and is productive of much delay, is that the Speaker and all the officers of the Assembly are not elected for the whole term, but only for the session, whether ordinary or extraordinary.

By the old Constitution, which was the first attempt of the Servians at representative government, an effort was made to strengthen the royal prerogative by allowing the King or his Ministers for the time being to appoint a number of deputies equal to one-third of the number elected. The object of this was of course to give the party in power a working majority, but it did not succeed well in practice, and was omitted from the new Constitution on the King's own proposition. The Assembly, therefore, is now entirely a representative one. As before, the National Assembly consists of only one house, but by the side of this there is a Council of State. That institution existed in Servia before, the members being appointed by the King. Now the members are to be appointed for life by the King and the Assembly conjointly—sixteen in number, one-half elected by the Assembly from a list given by the King, and the other half appointed by the King from a list elected by the Assembly. This, of course, was the result of a compromise. Among the attributes of this council is that of supervising and revising every bill brought into the Assembly, whether by the King or his Ministers, or arising in the Assembly itself, except the laws relating to the budget. Everything, to speak broadly, relating to finances is in the power of the National Assembly. The Government can make no debt without its sanction, and although the King has the right of declaring war and making peace, no treaty can be made which affects in any way the rights of individual Servians or the finances of the state without the sanction of the Assembly, and no treaty can be made by which a foreign army can either enter Servia or pass through its territory without the consent of the Assembly. The budget is voted for only one year, and it is a sign of the development of the country that a provision is inserted in the Constitution that all mines and all monopolies belong to the state, although they may be rented to private persons. The judiciary is independent and irremovable, except by impeachment, and no extra-judicial function can be imposed on judges, even by law, without their consent.

The new Constitution has already gone into effect by its proclamation, but there are certain transitory provisions for the electoral law and the Council of State which are to prevail until the meeting of the extraordinary session of the National Assembly on October 13, 1889, which is to pass laws regulating the electoral law, the arrangement of districts and communes, and all else to put the Constitution entirely into force. EUGENE SCHUYLER.

ATTIC AND OTHER GREEK DIGGINGS.

ATHENS, December 27, 1888.

THE close of the year affords a fitting opportunity for reviewing the results of recent excavations in Greece. The work of the Greek Archæological Society upon the Acropolis has continued under the competent direction of the general Ephor, Mr. Kavvadias, without interruption up to the present time, and by the end of the Greek year the work on that site will be finished. The summer was spent in excavating the area between the Parthenon and the south wall of the Acropolis. The wall between the substructure of the Parthenon and the Acropolis wall, which was first met with in the spring, continued for nearly the whole length of the Parthenon, and in the space between this central wall and the Acropolis wall were found several cross walls of similar construction and apparently intended for the purpose of support. It is supposed that the area between the central wall and the Parthenon was a terrace for the support of the Parthenon substructure, and rose simultaneously with it, while the other portion, between the central wall and the Acropolis wall, was filled in afterwards. Near the west end of the Parthenon the central wall meets a part of the old Cyclopean wall, in which is an interesting stairway; this has been left visible by the excavators by means of supporting walls. By far the most important find in the line of sculpture was a marble relief representing Athene clad in a long sleeveless tunic, with helmet upon her head, leaning upon a spear with her left hand and resting her right upon her waist. She is facing to the right, and looking downward with a melancholy expression. In front of her is a stele, probably ornamented with painting. Mr. Kavvadias considers that it belongs to the times immediately before Pheidias, but Dr. Waldstein, who has just arrived, and whom Kavvadias has invited to publish this relief, says that it belongs to the last part of the fifth century, and is to be connected with the famous Velletri Athene of the Louvre, which has given archæologists so much trouble to explain. He believes that it will show that the Velletri statue goes back to an early original, and will be of service in its restoration.

A large Triton's head of *poros* and brilliantly painted, similar to the two found during the spring, was another important result of the summer's excavation. Herr Brünckner, a member of the German Institute, obtained permission to study these three heads and other *poros* fragments found at various times, and succeeded in combining them into a three-bodied Triton, in which form they are now set up in the Museum. There has been considerable discussion recently about better measures for preserving the colors. The painted objects are eventually to be placed in air-tight glass cases; but while these are preparing, much of the color may be lost. For example, the colors upon the two Tritons' heads when unearthed last spring were of extraordinary brilliancy, but now are quite dingy and faded. The coloring matter seems to be of a powdery nature, and the careless way in which the attendants dust off these monuments is anything but preservative.

During the autumn the work has been chiefly in the space between the Parthenon and the Propylæa, though some excavating was also done beneath the floor of the present Museum, and resulted in the finding of portions of the old Cyclopean wall. The excavations upon the site usually ascribed to a temple of Athene Ergane were watched with interest, as the finding of any considerable substructure walls would disprove Dr. Dörpfeld's hypothesis that such a temple never existed upon the Acropolis; but no temple remains were found. Dr. Dörpfeld claims to have identified here the Chalkotheke. A few weeks ago was found another of the archaic female statues which form such an important and interesting feature of the Acropolis Museum, the chiton in this case being of one solid color, a beautiful light green. Many fragments of statues, all of the archaic period, and exhibiting plentiful traces of color, have been recently found—one a very good male head with the beard colored a very dark blue. It was reported in one of the papers here a short time ago that an inscription of the artist Endoios, the question of whose date has given rise to so much epigraphical discussion, had been found; but the last letters only of the inscription are of a date corresponding to that of the already known Endoios base, whereas the first line, which contains a portion of the name Endoios, is plainly of a later period. It may, however, be a reinscribing of the name.

The most important find of the whole year was made within the last week. In that portion of the southern wall of the Acropolis which was built up above the Kimonian wall—whether in Frankish or Turkish times, no one knows—was found a fragment of a relief representing a female head with a very peculiar treatment of the hair and a portion of a hand grasping it. To the right of the head was a flat raised surface, which was at first taken to be the hind part of a horse. The style and character of the work instantly revealed to the Greek archæologists, Messrs. Kavvadias and Staïs, a connection with the Parthenon frieze, but they were considerably disconcerted by the treatment of the hair, which is unlike anything to be found in the Parthenon sculptures. Dr. Waldstein, being invited to look at it, was almost instantly able to assign it to its correct position, namely, as the missing head of the Iris in the group of divinities a little to the left of the centre of the eastern frieze. On the original slab, which is in the British Museum, are Zeus and Hera seated, with the headless form of Iris standing beside them, the left wing and arm being visible. The fragment just found supplies the head, the right wing (which at first glance appeared more like the rump of a horse), and the hand of the left arm. Mr. Kavvadias has invited Dr. Waldstein to read a paper upon this fragment at a public session of the school at which it is thought likely that the King will be present.

The work on the top of the Acropolis is practically finished already, but the demolition of the Turkish walls and modern guardhouses which disfigured the west side is not yet completed. The walls of the Turkish bastion, through which has been the ordinary entrance to the Acropolis for some years, are torn down, and visitors now enter by the Beulé gate. As soon as all work on the Acropolis is finished, the Greek Society will begin to clear away the débris on the northern slope, where they are almost certain to meet with satisfactory results.

Dr. Schliemann went to Pylos during the autumn, but found nothing but Turkish buildings, and soon withdrew. The German School has undertaken no excavations this season, and, so far as I know, is not projecting any. The French excavated again in Bœotia at the temple of Ptoon Apollo during the month of September, and found a couple of heads of the archaic Apollo type. In the town of Karditza, near the site of the excavations, M. Holleaux discovered a long inscription containing a speech of Nero. The stone was in the interior wall of a church, and the deciphering of the letters cost the finder much labor; but he was well repaid by the very important character of the document. The inscription is divided into three heads: the first being a proclamation of the Emperor Nero, inviting the inhabitants of the province to assemble at Corinth on a certain date; the second being the speech delivered on that occasion; and the third a vote of thanks to him and a decree to set up an altar to Nero Zeus, the Liberator. The second portion, the speech proper, begins by stating that the gift about to be bestowed on the people is something entirely unexpected, although there is nothing which they might not hope from his

magnanimity. All the Greeks inhabiting Achæa or Peloponnesus are to receive their freedom, which they have not enjoyed even in the most prosperous times, since they were always slaves to others or to each other. The address closes magniloquently with—"Other rulers too set cities free, but Nero a whole province."

On October 1 the French transferred the scene of their operations to Thespiæ, from which place they returned only a few weeks ago. They pulled down a Byzantine church situated upon the site of the Temple of the Muses, which was shown to be a simple cella without dividing walls, having its entrance at the north. Excavations were also undertaken in the theatre, where the Greek Ephor Stamatakis made a beginning several years ago. The stage arrangements, as far as they have been disclosed, are similar to those of the theatre at Epidaurus, but none of the orchestra-chairs were found. A considerable number of inscriptions, including many dedications, were brought to light. Work at Thespiæ is to be resumed in the spring.

Work at Ikaria was carried on for several weeks by the American School, the chief object being to clear away a mass of earth which was left last year within the sacred precinct. A deep trench was cut through this part last spring without striking anything, but it seemed advisable to remove the whole mass of soil there and clear the entire precinct. This was done at the outlay of some time and expense for which the results were not commensurable with last year's, but still were of no mean importance, especially when we remember that every stone *in situ* is of the greatest value in making out the general plan. One wall, which runs not far in front of some massive marble seats *in situ*, was supposed last year to be the front wall of some structure, but the excavations this year have shown that the wall curves inward towards the line of the seats at each end for a distance of two metres, and then terminates. This shape of the wall, taken in connection with the marble seats and the eminence in the background, seems strongly suggestive of a theatre structure, though it must be acknowledged that it could not be brought into any connection with any known form. The seats are in a straight, not a curved line, and it looks as if the audience had moved down into the very orchestra, if orchestra it was. In fact, there are so many difficulties that one cannot be sure that the notion of a theatre in this connection is more than a pleasing fancy, excusable, however, on the ground that many of the rural theatres were of too primitive a nature to be judged by the usual standards.

A subordinate object of the work this season was to follow up a rough sort of platform, which seemed to extend indefinitely from the north peribolos wall of the precinct. One edge was found, but it extended to the west into a terrace where the deposit of soil was over two metres deep, and the work here progressed so slowly that it seemed best to give it up, at least temporarily, in order to be sure that nothing should be left undone within the precinct. In clearing a passage along this northern wall, there was found a huge hollow stone broken at one end, but having about the edges five mysterious objects, the explanation of which is no easy task. A corner-piece with a similar object upon it was found last year, and was a complete puzzle to every one who saw it. Crocodile feet, birds' tails, shells, bunches of grapes, etc., have been suggested, and give an idea of the lack of definiteness in the form of the objects. The idea that they are to be explained as fragments of some creature is ruled out by the fact that one of these objects shows itself absolutely intact. Dr. Waldstein thinks that, owing to the pyramidal form of one side, the whole piece must be a portion of a roof with a representation of shells on the under side; but I am very loath to give up my own theory that it was a huge basin for offering sacred cakes to the god Dionysos, and that these objects are representations of cakes made with a sort of pine-cone mould. A wall-painting from Pompeii represents a statue of Dionysos, and before it a huge hollow basin in which there is, besides several fruits, a cake made in the form of a pine-cone. This is not the place for a detailed discussion, however, and, besides, no one can have a clear idea of the appearance of these strange objects without some visible representation before him. Among the other sculptures found this season was a bearded portrait-head of the Roman period. An overhauling of the débris also yielded a few fragments which had been overlooked last year—one of great importance, namely, the left thigh of the archaic draped torso found last year, which shows beyond a doubt, as had been conjectured, that the statue was seated.

As has been already remarked, the results of the excavations this fall were not as great as last spring, but this was not expected. Up to this time the entire sum spent in Ikaria has been about $400. It must be rarely indeed that an equal outlay can produce results so important as these. We have fixed beyond a doubt the site of the deme of Ikaria, in reference to which there have hitherto been the most diverse opinions. We have not merely fixed the site in the sense in which other deme sites are known, but, what is unique, we have discovered the actual deme seat, the political and religious centre. Architectural, sculptural, and epigraphical remains combine to show the existence of two very important religious cults, those of Dionysos and Apollo. The first was naturally the most important, and was inseparably connected with the history of the locality. The Apollo cult, which can be shown by epigraphical evidence to have existed in the fifth century, is of great importance in the consideration of the introduction and spread of Apollo worship in Attica, and thus bears indirectly on the question of the early race or tribe relations within Attica. The proximity of Ikaria to Marathon makes the presence of an Apollo cult especially interesting in connection with Curtius's theory of the Ionian migration.

The architectural remains, comprising three buildings, are of considerable importance and interest, and a unique feature is the manner of "labelling" the Apollo temple on the door-sill, though on the door-sill of the Isis temple at Pompeii is an inscription in reference to its restoration after an earthquake. The sculptural remains extend from the earliest period of archaic art to the Roman period, and include some fine specimens of the best period. The colossal head which Mr. Kavvadias last year considered archaistic, is held by Dr. Waldstein to be genuinely archaic.

The inscriptions, most of them belonging to the fifth or fourth century, but a few of late Roman times, furnish a large amount of material of great historical importance, and, it is hoped, will throw much light upon the political and religious life of a country deme, about which comparatively little is known. The very insufficiency of our knowledge, which makes inscriptions of this kind the more interesting and important, also makes the restoration and interpretation of fragments the more difficult. Not by any means the least interesting point in reference to Ikaria is the name Dionysos, by which the whole region is at present called. This is probably a reminiscence of the old cult of Dionysos in this place, which has been transmitted through the tongue of the people for so many centuries.

While at Ikaria in the autumn I devoted a day to exploring with a friend the region about Stamata, a small village lying just beyond the ridge which shuts in on the north the valley leading in to Ikaria. Some have placed at Stamata the deme of Semachidæ, though no ground for this could be given at the time. Others, including Lolling in the last edition of Baedeker's 'Greece,' believe that Stamata may be upon the site of Hekale, a deme which must have been situated on the road from Athens to Marathon. Now, the present village of Stamata was settled in this century, and there is no reason to believe that it is upon the site of any deme centre. But about half an hour's distance to the north, and not five minutes' walk from the present road to Marathon, are the ruins of three churches, each of them built largely of ancient materials. May not this be the seat of the deme of Hekale? To the south of the present village lay the old Stamata, which was only deserted in this century. Here also is a ruin of a large church with two apses, and containing in its walls many ancient blocks. Near this place the owner of the property found a female statue of the Roman period a few years ago. I feel strongly inclined to believe that here lay the deme of Semachidæ. The vicinity of this deme to Ikaria has been maintained by several on account of the similarity of the myths. Its vicinity also to Plotheia is shown by the fact that Semachidæ and Plotheia are two of the three villages of the Epakria, one of the original Ionic "cities" or confederations which, like the Marathonian tetrapolis, continued after the reform of Cleisthenes in the form of a religious community. I also believe that Ikaria was the third village of the community; but as there is no direct proof of this, we cannot use it as a further evidence for the vicinity of Semachidæ to Plotheia. Now the site of Ikaria is absolutely fixed, and that of Plotheia can be placed with a very strong probability at the entrance of the valley leading in to Ikaria. This church ruin is northeast from Plotheia and northwest from Ikaria, about equally distant from each, so that no place seems to be better calculated to meet the topographical requirements of Semachidæ.

Still, we cannot put absolute faith in combinations of this kind, and it is to be hoped that within a short time some more definite evidence may be obtained. The friend who explored the place with me, Mr. Washington of Yale, '86, was so much interested that he offered to make trial of both places near Stamata at his own expense, and has begun work this very day.* The School has also obtained permission to excavate in Bœotia, at either Thisbe, Platæa, or Anthedon, and Drs. Waldstein and Tarbell, with some members of the School, are to make a trip to all these places to see which is most promising. There is no doubt that there are plenty of sites which would be well worth excavating if sufficient funds were at hand to be devoted to this purpose. The great excitement now, of course, is Delphi: but everything is still in a state of uncertainty.

The work of the School in Athens has been going on smoothly, Mr. Tarbell having proved

* While our correspondent's letter was getting into type, we received news that Mr. Washington had within a week found, at old Stamata, besides various fragments of sculpture, an unusually well-preserved female torso of more than life size, and several inscriptions which establish this as the chief centre of the deme Plotheia, which may have extended into the valley as above described. Clearly, the spade can hardly be put into the soil in Greece without bringing to light new facts and old treasures.—Ed. Nation.

a most accurate and discriminating guide to the students in all branches of their study. Dr. Waldstein arrived December 15, and has taken hold of his work here with great energy, having already given several lectures at the School library and the museums. He is also laboring to make the School take its stand as an archæological institute for advanced research, and to establish a prestige for it here. He is about to institute a series of public meetings, to which members of the other archæological schools and the Greek archæologists will be invited. At these meetings papers will be read by the directors and members upon special subjects, manifesting original work and containing some contributions to science. He also hopes to begin the publication of reports in Athens in order to avoid the delay inevitable when papers are published in America. Many objects which might in this case be given to the School for publication are now withheld, owing to the great delay necessary before the article appears.

The hospitality of the other schools has been very marked. Dr. Dörpfeld of the German Institute has been especially kind in inviting all the members of our own School to his peripatetic lectures, which are models of clearness and accuracy, and teeming with the most brilliant *Kombinationen*. The regular meetings of the German School were inaugurated on Winckelmann's birthday, and papers were read by Dörpfeld, Wolters, and Brünckner. Dörpfeld's paper was especially interesting, being a comparison of the palace remains of Tiryns and Mycenæ with those of Phœnician construction, especially Solomon's temple.

C. D. B.

Correspondence.

DECAY OF MASSACHUSETTS FARM LANDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "G. W. A." need not have gone so far as New Hampshire for examples to refute Senator Hoar's curious proposition that the existence of a mortgage on a New England farm is a sign of life and health. The writer has spent the last three summers in an attractive farming town in the very heart of Massachusetts (Holden)—a town immediately adjoining Senator Hoar's residence (Worcester), and connected with it by five daily railway trains. In this town there is, as I was assured, a larger amount of woodland and a smaller amount of cultivated land than forty years ago; the men whom one sees working in the fields are almost always past middle life; and some of the best farms are in the hands of Swedes or Irishmen.

I found the subject of mortgages always a fertile theme among the farmers, and never encountered one who took the view of them taken by his neighbor, Senator Hoar. On the contrary, the view always taken was that they were almost an unmixed calamity, and that the farmer was lucky who, having once incurred one, paid it off during his lifetime. Very little money passes directly through a New England farmer's hands, and on that little the mortgage has the first claim; and the needs of a sick wife, or a child demanding education, have to be made secondary. If his house or barn is burned, the existence of the mortgage may make rebuilding impossible, and this was named to me in explanation of several abandoned farms. I was sometimes urged to take farm property off the farmer's hands for the bare amount of the mortgage; being once offered about fifty acres of mortgaged woodland, within a mile of the village post-office and railway station, for $1,000. This offer being declined, the owner afterwards sold off the timber for $500, thus paying off half the mortgage; and he must, to all appearance, pay interest and taxes for thirty years until the lot is sufficiently grown up in timber to be cleared again. Meantime he loses his firewood, which was the only advantage he derived from that part of his farm; and he also loses the beauty of the pine wood, which was the chief thing that made his farm attractive to summer boarders. It seems to me that there can be no better illustration of the strange logical results of the high protective system than that it should lead a Massachusetts Senator seriously to assert that a mortgage on a New England farm is a sign of health.

T. W. H.

Cambridge, Mass.

GETTING AT THE FARMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Mills Whittlesey, in No. 1229, proposes to win the farmer to tariff reform by giving him a "sound library of political economy" to read during the "long winter evenings." Reforms of all kinds for the farmer are frequently based upon the presumed leisure of the long winter evening. (I don't believe in that kind of reform myself—I mean class reform. What is wanted is a tariff reform that will interest all classes.) There are as many kinds of individuals among farmers as in other callings. There are also many kinds of farming. In some kinds the farmer is as busy in January as in July. If he reads, he reads at all seasons of the year; if he doesn't, all the leisure of all his life will not give him time enough to read five books on political economy. If he is intelligent and bookish, he is likely to say when the five-book subject is broached to him: "I have more reading material now than I get time to look at. There is So-and-So, he is an educated man; he pretends to know. If your books convince him, I'll think about it." In general terms, the farmer is moved and acted upon chiefly by local men, local causes. The editors of the country papers, the lawyer-politicians of the county town, and also the local clergymen are his main guides on the subject of the tariff as in many other things.

"Knowledge is of things we see,"

and the farmer sees the men who are nearest him. Their opinion is of a vast deal more consequence to him than is that of Francis A. Walker. If he has accidentally heard of Taussig, it is only to be prejudiced against him as a "literary feller," a "doctrinaire" in some "down-East college," whose opinion on the tariff sinks into insignificance when compared with the boundless knowledge of the Hon. James G. Buncombe, as displayed in that speech of his in the town hall just before his election to the State Legislature. He knows "Jim" is a "smart feller": he has his doubts about Fawcett.

While the preacher is seldom an active force in politics now, how he votes is well enough known, and carries with it the force of an acknowledged leader. I do not know of any statistics on this point, but I venture to suppose that 65 per cent. of the clergymen in Republican States vote that ticket and advocate the protection idea.

The farmer, I hold, is to be reached better by indirect influences than by direct. What is desired is to reach the three classes enumerated, to whom he delegates his political thinking. These latter are unquestionably more intelligent, and more likely to weigh and act upon book evidence, than the former. If these can be converted, then the conversion of the farmer is a foregone conclusion. To them the books could be sent with some faint prospect of their being read.

But this brings us logically to the question of where do the editors, and lawyers, and politicians, and preachers get their tariff ideas? While they are derived to a large degree from inherited prejudices and circumstances of environment, they also depend in turn upon the influences emanating from the half-dozen large cities—the papers, magazines, journals, the speeches of men prominent in public and business life. So long as men of eminence favor and uphold protection, and so long as many newspapers of wide circulation urge its claims from week to week and day to day, so long it is bound to continue. To this last group of citizens, then—the editors of protection papers (not the organs, but the papers which uphold protection because they believe in it), the distinguished advocates and jurists, the clergymen of high degree in the great cities—to the men who stand upon the heights—would Mr. Whittlesey still better appeal than to any others. Convince any considerable number of them, and again the cause is won. The local papers, the petty politicians, the faithful clergymen on small pay, would follow, and in their wake would our farmer friends appear rolling up the majorities of certain victory.

If, for instance, the five books could be read by the Rev. Dr. Storrs, who said during the last campaign that he believed "there was something in the protective idea," it might be the means of convincing, not one man only, but a host of his admirers and friends. If, likewise, the editors of a non-political paper like the New York *Independent* could be persuaded to take a course in economics at Columbia, and simply announce that they thought protection a robbing game, it would stir up in a decisive way intelligent men in every considerable town in the land. And lastly, if each protection-upholding Congressman could have his every economical utterance subjected to analysis by a person well versed in sound economical literature, and this scattered as widely among his constituents as the speech—whether delivered or not—is by means of the *Congressional Globe*, then the farmer constituent might become interested in a subject which his own Congressman seemed to find opposition in.

In closing, allow me to call attention to three popular movements which have in view "good government by aiding in the training of intelligent and independent American citizens." First are the Political Economy and Political Science Schools of Chautauqua University; second is the American School of Politics (Chicago); third are the Reading Clubs of the Tariff-Reform League.—Very respectfully,

Theodore Jessup.

Baldwin, Wis., January 20, 1889.

THE FARMER'S LOCAL NEWSPAPER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Please allow me, first of all, to thank those who have contributed suggestions in answer to my letter of recent date, published in your columns.

Let me add to the suggestions I then made a less expensive and a more interesting and promising plan. Many country towns have one local paper of each prominent political faith. These sheets are read by the farmers of the near neighborhood. It is probable that the subscription list of each Republican newspaper,

even of this limited circulation, contains the name of one Republican who is dissatisfied with the course of his party with reference to the tariff. Indeed, perhaps one Mugwump in each neighborhood reads such a paper for the local news.

These papers are filled largely by voluntary contributions from subscribers. This presents a good opportunity for opening a discussion and inviting replies. A farmer who might be unwilling to be educated, would possibly enter the lists to annihilate our audacious adventurer with a few—to him—self-evident facts. Then, if our champion were a thorough student of "maxims" and "markets," an opportunity would be afforded him of giving these supposed facts that examination which they will rarely bear, with that accompanying interpretation which should operate to correct the false notions of the whole neighborhood.

It is the difficulty of exciting discussion, rather than any doubt as to its eventual outcome, which is the discouraging thing. In one way or another, in all feasible ways, discussion must be stimulated. It is on appeals to prejudice and on the absence of sound discussion that private interests rely to perpetuate their privileges. Let the opposite side use the same means if they choose; the more they court discussion the better we shall like it. One difficulty is that a single speech of McKinley's can set afloat a greater fog of unreason and misconception than any brief discussion can dispel. There is no place in such an arena for jaunty confidence. It would be the best possible school for training in power of concise statement. Months of careful study of the best authorities might well precede such a debate. This plan is also applicable to the case of laborers in the smaller manufacturing towns.

One of the letters which I have received regrets the speedy dismemberment of organizations to promote tariff reform. In an organization not every member is a worker. What is everybody's business is nobody's. It is conceivable that the work of fifty men, each singly leavening the intimate circle that knows and has confidence in him as a neighbor, might turn the scale in Michigan in 1892, and so in other States of the Northwest. Of course, I hope that organizations to promote tariff reform may live and thrive. We can hardly have too many really active agencies in this good work.

Jevons says: "If people do not understand a true political economy, they will make a false one of their own." Now that this false one, fully made, confronts us, almost more than finite pains and patience will be needed to eradicate it. When it is considered that one lapse of patience may suffice to confirm a deluded victim of selfish interests in his prejudices, the need of "sweetness" as well as "light" will be obvious.

I see that the *Independent*, in its issue for January 24, proposes to class the teacher of free trade, in certain institutions, with traitors, heretics, and Anarchists. Perhaps we are risking thumb-screws, the rack, etc., in advocating free-trade principles. Certainly discussion does not exactly seem invited. Can the last campaign have made so deep an impression on the strongholds of protection that discussion is feared? I hope this will not be taken as an expression of impatience. Really, the *Independent* should consign such editorials to its "Pebbles" column. That has not contained anything so funny in twenty years.

MILLS WHITTLESEY.

LAWRENCEVILLE, N. J., January 24, 1889.

[We have grave doubts whether in ordinary times the partisan local newspapers will show hospitality to opposing views for the sake of free discussion. In campaign times we have known of a price being asked (and paid) for a "Mugwump" column in New Jersey papers.—ED. NATION.]

THE EFFECT OF FRAMING UPON A PICTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A fashion has grown up in Boston of late years which I presume prevails more or less in other cities. There is a legion of dining-clubs, meeting periodically, and based upon all sorts of considerations of profession, trade, locality, society, art, music, etc. As, besides material entertainment, they wish to be instructed and amused, they make a practice of selecting some subject, and inviting persons supposed to have a special knowledge of that subject to be their guests and make them after-dinner speeches. As, so far from hiding their candle under a bushel, they are quite willing that their light should shine before men, they frequently have a shorthand reporter, and the remarks of the speakers are taken down verbatim. It is to be supposed that, as the papers print these reports in full, they supply, or are believed to supply, a public want, and form a curious contrast to the summary way in which the proceedings of city councils, State Legislatures, and the national Congress are passed over.

At the annual dinner of the Boston Merchants' Association, on the 8th inst., there was present no less a personage than the Hon. T. M. Cooley, who, besides being a judge, a lawyer of eminence, and one of the profoundest political thinkers and writers in the United States, is a member of the Inter-State Commerce Commission—a body which, perhaps, commands at this moment a more widely spread and practical interest than any other in the country. Passing by for the moment the substance of Judge Cooley's speech, I wish to point out how completely that, like a recent similar one of Mr. Charles Francis Adams of the Union Pacific Railroad, was fired in the air. They may excite sympathy and interest at the average breakfast-table, but everybody knows that their influence upon Congress, the only place where influence is of any use, will be absolutely nothing. Even if any measure could elbow its way through the crowd of pension, river-and-harbor, and private bills, that measure would be framed upon entirely different considerations, such as the lobby brings to bear upon committees. Let us suppose that a Secretary of the Interior, after full consultation with these and other gentlemen, and hearing all their views and plans, should himself bring into Congress a bill calculated to give the highest efficiency to the Inter-State Commerce Commission; that Senators and Representatives, duly prepared by their constituents, should discuss this bill in public session, and that the vast interests dependent upon railway management could be convinced that some serious and genuine effort was making to straighten out their complex affairs—what an interest and excitement would pervade the country! And this we could easily have if Congress could only be persuaded or compelled to give up its jealousy on behalf of the power of committees.

This view of things is greatly strengthened by the character of Judge Cooley's remarks, which were simply a defence of the law. It would have been useless to point out to a dinner company the defects of the law, as that would have only been fouling his own nest, without the slightest effect in getting the law amended. So he set himself to show that if the law did not work well, it was because railroad managers did not conform to it; that pooling, which the law prevents, is a very difficult process, at any rate; that too many railroads are built; and that something else needs reforming besides the law (which, by the way, is quite true). But what is the use of a law which depends for its success upon the coöperation of those against whom it is aimed—of a law against burglary and murder which relies upon the voluntary abstinence of thieves and murderers? I suppose the object of a law is to protect those who do wish to obey it against those who do not; and if it fails in that, it has no reason of existence. Of course, the guests at the dinner-table could not cross-examine Judge Cooley as to the provisions of the law; and if they had, he might have replied that he did not care to discuss them, as he was not responsible for them. What is wanted is somebody who *is* responsible for the law subjected to the public criticisms of those who are dissatisfied with it.

The argument is clinched by your article this week upon the annual report of the Commission. You show what a vast work in statistics and information has been done and is promised by the labors of such men as Messrs. McCain and Adams. But the only use of all this work is to get the law either justified or amended, or repealed and some substitute provided. Yet all the information in the world will not be of the slightest use unless there is some agency for carrying it into practical effect. At present the only agency available is one or more committees of Congress, and they are, for any good purpose, absolutely useless. The man who could procure and put into effective administration a law that would relieve the anarchy which threatens the great railroad interests of this country, would stand on a pinnacle with Lincoln and Grant. And there is a plenty of men of first class ability who would devote their lives to the work for little or no pecuniary reward if they could see a chance of the prize. Many such a man would work himself to death for the chance of such a position in this country as Mr. Gladstone holds in Great Britain; and Mr. Gladstone won it by his management of the national finances.

Suppose there was such a man in this country, and he did such work. It would never come before the world as his; it would be that of a committee of which he was only one member, nor even that—it would be the work of the first session of the Fifty-first Congress. If we expect to get first-class work from first-class men under such conditions as these, we are doomed to eternal disappointment. When any measure comes before a committee, every member asks himself what he is to get out of it, either in material advantage or reputation. This is perfectly natural, and we have no right to calculate upon anything else. But experience has long since demonstrated that nothing in either way is to be gained by devotion to the public interest; and so the member turns to a much more promising resource—the favor of his most influential constituents—in other words, of the lobby; while this, again, tends to fill the seats in Congress and the positions on committees with men who are much better fitted for the service of the lobby than for that of the public.

If we ever expect any good work upon the Inter-State Commerce or any other law, we have got to open some road for honorable individual ambition, and the only way to do this is to give the executive branch some public share in the guidance of legislation, and to

make Cabinet places not merely the means of giving honor through office to small men, but of glorifying office by the presence and influence of great men. G. B.

BOSTON, January 19, 1889.

UNPROTECTED CLASSES IN PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a little odd that Pennsylvania, the stronghold of protection for manufacturers, should be the one great manufacturing State of the Union which leaves the women and children employed in manufacture absolutely without protection. Pennsylvania has neither factory inspectors nor truant officers. Its Bureau of Statistics of Labor has made no investigation of the labor of women and children. The city of Philadelphia has not even a census of its school-children, and the City Councils have refused to make one, though the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mr. McAllister, and the Board of Education insistently urge the need of an annual census. Mr. McAllister estimates the number of children for whom no schools are provided, at ten thousand.

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children cannot enforce the meagre provisions hitherto enacted for the protection of working children, because its agents would be ejected for trespass if they should presume to enter the sacred precincts of manufacture upon notice which empowers them to enter a home at any hour of the day or night. The law provides that no child under twelve years of age shall be employed for wages at any occupation, and that none under thirteen shall be employed in any cotton, woollen, silk, paper, or bagging mill. In the absence of provision for the enforcement of these clauses, and of school registers, showing the actual age of children, the Philadelphia cash-boys and cash-girls are appallingly small, and the number of children admitted to the hospitals by reason of injuries received while at work is appallingly large.

While Commissioner of Labor Statistics of Connecticut, Prof. Hadley stated, as a result of one of his investigations, the proposition that long hours, monthly payments, and child labor go together. Here in Philadelphia certainly long hours, low wages, and child labor are inseparable. While New York, New Jersey, and Ohio, the neighbors bounding Pennsylvania on the north, east, and west, have all appointed factory inspectors, thus placing themselves in line with New England, Old England, and the more advanced nations of the Continent, Pennsylvania ranks with its southern neighbor, Maryland, and indeed with the whole South, in its callousness to the need of wages-earning women and children for protection.

Governments proverbially help those only who help themselves; and as the toiling children of Pennsylvania are incapable of helping themselves, the national Government helps their employers instead, while the State and municipal governments reinforce this help by declining to interfere on behalf of exploited childhood. The women of the State, however, can help themselves and the toiling children (though they are seriously hampered in their efforts by the lack of the ballot), and they are proceeding to do so effectively. Mrs. Leonora Barry agitates for the abolition of child labor. The Workingwomen's Society proposes work in two distinct directions. It will organize workingwomen after the manner of the eminently successful parent society in New York, and it will also undertake legislative work for instituting factory inspectors, truant officers, sanitary inspection, the abolition of child labor, and the shortening of the hours of labor for women and girls.

Will the protected manufacturers appeal for protection against the disenfranchised women of the commonwealth? F. K. W.

PHILADELPHIA, January 23, 1889.

RELIABLE ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What with ignorance, prejudice, and other conservative agencies equally potent, if not respectable, vulgar errors, as we all know, proverbially take a great deal of killing. Of this truism, in the province of our vernacular philology, the still frequent onslaughts on *reliable* are noticeably exemplificative. In the United States, the word has repeatedly been reprobated; its reprobaters, only echoing, however, as if they conceived themselves to be quite secure in so doing, the censure of it persistently reiterated on this side of the Atlantic. Nor, other arguments apart, answerable for the disapproval of it which has here been expressed, is that to be ignored which is found in the recurrently fabled assignment of its birthplace. Again and again, on mere sinister conjecture, it has been spurned by Britons as an Americanism; and the conviction of its being one has, without doubt, in the minds of many, been accounted a sufficient reason for eschewing it and for counselling others to eschew it. Just so, to adduce a parallel instance, the verb *advocate* was formerly supposed to be of American origin, and was, accordingly, stigmatized as barbarous and intolerable. Even Southey, with all his multifarious reading, held it, on this ground, in patriotic contempt. Similarly misimpressed, as it seems, with regard to the nativity of *influential*, Coleridge, who once hazarded it, feeling that an adjective of *influence* was indispensable, went the length of contenting himself, thenceforward, with *influensive* and *influencive*, monstrosities which died at birth. And like-circumstanced with the objects of Southey's and Coleridge's aversion are many other vocables on which I might appositely descant. British Aristarchs no longer, however, deride *advocate* and *influential*, now that they have brought themselves to put up with *lengthy*, *loafer*, and *outsider*. By slow degrees, Englishmen are beginning to acknowledge, that, in the matter of enriching our language, a good thing may, by happy possibility, come out of our Nazareth.

A friend has called my attention to a recent issue of the *Saturday Review*, in which, under the heading of "Idiom-haters," occur the subjoined specimens of indisputably good sense:

"All students of English know the kind of critic who, with a little learning and a great amount of ignorance, from time to time endeavours to put a 'thus far and no further' to the growth of his mother-tongue. . . . To attempt, at any time, to set a final circumscription to the expansion of the empire of the English tongue, to say that you must not use this phrase, or that, unless it be found in some good writer of ten, twenty, or two hundred years ago, is to obey the silliest of all possible superstitions, and not the least mischievous."

Yet the person who can write thus is pleased to illustrate, not the unwisdom of others, but his own, by a tilt at *reliable*. To change the metaphor, weighed, by him, in an untried balance, the expression is pronounced to be "an indefensible solecism"; though, in the presence of facts, his "indefensible" should be altered to "harmless," and one must read, instead of his "solecism," "bugbear." Apparently authorized by the editor of the *Saturday Review*, he goes on to tell us of the measures which that journal has taken with intent to devitalize, or at least to sterilize, so far as it has the power, the odious pest which harrows so cruelly his capricious sensibility:

"It is not because good writers have not used *reliable*, but because the word is useless and superfluous, to begin with, bastard, in the second place, and nonsensical, in the third, that we, like all good writers, never use it, and give our printers orders to strike it out if any misguided contributor does use it."

The first objection here taken to *reliable* is, that it is "useless and superfluous." The answer to this is obvious. As well might it be contended that *rely* is "useless and superfluous," since we have its approximate synonyms *confide*, *depend*, and *trust*.

That it is "bastard" is the second objection urged for discarding *reliable*. Whether it is so, or not, is, however, open to doubt; inasmuch as it may, very possibly, still be traced to the French. But, even on the assumption that the last syllable of *rely* is *lie*, from the Anglo-Saxon, we have *eatable*, *drinkable*, and so on, matching *reliable* in its mainly essential characteristics. For the rest, our standard vocabulary teems with formations generically akin to it, as being hybrids.

But it is far from unlikely that I have mistaken the critic's "bastard." The epithet, as he boldly applies it, is of the vaguest. Taken figuratively, it imports, according to Dr. Murray's *Dictionary*, "illegitimate, unrecognized, unauthorized," and also "not genuine; counterfeit, spurious; debased, adulterated, corrupt." The critic, as we have seen, maintains, indeed, that, for us, the word lacks practical authority; but he leaves us quite in the dark as to whether, in branding it as "bastard," he intends "hybrid," "counterfeit," or what. Was he apprehensive that explicitness would be fatal to his contention?

By way of a third objection, *reliable* is ambiguously said to be "nonsensical." In favour of the objector, let it be presumed that his "nonsensical" stands for "void of signification," or the like; seeing that every one is perfectly clear as to what *reliable* denotes. He must, then, of necessity, allude to its relation to its verb; his position being that only a transitive *rely* would justify the adjective as now in vogue. Yet we have *accountable*, "capable of being accounted for," *disposable*, "free to be disposed of," and the still more anomalous *available*, in its latest sense, with *appealable*, *indispensable*, *irrecoverable*, as in "*irrecoverable* calamity," *unsearchable*, etc., etc. Analagous, too, is the *dependable* of Pope, the Rev. G. S. Faber, Sir J. F. W. Herschel, and the *National Review*, Vol. II., p. 864 (1885); and so, of course, is the *undependable* of the *Saturday Review*, Vol. IX., p. 303 (1860). *Laughable*, with Hallam's *demurrable*, as not being demonstrably based on a verb, one can well afford to discount. To this paragraph much might be added from *On English Adjectives in -able*, a monograph which I published in 1877.

Hitherto I have been commenting on mere random denunciation. But at last we come to something definite and satisfactorily tangible.

While it is indirectly admitted, in what has been quoted above, that good writers have, in the past, used *reliable*, it is there directly asserted that they "never use it"; the inevitable implication being, that they never use it at the present day. To this assertion I shall return. Meanwhile, it may be serviceable, in the interest of those to whom any fuller discussion of the term is unknown, to say something of its history, and to enumerate sundry authors, among the dead, who considered it as worthy of adoption.

So far as I am aware, *reliable*, as Miss Mabel

Peacock pointed out in 1877, is first met with in a letter, bearing the date of 1624, from the pen of the Rev. Richard Mountagu, who eventually developed into a Laudian bishop. But the letter was not published till 1869; and Coleridge, when he originally ventured *reliable*, on the eighteenth of February, 1800, following it up with *reliability* and *unreliableness*, was, therefore, the author of a virtually new creation. From Coleridge, presumably, *reliable* was accepted, immediately or mediately, by Sir Robert Peel, Mr. J. S. Mill, Abp. Longley, Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, Dean Mansel, the Rev. Dr. J. W. Donaldson, the Rev. H. B. Wilson, the Rev. J. S. Brewer, Dr. W. G. Ward, Dr. W. B. Hodgson, Mr. Charles Dickens, Mr. Charles Reade, Mr. W. R. Greg, Mr. James Hinton, Mr. Walter Bagehot, Mr. J. C. Morison, Mr. Anthony Trollope, Mr. R. A. Proctor, and Miss Harriet Martineau, with many others, and, to pass to America, by Washington Irving, Daniel Webster, Edward Everett, and G. P. Marsh.

To come to the living, such, among them, as, with or without resipiscence, have admitted *reliable* to their pages, are, to name a few, Cardinal Newman, Mr. Gladstone, the Duke of Somerset, the Rev. Dr. James Martineau, the Rev. Dr. F. G. Lee, the Rev. S. Baring-Gould, the Rev. W. W. Shirley, the Rev. George Rawlinson, Sir G. O. Trevelyan, Sir Monier Williams, Mr. Leslie Stephen, Dr. Henry Maudsley, Mr. W. Noel Sainsbury, Mr. Henry Sweet, Mr. Robinson Ellis, Mr. Thomas Arnold, Col. George B. Malleson, Mr. J. W. Sherer, and Mr. Henry Morley.

Though this list be weeded ever so liberally, there will still remain a fair share of what any one whose judgment is worth listening to must allow to be "good writers." And who can know that these would no longer use *reliable*, or that they actually do not continue to use it? Is it not the case, then, that the latest impugner of the word grounds his ostracism of it on, for one thing, a pretension to a fulness of knowledge which nobody but a patient booked for a trip to Anticyra would, ordinarily, claim to possess? It may relevantly be noted, that, shortly before 1880, it was used by Mr. Sweet, Mr. Proctor, Sir Monier Williams, Sir G. O. Trevelyan, Col. Malleson, and Mr. Morison; in 1880, by Mr. Ellis and Dr. Lee, in 1886, by Mr. Sherer, and, in 1887, by Mr. Sainsbury. And who does not every day come upon *reliable* in well-written contributions to the best English newspapers? At the lowest, as the expression was reputable, past contradiction, twenty or thirty years ago, and has by no means come to be peculiar to the unrefined, how can it have grown to be disreputable? Lord Macaulay generally has "to pore *on*" and "it *should* seem," and rarely the modern "to pore *over*," and, "it *would* seem"; but, if any one, in our day, elects to employ the older phrases, is he reasonably liable to severe reproach? At most, assuredly, he cannot be said to do worse than give a preference to archaisms.

Diagnosis has thus revealed that the criticule whose callowness I have scrutinized is simply suffering from acute whim, more or less bilious, complicated with defective information, not to speak of an asthenic condition of the logical faculty. To bear him out in his antipathy, almost equally little with the versifier about Dr. Fell does he produce anything that can, even by stretch of courtesy, be complimented as a reason. And now he may be released.

All along in the sixties, *reliable* was, practically, a special favorite with the *Saturday Review*; it showing itself there, during that decade, at least fifty times, as could be proved by references. In 1861 it was first animadverted on, in that journal, as being obnoxious; and, since then, it has been assailed, in its pages, over and over again, and sometimes with diverting irritability and rancour. Some two years since, the *Saturday Review* thought fit to rule that any user of it was "a donkey and a vulgarian." Much at one with this verdict, another London paper, nearly a generation ago, insisted that it was unendurable to any scholar or gentleman. And yet it may confidently be questioned whether a hundred repudiators of it could be mustered, if one were to poll all England. In conversation I have frequently heard it canvassed, and invariably with the result, that, in the end, it was agreed, on all hands, to be quite permissible.

It has not at all been my object to extol *reliable* as a thing of great price. After looking over what has here been set forth, the candid reader, who either has patronized it under protest, or has half-regretfully shrunk from patronizing it, will, however, it may be surmised, find his soul at rest, on discovering that his benevolence in its behalf has the warrant of multiplied precedents, unimpeachable in point of respectability. All things considered, it is not a whit worse than hundreds of current expressions which are occasionally challenged, but which, in the estimation of the most authoritative stylists, are, for literary purposes, flawless and immaculate.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, January 10, 1889.

CYCLIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for December 27, 1888, in reviewing Mr. Steven's journey 'Around the World on a Bicycle,' your reviewer uses two or three times the word *cyclist*. The use of this word in the *Nation* will probably be cited as a precedent for its substitution for the American word *cycler*. Neither of these words expresses the sex of the rider on a cycle, but no more does *swimmer*, for example, express the sex of one who swims. Nobody would think of speaking of a *swimmist*, a *boatist*, a *cricketist*. We are quite well aware that your reviewer has for authority the *Cyclist*, a trade journal of England, but the persons who bestowed this name upon the paper were a small local job printer and paper-hanger, and a country school teacher. When we consider that we have a good, euphonious, easily pronounced word, *cycler*, we see no reason why an almost unpronounceable and certainly pointless term should be borrowed by Americans simply because it is English. It is English, but English of the poorest sort.

Yours truly, J. and E. R. PENNELL.

LONDON, January 10, 1889.

[Why *cyclist* is a "pointless term," any more than *cycler*, we are unable to discover. We have no objections to the latter word if any one wishes to use it; but we stand by *cyclist* (κυκλίζω) on the analogy of *botanist* (βοτανίζω)—to seek no further. Patriotism has nothing to do with building words correctly from the Greek.—ED. NATION.]

THE ROYAL BERLIN LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A communication on the Royal Berlin Library having appeared in the *Nation* for December 20, 1888, perhaps you will allow one who really knows the Library to say a few words about it.

The Berlin Library is the largest of its kind in the world. The British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale contain more volumes, but are simply consulting libraries, the books not being allowed to leave the building. In Berlin, on the contrary, any person who is properly vouched for may draw three works—regardless of the number of volumes—at a time, and may keep them for a month. Manuscripts, however, must be consulted in the reading-room. This has been the rule ever since the fire in Mommsen's house, wherein many valuable codices were destroyed—codices which not even the large sum raised by Mommsen's admirers could replace to the Library.

Under the present Director, Wilmans, a number of reforms have been introduced which render the Library most accessible. The Catalogue, which has been preparing for years, has at last been thrown open; it occupies a whole room on the left of the entrance. The names and works of the authors are written in great folios—three or four volumes to every letter. The Catalogue is not as much used as those in our American libraries, for the reason that, if the title, author, date, and place of publication are known to the student, he may order a book without further ceremony. As all references in the academic lectures are provided with these data, much searching is spared the University men. The labor of the attendants is considerable, however, for they must in every case look up the shelf-marks of the books ordered.

A very great reform is that which makes it possible to order and receive books on the same day. Books ordered at nine are now delivered at eleven o'clock; those ordered at eleven may be called for at one. There is a third delivery for use in the reading-room at three P. M.

Besides the books that one takes home, one is permitted to collect and reserve quite a heap of books in the reading-room. On leaving, the student has the books stored away on a shelf under his initial; for a month he may have the exclusive use of his collection. The walls of the reading-room have lately been provided with shelves, and are stocked with thousands of volumes on all subjects. One can browse at will among these treasures, and can remove them to the tables without notice. Every one entering the room, however, must show what books he has with him; their titles are written down by a man at the door, and no one can leave with more books than he brought in.

On the whole, the greatest kindness and liberality is shown to students, and I cannot understand why your correspondent of December 20 chose the Royal Berlin Library as a butt for his raillery. ERNEST HENDERSON.

BERLIN, January 5, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am surprised that your correspondent "X.," writing in the *Nation* (No. 1225) of the Old Royal Library in Berlin, enthusiastic as he is in singing its praises, should omit to mention what seemed to me to be the most striking of the advantages which lift this favored institution above those of less civilized communities.

In the first place, he did not emphasize the extreme advantage of a little confusion and poor writing (printing, of course, being out of the question) in the folio Catalogue. By this means a principle of selection is set at work which in the end saves the books for those whose zeal and time are sufficient to put them to good use. Then the facts, with their great attendant advantages, were omitted, that ladies are not allowed in the reading-room (thus insuring quiet and good order in the place), and that the use of fiction is permitted only when the management is assured that it is to be used for

scientific purposes. This rule is contained in the copy of the regulations for the use of the Library given to students of the University. Its advantages are obvious. In fact, viewing the many merits of this great institution, one can scarcely be grateful enough to Mr. "X." for bringing them to the notice of a too unappreciative world. R. M. B.

VIENNA, January 4, 1889.

A TYPICAL UNION-DEVOURER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last number of the *Nation*, under the head of "The Union Saved—and Devoured," calls to my mind a case thoroughly illustrative of the length to which otherwise respectable men will stretch their consciences in their efforts to reach the surplus. We have in this city an ex-Governor of the State, living in a fifty-thousand-dollar residence built by and owned by himself—a hale and remarkably vigorous man, not over fifty-five years old, president of a bank with a capital stock of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, actively engaged in attending to his duties in the bank and in a savings bank or trust company in which he is interested. A conservative estimate of his assets would be from two hundred and fifty to three hundred thousand dollars, and yet this man makes application for a pension of thirty dollars a month.

His application recites that while a member of the ——th regiment of the Missouri State Militia, commanded by Col. ——, and in the line of duty at White River in the State of Arkansas, October, 1862, he was greatly exposed on the banks of the White River, and thus contracted rheumatism, which settled in his left knee; that he has several times been laid up on account of this disease for a week or more at a time; that he is now totally disabled from obtaining his subsistence by manual labor, by reason of his injuries above described. Accompanying this affidavit is another made by the colonel of his regiment, at present a District Judge of the Federal Court, verifying the facts set forth, "as the ex-Governor had employed no physician, but depended on home remedies."

Now, the ex-Governor has no intention of earning his living by manual labor. He is a first-rate bank officer and an intelligent gentleman, fully able to earn the large salary he receives. Why is it that a man in this position will stoop to be a beneficiary of a fund to which he is neither legally nor morally entitled, and of which he can only receive the benefit by a strained interpretation of the law and facts? W. J. S.

JANUARY 21, 1889.

Notes.

CUPPLES & HURD, Boston, will shortly begin to issue by subscription 'The Eggs of North American Birds,' by C. J. Maynard, with colored plates drawn on stone by the author. The same publishers have just issued a second edition of Bandelier's 'Archæological Reconnoissance into Mexico,' in response to a gratifying demand.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for March 1 'Profit-Sharing between Employer and Employee: a Study in the Evolution of the Wages System,' by Nicholas P. Gilman, editor of the *Literary World*.

Bourrienne's 'Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte,' in four volumes, following the latest English edition, will be published soon by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Letters on Literature' to the *Independent* during the past year or two will be collected in a volume bearing the imprint of Longmans, Green & Co., who also announce 'Colloquies on Preaching,' particularly on the defects of the modern pulpit, by the Rev. H. Twells; and 'The Last Journal' of the late Lady Brassey, giving an account of the trip of the *Sunbeam* to India, Borneo, and Australia, elaborately and very diversely illustrated.

Chas. Scribner's Sons announce the late Lester Wallack's 'Memories of Fifty Years,' with an introduction by Laurence Hutton; 'Among the Cannibals,' of Northeastern Australia, namely, by Dr. Carl Lumholtz, of the University of Christiania, Norway; and a new edition of Col. Blunt's 'Firing Regulations for Small Arms.'

The seventeenth volume of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) nearly finishes the letter E. Chance supplies it with an extraordinary number of lives of sovereigns, the Edwards alone consuming nearly a quarter of its pages. Queen Elizabeth is disposed of in twenty-eight pages. Noticeable, too, are the extensive families of Eliot (in all manner of spellings), Ellis, Elphinstone, and Erskine. The literary flavor of former volumes is almost wholly wanting. Three names have a special connection with America—the Apostle Eliot, Gov. John Endecott, and Thomas Addis Emmet; but of this Irish refugee it is erroneously recorded that he lies buried in the churchyard of "St. Mark's" on Broadway in this city, where "St. Paul's" should be read.

All the changes indicated as having been made by Mr. Marcus B. Huish in his annual, 'The Year's Art,' for 1889 (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.) will commend themselves to the patrons of this most excellent record, which has just finished its tenth year. The geographical rearrangement seems sensible and an aid to ready reference. Portraits of the Associates of the Royal Academy are scattered through the volume, and form a very attractive group (photographic, by the way, engraved by process). Mr. G. H. Boughton's is the largest of these, and is given the place of honor at the front. The short section devoted to Art in the United States is a mere list of the principal art institutions, as to which fuller details have been given in the issue for 1886. The publishers will be glad to have any deficiencies in this list pointed out to them. The leading British exhibitions have select memoranda engraved on a diminutive scale from the pieces themselves (in most instances). In the same way we have samples of the publications of the Fine Art Society, of a dealer in engravings, and even of the illustrations in the *Art Journal* for 1888. The report of a committee of experts on the action of light on water-colors will be eagerly read and taken to heart. It is on the whole very encouraging.

Mr. E. Garnett's 'The Paradox Club' (Scribner & Welford) is one of those books which some people call dainty; that is, its paper is heavy, its page small, its margin wide, its type choice, its binding tastefully æsthetic. It is, in short, a pretty book, and the matter and style are pretty too. There are two lovers, whose love is of an old-fashioned kind, while their surroundings are quite modern. The Paradox Club, an eminently *Londonian* institution, talks about women, socialism, Zola, and a variety of the fashionable problems with no little heartiness, no little humbug, some wit, a good deal of tedium, and quite enough descriptive writing of a cross between those of the novelist just named and William Black. There is no harm in the book at all, nor is it goody-goody. It cannot show any very strong reason for its existence; as we judge from the dedication, its writing was the only way of giving utterance to emotions which those who felt them "could ne'er express, yet could not all conceal." It makes, however, pleasant reading for a lazy afternoon, and may set some to thinking.

'Arm-Chair Essays' (Scribner & Welford) is a series of not very deep outpourings by an accomplished Englishman, who has done a good deal of travelling and a good deal of reading, and has let his memory and experience dispense their treasures in a gentlemanlike and lively way. His experience makes much better material than his reading. The latter is anything but recondite, and, in the essay on Dining, shows itself peculiarly hackneyed, whereas the essay on the Pyrenees and their watering-places will be a real addition to the knowledge as well as the amusement of most readers. The paper on the "Ethics of a Postage Stamp" has some excellent rebuke to those who fancy that the mere fact of writing and sending a letter entitles one to an answer. There is a singular blunder in describing the purchase of Belgravia—an event referred to more than once. The author says Lord Grenville refused George the Third the money to protect his palace from being overlooked, by buying up a few fields. It was George Grenville, as may be seen from the second Essay on Chatham by Macaulay—an author whom the Arm-Chair essayist loves to quote. The mistake is equal to saying that John Quincy Adams appointed John Marshall.

The author of the article "Political Economy" in the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' Mr. John Kells Ingram, has reproduced his matter in the form of a separate volume entitled 'A History of Political Economy' (Macmillan & Co.). This is a history, not of the actual facts of economics, nor of economic measures, but of the best-known books that have expounded economic theories. Whether the author has constructed a history of the *science* of political economy admits of some doubt, for he seems hardly competent to grapple with the real difficulties of such a subject. We should say that he reflected very well the common judgment of the theories which he describes, but that he did little more. It is, of course, almost impossible, in a book of these dimensions, not to be dogmatic; but to assume, for example, that the vast development of trade and manufactures in Colbert's time was due to his policy of governmental regulation, is to beg a very important question. So, to lay it down that Ricardo led political economy "into the mistaken course of turning its back on observation, and seeking to evolve the laws of phenomena out of a few hasty generalizations by a play of logic," seems to be a mere outburst of the author's spleen against the orthodox school. Still, we must say that there is perhaps no sketch of the course of thought upon economic subjects that is at all to be compared with this, and as a bibliography of the leading works it is very satisfactory. We may add that two pages are all that are devoted to American economists, and that Henry George receives no mention.

D. Appleton & Co. send us a translation (English-made and printed) of Karl Marx's 'Capital,' by Samuel Moore and Edward Aveling. It makes an inordinately thick 8vo volume of more than 800 pages. As the nature of Marx's theory is well known, it does not call for further mention.

'The Alphabet of Economic Science,' by Philip H. Wicksteed (Macmillan), has nothing alphabetical about it except an abundance of algebraic symbols. It is really a mathematical

treatise of the stiffest kind, and can be understood only by those who have mastered the theory of "functions." The basis of the book is Jevons's theory of political economy, and the author makes no claim of novelty for his opinions. He meets with much ingenuity the common objections to Jevons's theory, and we may say of him in general that he is not only enthusiastic but lucid. Still, the unsubstantial results of this theory will probably prevent it from ever being anything more than a mathematical exercise.

The Leonard Scott Publication Co. has removed from Philadelphia to New York, bringing with it its English periodical reprints and *Shakespeariana*, which will hereafter be conducted under the auspices of the New York Shakspere Society.

In our recent notice of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, we mentioned a paper which the *Journal* simply designates as "by William Woolsey Johnson." The elaborate work on the Differential Calculus, the joint production of Professors Rice and Johnson, to which we often refer, happened to be upon our table, and, after consulting its title-page, we spoke of him as "Professor of Mathematics in St. John's College, Md.," the position which he held when that work was published. We have since been reminded of the fact, which for the moment had slipped from our memory, that Professor Johnson's connection with St. John's College ceased in 1881, since which time he has been Professor of Mathematics in the Naval Academy.

The new year brings its customary crop of new periodicals, some of which we have already noticed. We are glad to receive the first number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, published by the National Geographic Society of Washington, an organization only a year old, of which Mr. George Kennan, No. 1318 Massachusetts Avenue, is the Corresponding Secretary. We have long been of the opinion that a live and learned geographical society worthy of the country could only be established in Washington, for very obvious reasons. The term "American" having been "preëmpted" by the well-known society in this city (of whose aims and collections one must speak with entire respect), "National" remained the only alternative designation. The number before us contains the introductory address of the President, Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard; and papers on "Geographic Methods in Geologic Investigation," by Professor W. M. Davis, "The Classification of Geographic Forms by Genesis," by W. J. McGee, "The Great Storm of March 11-14, 1888"—our Eastern "blizzard"—by Gen. Greely and Professor Everett Hayden, accompanied by colored charts; "The Survey of the Coast," by Herbert G. Ogden, and "The Survey and Map of Massachusetts," by Henry Gannett. This is a very substantial beginning, but we will call the Society's attention to the need of a high degree of typographical accuracy in a publication of the kind they have undertaken. We ought not, for example, to read, as we do in Mr. Hubbard's address, that "the fecundity of fish is so great . . . that it may now be possible to feed the world from the ocean, and set the laws of *Matthews* [Malthus] at defiance."

Germania, a quarto fortnightly journal for the study of the German language and literature, comes to us from Manchester, N. H. The editor is A. W. Spanhoofd.

The Century Guild's *Hobby Horse* is new to our table, though the twelfth of the quarterly numbers is dated October, 1888. White & Allen, 32 Great Jones Street, are now the American agents of this handsome but singular periodical. The Century Guild of London "seeks to emphasize the Unity of Art" by "dignifying Art in all its forms," by rendering "all branches of Art the sphere no longer of the tradesman but of the artist." The *Hobby Horse* is its means of expression. The literary portion of the October number—a social essay, some poems, and a paper on certain obsolete musical instruments—is not of much consequence. The two illustrations are a drawing of "King Réné's Honeymoon," by Ford Madox Brown; and an unpublished woodcut, of admirable quality, of Frederick Sandys's design, "Danaë in the Brazen Chamber." These two prints, and the accompanying letter-press, are well worth the subscription price. Typographically the *Hobby Horse* is sumptuous.

New is the *Author*, "a monthly magazine for literary workers," just started in Boston, and a companion to the *Writer*. It is eclectic, and the scheme and utility of it are not yet quite apparent.

Miss Marie A. Brown's notorious contention that Columbus was a humbug, and that the Norsemen discovered America, is now to be reiterated in a *weekly* paper, *Leif Erikson*, published at Chicago. The "unmasking" of the Genoese navigator and the prevention of the Columbus celebration of 1892 are the avowed aims of this extraordinary venture in journalism. A fund for the "Leif Erikson cause," which includes sending Miss Brown to Iceland and Rome to search the archives, is solicited.

President Patton of Princeton College has chief editorial charge of the *Bulletin* just begun to be issued quarterly, under the auspices of the Faculty. It combines the functions of a college record and a learned review. The new Biological Laboratory is depicted on p. 14.

"The Establishment of Municipal Government in San Francisco" is the subject of the current issue of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in History and Political Science. The author is Prof. Bernard Moses of the University of California.

The President of Michigan University remarks in his annual report that "a larger proportion of women than of men are taking by choice the full classical course," for the practical reason that there is a demand for their services in teaching Greek in preparatory schools.

The Bordin Prize "for perfecting the theory of the motion of a solid body" has just been awarded by the French Academy to Mme. Sophie Kovalewsky, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Stockholm. This is the first time that the Academy has given one of its mathematical prizes to a woman since the days of Mlle. Sophie Germain. It looks as if the name of Sophie had the power to confer peculiar wisdom upon its owner.

No. 22 of the *Bibliographical Contributions* of the Library of Harvard University is a Calendar of the Sparks MSS.

Bulletin No. 78 of the Boston Public Library begins a bibliography of the official publications of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789, by Paul Leicester Ford—a task which was nominally anticipated by the perfunctory 'Descriptive Catalogue of the Government Publications of the United States, September 5, 1774—March 4, 1881' (Washington, 1885).

A chapter from 'La Vie Mondaine de Mignet,' by Édouard Petit, exhibiting the relations of the French historian with the Princess Belgiojoso, is the most interesting feature of *Le Livre* for November, 1888. The December number opens with a rather fantastic article on "Le Livre Harmonieux," or the true proportions of the printed page, and is distinguished, in the way of illustrations, by an exquisite copy of a Levant binding in photogravure—the raised gold ornamentation even gaining a little by having the appearance of ivory. In the January number M. Octave Uzanne announces editorially the intention, of necessity, to make this periodical less inclusive, and henceforth to pay attention only to what emerges from the flood of current literature. At the same time some typographical changes in the direction of greater legibility still further diminish the capacity of *Le Livre* to cope with the fecundity of the press. It does not appear to us as to M. Uzanne that these changes enhance the beauty of the magazine.

The Proceedings of the Architectural League of New York 1881-1889 have just been published in good style, and will be found very interesting and profitable reading.

A meeting of persons interested in the variations of English as spoken in this country was held last week in Cambridge, and about thirty names were secured as the nucleus of a society for the investigation of American dialects of English. It is hoped that there are many persons in all parts of the country who will be glad to join in this undertaking. The details of organization have been referred to a committee. Professor E. S. Sheldon, Cambridge, Mass., may be addressed by any who are interested in the enterprise.

We regret to record the death at Wiesbaden, Germany, on January 24, of Mr. Bernhard Westermann, the senior and founder of the bookselling firm which bears his name. He was born at Leipsic seventy-five years ago, a brother of the well-known German publisher and of the philologist Anton Westermann. His book-importing house in New York was established in 1848, with the active coöperation of August Buechner, until his death (in 1881) Mr. Westermann's partner. After that time he withdrew gradually from the active pursuit of business, but continued as senior of the firm, the management falling to Mr. E. Lemcke, his partner since 1875, and Mr. Buechner's oldest son, Oscar, who entered the firm two years ago. Early in his American career Mr. Westermann became acquainted with most of the prominent men in literature and science. Joseph Henry, the Whitneys, Agassiz, Henry Barnard, and many others were patrons of his from the first. In many instances, the second generation of his first customers are now succeeding their fathers. Mr. Westermann leaves a widow, a son, and two married daughters.

—The February *Harper's* opens with another of those papers on out-of-the-way things and places in Paris which Theodore Child writes out of his abundant stores of knowledge and with so facile and engaging a style. This time it is the Hôtel Drouot to which he takes us, the great auction-room of Paris, where curios and rarities from the ends of the earth are brought to find their surest appreciation and best sale. The heavy artillery of the number is found in Dr. Waldstein's article on Ruskin. It is really a small treatise, filling thirty-six solid pages, or at least one-third of the entire letter-press of the number. We must think it rather lumbering, with all its preliminary squaring of elbows and extensive surveying of mankind from China to Peru; this seems certain to impair, for the average reader, the real force and just criticism of the article, which anticipates but a little what we presume will soon be the general verdict as to Ruskin—that he is a man with a divine gift of language, often divinely used, though his theories of art are as much askew as might be expected in a writer without the

historic sense, while his political economy is near allied to madness. Dr. Waldstein's closing contrasting of Ruskin's literary life and manner with Darwin's is both happy and striking. Foreign description and travel are well represented in Verestchagin's "A Russian Village," the first of what is to be a series of papers on "Norway and its People" by Björnstjerne Björnson, and Henry Ballantine's article on Nepaul. Miss Woolson's serial distinctly gains in interest and promise, while the short story by Edward Bellamy is an ingenious attempt to do the impossible, and make a seamless garment out of patches of Rider Haggard, Swift, and Hawthorne; his art, however, is purposely subordinated to his psychology and his morals, and both these are excellent.

—Story-telling is at the fore in the February *Atlantic*. In addition to the serials of Prof. Hardy and Mr. James, Sarah Orne Jewett presents another of her miniature portraits of New England life (a rather broader dash of humor appearing in this one than in many from the same hand), and H. P. Robinson contributes a remarkable short story, "The Gift of Fernseed." The theme of the last-named writer is, as his title implies, in the cloudland of impossibilities, but he treats it with a tenacity of grip on matter-of-fact details and an apparent devotion to common sense which are worthy of Defoe. So fascinating is the continuation of Harriet W. Preston's studies in the life of Cicero—the title of the present instalment, "Under which King?" alluding to the necessity of a choice betwen his two friends, Cæsar and Pompey—that it, too, might be classed with the story-telling; though the labors which the historical delver has delighted in would be pain to most romancers. "Butterflies in Disguise" is a short but thorough paper on a branch of the subject of animal mimicry. Its closing sentence, "The more we contemplate so strange and perfect a provision," etc., reads just like a Bridgewater treatise, up to the point where it names natural selection in the place where one would look for some more theological term—a divergence which witnesses to familiar changes, while it is certainly justified by the entirely new understanding, since Darwin's day, of what was before a complete mystery. We can barely mention Agnes Repplier's "Plea for Humor," which so frequently exemplifies what it pleads for, Mr. H. C. Lea's specimen sufferer at the hands of the Inquisition, Brianda de Bardaxi, and C. W. Clark's "The Spirit of American Politics as Shown in the Late Election." The last subject could not be handled satisfactorily in the four pages allotted to it, and it is not. The number as a whole is in keeping with the *Atlantic's* best traditions.

—The current *Scribner's* has a table of contents both highly varied and interesting. The opening article is a good account of the literary methods of Sir Walter Scott, with several exhibits of proof-sheets in facsimile, showing both Sir Walter's corrections and the suggestions of his publisher. Austin Dobson has a paper on the Vauxhall Gardens of a century ago, in which art, archæology, and historic manners strive with each other for predominance of interest. "The Picturesque Quality of Holland" is the taking title of an article by George Hitchcock, pleasantly written and well illustrated. A chapter of art which is only beginning to be written, the painting of the Greeks, is alluded to by T. S. Perry in his remarks on the Græco-Egyptian portraits recently unearthed at Fayum; illustrations from photographs accompany the contribution. Dr. Sargent writes on the physical development of woman with an abundance of statistics and a vigor of inference which are enough to make all the corset-makers at once discontinue their advertisements in *Scribner's*. In another instance the publishers show a recklessness which no politician would ever be guilty of, and that is in printing the Irish story of Mr. Jessop, which gives the landlord's side of boycotting and agrarian outrage. Mr. Brander Matthews's "A Family Tree" laboriously gathers together the elements of a tragedy, only to make the thing miss fire at the end, the writer's good nature towards the reader leading him to bundle the Greek chorus unceremoniously out of doors just as it was preparing to sing of Nemesis. The "end paper" has all along been a sort of synonym for a sermon, so that its being turned over to a professional sermonizer, Bishop Potter, is but natural, and must be agreeable, also, to the readers of the magazine.

—Learned periodicals spring up so rapidly in Germany, and the number now in existence is so enormous, that a new venture in this line can hardly expect to be greeted as an event by anybody but the specialists to whom it immediately appeals; indeed, it is fortunate in these days if it attracts attention from them. But one enterprise of literary scholarship which has recently been launched in Germany has some special claims to general interest, and deserves more than a passing mention in these columns. We refer to the *Vierteljahrschrift für Litteraturgeschichte*, edited by Bernhard Seuffert, with the coöperation of Erich Schmidt and Bernhard Suphan. The new journal was begun in March last and has just completed its first volume. It is printed, and very handsomely printed, at Weimar, the publisher being Hermann Böhlau, already known for his connection with the new edition of Goethe. When this fact is noted in connection with the names of the editors, it is seen that the *Vierteljahrschrift* is an outgrowth of the Weimar renaissance which began in 1885. The brief prospectus issued by the editor a year ago was very attractive; it set forth that the most important feature of the new journal would consist of articles relating to modern German literature; that besides this it would offer comparative studies in modern literatures, and would endeavor to combine historical philology with æsthetic interpretation. Finally, it was to "serve the great ideals of literary history as conceived by Herder, Goethe, and Schiller," and supplement the *Beiträge* of Paul and Braune, as well as the *Archiv für Deutsches Alterthum und Deutsche Litteratur*, both of which devote themselves mainly to the earlier stages of the language. It thus appears that this journal represents, to some degree, though in no belligerent spirit, the reaction that has lately begun to set in against the one-sidedness of German philological scholarship. In the main the editors have kept well the promise of their prospectus. Every number has contained interesting matter of high scientific value. The subjects treated cover the whole period from Luther to Heine. The last half of the eighteenth century receives, naturally enough, more attention than any other period of equal length, and Goethe, in spite of the *Jahrbuch*, more attention than any other author.

—The Patho-Biological Laboratory of the University of Nebraska, under the direction of Dr. Frank S. Billings, a veterinary surgeon of repute, has published its second report—a volume of more than 400 pages, octavo, with twelve plates. This is upon the Swine Plague, and as the capital invested in hogs in the United States is nearly $45,000,000, it represents a matter of much practical importance. The author believes the disease to be an infectious septicæmia, and to be propagated through excreta from sick animals developed outside of the body "in the earth and earthy materials," and not to be contagious in the sense that smallpox and scarlet fever in man and glanders and farcy in the horse are. He believes that the microbe upon which the disease depends has been discovered, and that security against it is to be found in the direction of preventive inoculation, but that successful inoculation without danger to other healthy animals has not yet been reached. Meantime, he advises as restrictive and hygienic measures the isolation of the well, and especially the avoidance of places infected by the immediate or former presence of diseased animals. Besides demonstrating what he believes is the swine-plague microbe, the author is concerned with overturning the work of Dr. Salmon, the Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry in the Department of Agriculture. A violent contention against him rages all through the report, showing itself in furious sentences, forests of exclamation points, and the confusion of construction and violence of expression that are the literary indications of scorn and anger. The assault also includes in its object the biological laboratories of the East, which are thus summed up: "They are nepotistic hot-houses!" It is a misfortune that what probably represents much industrious and intelligent observation is obscured and diluted by so many irrelevant pages; and the stock-raisers, in whose interest the work has been done, will have much difficulty in selecting their gold from the controversial dross. The University of Nebraska is amiable in its expenditures for printed paper.

SHERIDAN'S MEMOIRS.

Personal Memoirs of P. H. Sheridan, General U. S. Army. C. L. Webster & Co. Two vols., 8vo, illustrated, pp. 500, 486.

As a book for general reading, Sheridan's Memoirs have attractive features that will insure success. The narrative is clear and lively, the events described are important in themselves, and the personality of the hero is always interesting. While none of the books of this class are likely to approach the extensive sale of Grant's Memoirs, on which they are evidently modelled, it is probable that Sheridan's will prove so popular as not to disappoint his hope that it would be to some extent a provision for his family after his death. For purposes of permanent history, one could wish that the aim had been less popular and more critical; but a long narrative by so distinguished an officer in a great war cannot lack value, even when the narrative is cursory and superficial. We cannot be in contact with the writer's mind through a thousand pages without learning more of him, his ways of thinking and acting, his prejudices, his likes and dislikes, than we could learn in any other way. The fact that so eminent a soldier could compose so long a memoir without anything approaching a critical or comprehensive judgment of a campaign, must be in itself a curious revelation of his military character. He sees clearly and vividly the thing immediately under his eye, he acts with great vigor his own part in the struggle, but he seems to have little disposition to frame an intellectual conception of the problem as a whole, and he acts upon his instinctive rather than his reflective judgment. The very intensity and vigor of his action seem to depend upon this, and he probably would not have been the thunderbolt of war he was if his mental habit had been one of greater and more conscious reflective analysis of military situations. The combinations of different intellectual quali-

ties with masterful force of will in Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan make one of the most instructive of personal studies.

Sheridan's frank and unaffected story of his early life and education shows that he never took to study. Strong physical action seemed to be the necessity of his nature, and his class standing was below the average. It is plain from the Memoirs that he never found time for theoretic study, even of his military profession, after leaving West Point. The rough frontier life of a subaltern, whether on the Rio Grande in Texas or on the Willamette in Oregon, gave no opportunity for study of books, though it was full of physical training in self-reliance, in courage, and in prompt action in danger. His success as a soldier may fairly be taken to show that excellence in student life is by no means necessary to eminence in war. The very highest rank as a commander can only be reached by an extraordinary combination of mental and physical qualities; but eminence closely approaching the highest would seem to be within reach of men whose most marked traits are those of energy and ordinary good sense, backed by high courage and self-reliance.

Sheridan's military career divides itself into four parts: his service as a subordinate for six or seven years before the civil war, his career in the war, his politico-military service in Louisiana during reconstruction, and his observation of the Franco-Prussian War from the headquarters of the German King. The first of these is by no means the least valuable to history. The contact of our civilization with the aborigines has not been too well illustrated. Army officers were almost the only educated men who had much opportunity of studying it, and whenever they have left records of their experiences, these are full of instruction. McCall's letters from Florida during the Seminole War, Marcy's adventures west of the Mississippi, and some others, give us invaluable material for the study of phases of American history now for ever vanished. Sheridan's chapters of his own experience from 1854 to 1861 will seem to many a student of history more valuable than his story of his Shenandoah campaign. The latter could be reconstructed from official reports and from unnumbered public and private sources; the former is so utterly gone that every page which throws light on the gradual extermination of the red man is a grateful and unexpected addition to the world's historical knowledge.

The episode of Sheridan's service in reconstruction in Louisiana contains new matter also. He claims to have been the real cause of the downfall of Maximilian in Mexico by forcing the hand of our national Administration. He asserts that upon his own motion, and contrary to his instructions from Washington, he made demonstrations of hostility against Maximilian and of support for Juarez, which were decisive in turning the scale against the Austrian aspirant to empire. From his own point of view, no doubt this seemed so to him; but a broader consideration of the effect of Mr. Seward's diplomacy, first upon France in determining Louis Napoleon's recall of Bazaine's army, and afterwards upon Maximilian by the indication of a purpose to favor the Republicans of Mexico, will probably show that Sheridan attributes too great effect to his frankly confessed insubordination. Military demonstrations of a comparatively small kind along the Rio Grande would not have created great terror if the astute statesman in charge of our foreign diplomacy had not held threateningly over the scale the whole weight of our restored national power.

In the Louisiana business Sheridan attributes his bad relations with President Johnson to a personal dislike of the latter towards him. It is more simple and natural to find it in the fact that Congress was making use of Grant and his military subordinates to thwart Johnson in his policy, and to impose that of the Republican leaders upon the South. No matter which was right, the result could not fail to be a most uncomfortable one when the Commander-in-Chief found his subordinates obeying other orders than his. The rapid change of Sheridan's own ideas at that time is shown by his proclamation that he would give the opportunity to vote to all whom the Attorney-General might declare entitled, and his unexplained refusal to do so when Mr. Stanbery declared that the bulk of the white citizens had the right under the law. His original judgment of the knavery of men of the Madison Wells class is reaffirmed in the Memoirs, as is his opinion that the reassembling of the members of the Constitutional Convention was illegal and revolutionary, though it could not justify the horrible street massacre which followed.

Gen. Sheridan's story of his observations of the campaigns of Gravelotte and Sedan from King William's headquarters does not lack in vivacity nor in telling points of personal and local description. Bismarck's strong personality comes out in a picturesque way, and the portraiture is, on the whole, that of a more genial and approachable man than the great Chancellor is commonly credited with being. The scene when Louis Napoleon came out of Sedan to yield himself a prisoner is a very vivid one, especially the startled change in the French Emperor's countenance when Bismarck gave a brusque military salute, without uncovering, standing in the road at the carriage-step. The reader must feel, however, that the attractiveness of a personal diary hardly atones for the absence of instructive criticism of the organization and quality of the rival armies and their leaders, and of the strategy and tactics of the great campaigns. We had a right to expect that a general so near the head of the American Army would write with his young subordinates in mind, and make his book permanently useful to them by a full garnering of the fruits of his ripened experience as a strategist and a soldier.

The same criticism must apply to that which was, of course, the chief purpose of the book, viz., the personal narrative of his career in the great civil war. Like Grant's, it seems to be based upon Badeau, or at least to accept Badeau's 'Military History' as a sufficient authority for the current of events. This is most noticeable, of course, in the campaigns of 1864–65, when Sheridan's relations to Grant were closest. A really exhaustive reëxamination of original material was hardly to be expected, but the evidences of the danger of trusting too implicitly to memory are not hard to find. In controverted matters, personal memoirs are necessarily apologetic, and we cannot complain if they set out the view most favorable to the writer; yet we could wish that such thoroughness of review might be used as to show that conclusions are at least freshly tested, and are not the repetition of habitual assertions which have been sharply challenged by other actors and other investigators.

In reference to some mooted points of discussion relating to the Army of the Potomac, we get additional light. Sheridan tells us that his first interview with Meade was an irritating one, in which a sharp antagonism was developed. We are left to infer that the men were antipathetic, and that Sheridan's opinion of the military judgment and ability of Meade was not high. Nothing in the later part of the Memoirs is inconsistent with this. Nothing indicates that the relations grew any pleasanter. On the contrary, the chafing seems to have continued, and to have been quite as great, if not greater, during the very last movements of the pursuit of Lee's army to Appomattox.

As to the "Trevillian raid," on which Sheridan was sent immediately after the terrible battle of Cold Harbor, he does not correct the sins of omission and commission found in the narratives of Badeau and of Grant. It is assumed that the failure to coöperate with Gen. Hunter in the valley of Virginia was Hunter's fault, when, if history can prove anything, it is proved that Hunter's part of that campaign was well and ably carried out. He was not and could not be informed of new orders which Sheridan was carrying to him, because the latter never reached or came into communication with him. Sheridan was ordered to proceed first to Charlottesville. He was stopped thirty miles short of Charlottesville by the Confederate cavalry at Trevillian, and had been outmarched, not only by Hampton's horse, but by Early's and Breckinridge's infantry. This unique experience of his shows that he could not have had that confidence in results which inspires energy. The enemy were thus enabled to oppose Hunter at Lynchburg with infantry which left Cold Harbor after Sheridan's cavalry started, and Hunter was forced over the mountains to the Ohio without any fault of his own. There was a superabundance of glory in Sheridan's later career, so that he might well have afforded to accept the responsibility for this, instead of following Badeau in the claim that his own part of the combined movement was perfectly performed and the fault was Hunter's. Any careful comparison of dates and movements must reverse this judgment.

On the controversy over his relieving Gen. Warren from command of the Fifth Corps, Sheridan says but little, except to emphasize his right to enforce promptness by the most strenuous means. He says, however, that early in the day of his engagement at Five Forks, when he was urging Warren to haste by saying that delay was giving Lee time to make combinations to thwart them, Warren replied with indifference that "Bobby Lee was always getting people into trouble." This has a certain resemblance to the saying which Grant quotes as being, at an earlier time in the campaign, current in the Army of the Potomac relating to himself, namely: "He hasn't met Bobby Lee yet." How far a settled conviction of Lee's superiority over their own leaders had permeated that army is a troublesome and vexed question of fact. It may fairly be admitted that if it had gone so far as to be an important factor in the *morale* of the army, Grant would have been quite justified in a sweeping reorganization or even an exchange of troops with other armies. It is difficult after so long a time to be quite sure, and even the survivors of the Potomac Army may reasonably have doubts as to a sentiment for which memory alone must be the authority. Yet there is an issue between both Grant and Sheridan and that army as to this sentiment and its effect, and our judgment of the campaign of 1864-65 in Virginia cannot be finally made up till it is settled.

The points above touched upon are those in which Sheridan's Memoirs are open to more or less criticism. There remains, however, a splendid record which makes a few blemishes only seem a foil for a brilliant career. The striking feature of his life is the steady growth from moderate talents and modest doubt of his own capacity, to a series of striking and im-

portant successes which showed that a very high order of military ability had been developed. Step by step he had learned to have confidence in his own judgment and to trust the inspiration of his own courage. The campaign of the Shenandoah may be said to have revealed him to himself as well as to the country. The battles and marches from Five Forks to Sailor's Creek and Appomattox were the culmination of his peculiar powers and of his fame. Nothing that he tells us of himself can lack value; it is only for us to use it discriminatingly, and to build up a true notion of the man, not as a superhuman hero, but a very human, passionate, energetic, patriotic soldier.

FRANKLIN AND THE TREATY OF PEACE.

Franklin in France. From original documents, most of which are now published for the first time. By Edward E. Hale and Edward E. Hale, jr. Part II. The Treaty of Peace and Franklin's Life till his Return. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1888. Pp. xiv., 470.

THE papers and letters comprised in this second and concluding part of the Messrs. Hale's collection cover the period from 1781 to 1785, with a few supplementary chapters devoted to the five remaining years of Franklin's life after his return to this country. Their interest is even greater than that of those contained in the first part of the work. From one point of view, indeed, this accession of riches must be regarded as an embarrassment, since, preëminent as must ever be the significance of the diplomatic history here outlined, the attention is nevertheless to some extent divided and dissipated by the commanding interest of Franklin's brilliant career in France as a man of letters, a man of society, and a savant, on which these pages throw so abundant light.

As a diplomatic episode in our history, the signal importance and far-reaching significance of the measures here described can, no doubt, be far better appreciated to-day than by the men who were nearest to the event. And for this there are several good reasons. One of these is to be found in the unsettled and distracted condition of affairs on this side of the Atlantic. At the moment of concluding the treaty of peace, and indeed for not a few weary years afterward, this country was passing through what was preëminently its "critical period," to use the fitting phrase of a recent writer. Whether it would outlast the decade seemed problematical. Whether the "rope of sand" could hold together the discordant league of States long enough to admit of carrying on a general government, even should the European Powers decide to recognize that government, was to many men's minds the dominant question. Small wonder is it that, in the face of exigent situations like these, the magnitude of the results accomplished for us at Paris should have in some measure failed of recognition. To an American citizen, the ever-present topics of reflection were found in a Congress not commanding popular respect throughout the country, nor even sufficient interest among its members to secure a decent attendance; a central authority which was almost a negative quantity; and a financial situation perilously near complete ruin. On the external phase of this financial situation, indeed, the volume before us furnishes eloquent testimony, not only in successive letters of Franklin to Morris and others in this country in 1782, but in his letter of an earlier date to John Adams in Holland. In characteristic language he writes: "My faith is only that of which the Apostle speaks, the evidence of things not seen. For in truth I do not see at present how so many bills drawn at random on our ministers in France, Spain, and Holland, are to be paid." And he adds: "If you should not in the meantime be provided, and if these endeavors fail, I shall be ready to break, run away, or go to prison with you, as it shall please God." By the side of this may be put the words of Washington, a few years later—words whose bitterness is emphasized by his almost habitual reserve of language: "Do not let us sink into the lowest state of humiliation and contempt, and become a by-word in all the earth."

Another and perhaps still more potent reason why, to the men of that day—even the more thoughtful among them—the efforts of Franklin and others at European courts were not seen in their due proportions, is to be found in the fact that they seemed to strive with too little unity of purpose. To the lover of his country it was only an additional weariness to the flesh that most of the able men of America had crossed the Atlantic only to pull apart, instead of pulling together. The list is a strikingly distinguished one: John Adams, Arthur Lee, Silas Deane, Henry Laurens, John Jay, Benjamin Franklin. Yet how much of the record of the relations of these men with each other is a story of personal malignity and ambition, of efforts at thwarting the influence of a colleague, and of vehement recklessness of speech or manner, well calculated to bring their common efforts to naught! Perhaps no man possessing abilities of the first order was ever more free than Franklin from the pettiness of vision and inability to see from the point of view of another, which have been too commonly found united to preëminent talents, and which were conspicuously illustrated in all of Franklin's colleagues except John Jay. Franklin's philosophical mind, his unrestricted outlook upon the world, his habitual serenity of temper, his constant subordination of the ideal which he personally held important, but saw to be impracticable, to the large interests of the greater number—all these were likely to preserve him from errors like the above. To these, moreover, should be added his really phenomenal tact, which seems to have made a strong impression even on those opposed to him, if we may judge from the humorous *Edinburgh Reviewer* who regretfully characterizes Oswald as not "fit to cope with a consummate philanthropist like Franklin"!

It is, therefore, a veritable curiosity of history that, in relation to that one of the links in the chain of events leading to the treaty of peace, which, as it proved, was the decisive one—the Vaughan commission—it was so eminently reasonable a man as Franklin who was unalterably opposed to the measure, and without whose consent the conclusive step was taken by Jay. It was, however, a situation in which much was to be said on both sides; and, looking at the matter from the point of view of both Franklin and Jay, as our authors say, "it is impossible not to admire the firmness of" them both. By any natural and obvious view, it was the business of these diplomatic agents of the infant republic to treat with one nation at a time; and but for the signal ability of Vergennes, who, as our authors well say, "had not at this time, nor had he ever had, any sentimental ideas concerning America," and who had succeeded in a measure in shaping affairs to the single end of advancing French interests, the duties of the American agents would have been to this extent simplified. Article 8 of the treaty of alliance between France and the United States in 1778 had contained two provisions which stood in the way of unrestricted action, namely, that "neither of the two parties shall conclude either truce or peace with Great Britain without the formal consent of the other first obtained"; and that "they mutually engage not to lay down their arms until the independence of the United States" shall be formally recognized. In Jay's view, the perfect understanding and unity of action which this language contemplated had already in 1782 been infringed on, and that by the act of Vergennes. This Minister was now not only urging on the English and American negotiators the acceptance of the Oswald commission, from which the above specific acknowledgment of independence was absent, but was, through secret emissaries, intriguing with Great Britain for the annulling of American interests in the Mississippi Valley and in the matter of the fisheries. Believing, as was indeed the case, that this was the critical moment of the negotiations, Jay despatched to Lord Shelburne's government one Benjamin Vaughan, then in Paris, as confidential agent, with a definite message. This extreme measure—for such it was, and as such Franklin refused it his approval—was meant to counteract both of the ends which Vergennes was intriguing for, and it did not prove ineffectual. We may not perhaps characterize it, as Mr. Hale does, as "a bold, ill-advised, and perfectly successful stroke"; but, on the authority of Townshend, "it was at once agreed [by the Cabinet meeting] to make the alterations in the commission proposed by Mr. Jay." The "alterations" referred to involved, as it proved, the proceeding on the part of the English and American negotiators to terms of treating without the formality of securing the consent of France. Barely two months elapsed before the signing of the "provisional articles" of November 30, 1782, and September of the following year brought the "Definitive Treaty of Peace."

The accomplished President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Professor Langley, in his inaugural address in August last, in some very forcibly presented suggestions, casts doubt on that theory of the progress of science which compares it to the advance of an "army which obeys an impulse from one head." In his view, the far more accurate analogy is that of "a pack of hounds which, in the long run, perhaps catches its game," but individuals of which "bring many to follow them, nearly as often in a wrong path as in a right one," and "the entire pack even has been known to move off bodily on a false scent." Who shall say that the analogy is not equally appropriate in any scientific view of history, or even that it has not some direct bearing on the episode we are now considering? Certainly, if Jay's mission through Vaughan in September, 1782, had proved anything other than the success it was, we should not only have heard nothing of the "provisional articles" and the "definitive treaty," but in all probability Vergennes's disposition to countenance American interests, already strained to a dangerous degree, would have been exchanged for uncompromising hostility. Could we read Franklin's remonstrances at the time, the case would not lack for forcible arguments.

An undue stress has at times been placed on the personal merits and talents (or lack of them) of the individual, Vaughan, who became in Jay's hands the agent of producing the English Minister's change of base. Mr. Bancroft writes him down as "an inferior and casual agent"; Mr. Jay introduces foot-notes, even in his recent chapter on the treaty, to corroborate his view of him as exceptionally fitted "for the delicate task"; while Mr. Hale regards him as "a well-meaning man of very great vanity." Though

somewhat various, these judgments are by no means wholly inconsistent with each other, nor is it, in any event, of exceptional importance that Vaughan be proved this or that. The one significant fact is that Jay's case was urgent, he had little time for choosing men, and he needed at once an agent to pass between him and Shelburne. Since Vaughan was apparently the only one available, it is scarcely decisive of Jay's superior judgment, or the reverse, that he made use of this man.

To a scholar of scientific tastes like Franklin no other portion of the civilized world could have had more attractions than France during the last quarter of the eighteenth century. A mere enumeration of the directions in which scientific investigations are incidentally referred to in the volume before us as in progress, would be exceedingly suggestive. It would include, among many others, the subjects of lightning-rods, phosphoric matches, the weight of the atmosphere, ballooning, animal magnetism, and various applications of electricity; but quite as fascinatingly attractive to a mind like his was the ferment at that time going on in France which manifested itself in a universal discussion of political theories. Between the date of Franklin's departure from French soil in 1785, and the storming of the Bastile, only four years elapsed, and the ideas of the Revolution were even then in the air. Mr. Hale, in some very just remarks on this subject, cites the recent noteworthy work of the English historian, Stephens (his type-setter both times making this name "Stevens"), to the effect that "the influence of the American Republic is hardly to be seen at all among the [French] republican leaders of the revolutionary period." In his acute analysis of Franklin's character and influence, Sainte-Beuve approaches the same subject with a species of wondering hesitation. After declaring that "Franklin possessed influence among us," he adds that "when, towards the end of his life, he learned the first events of July, 1789, he conceived as much mistrust and doubt as hope respecting them." To Franklin, as to so many others, the French revolution was a surprise and its true significance dimly understood. His own great services to mankind, along the lines of political development, we must regard as almost wholly rendered in connection with the English-speaking race.

Life of Lamartine. By Lady Margaret Domville. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1888. Pp. 398.

THE reading public have of late been offered so many so-called biographies which are in reality little more than political histories, that it is with great pleasure that we call attention, in the 'Life of Lamartine' by Lady Margaret Domville, to a work which is a biography in the true sense of the word, *i. e.*, a history of a human life. The birth, the peculiarities of family environment and early surroundings, the struggles against lack of appreciation, the thoughts, and the final triumphs of one who may truly be called a genius, are given in this book with such fulness that the reader feels, on throwing it aside, that he has made the acquaintance of a living man. Every page evinces a comprehension of the character described, every chapter marks a step in the formation of a great spirit. But at the same time Lady Domville does not burden her narrative with unnecessary details regarding Lamartine's domestic life. All that are given seem to be necessary to explain his political attitude; all lead up to that terrible 24th of February when he stood upon the steps of the Hôtel de Ville, and, relying alone upon his matchless eloquence, faced and conquered the wildest of European mobs.

Lamartine was, during the greater part of his life, what his biographer justly calls a political "free lance"—what in the United States, sometimes with approval, sometimes with contempt, we term a "Mugwump." Prevented by family influences from offering his services to the great Napoleon, he was too much a believer in constitutional government to sympathize altogether with the views of the Legitimists. His political aspirations had therefore to content themselves with criticism, and the critical attitude which he was thus early compelled to assume he seems never altogether to have abandoned. On this account the task of his biographer in describing his political career is in a measure a thankless one. Never prominently connected with any government until 1848, his influence could only be an indirect one, except when it appeared to be absolutely revolutionary. Never quite in sympathy with any of the political parties in the Legislature of which he was for so long time a member, his career as a politician could hardly be a "practical" success. He could do little but win from his fellow-members a reputation for eloquence at a time when eloquence was especially characteristic of French public men. Notwithstanding these disadvantages which Lady Domville labors under, she is still able, by dwelling on Lamartine's conscientiousness and on his real political sagacity, to leave upon her readers a most pleasing impression of a career which, after all, was singularly barren of direct results.

Only once does Lamartine give his biographer an opportunity of arousing enthusiasm for his public actions, for only once did he rise above the level of criticism to the formulation of definite political principles. This was in the last days of the July monarchy, with whose policy he became more and more dissatisfied. The regimen of Louis Philippe was in his opinion political stagnation; and the 'History of the Girondists,' which he published at this time, contributed largely to its destruction. Lamartine carefully refrained from joining in the agitations which directly occasioned the Revolution of 1848, but when it came he did not shrink from assuming the share of responsibility which he seems to have recognized was his. Not only was he able to control for a time the spirit which he had raised, but his courage was so heroic, his influence so extraordinary, as to focus upon him the attention and admiration of the civilized world. The chapters devoted to this part of his public career are the finest in the work before us, and read like a romance. As everything that has gone before leads up to them, all that follows gradually sinks away to Lamartine's quiet death in the peaceful hills of his native place. The few months during which Lamartine directed the republic, saved France from anarchy, and Europe perhaps from a great war, were the most important in his life. To perform adequately the duties roughly and unexpectedly thrust upon him, long years of preparation were necessary, and above all it was necessary that there should exist in the people a perfect belief in the sincerity of the man who attempted to control them. As Lamartine afterwards said, with that belief in the goodness of the people so characteristic of him, "The first, almost the only, quality which it [the mob] demands from you is sincerity." That Lamartine was sincere his whole political career had gone to prove. Lady Domville shows us most clearly that, whatever may have been his defects as a practical statesman, his sincerity was beyond question, and to this may be attributed his most remarkable triumphs in the early months of 1848.

Lamartine was a poet in politics. His love for the people, his belief in the purity of their purposes, caused him to exercise the power he briefly possessed with too little force to command respect; and the Government which he helped to form owed its short lease of life, in part at any rate, to this quality in its principal founder. It is therefore quite in order for Lady Domville to intersperse her narrative of Lamartine's life with selections, analyses, and criticisms of his poems, which are for the most part treated in the chronological order of their production. It is to her credit that she has recognized his limitations and defects. She has not tried to make of him a great statesman: she has succeeded in demonstrating the nobility of his character. She has also an appreciative and generally accurate knowledge of French habits. Especially pleasing is the opening chapter, descriptive of French home life in the rural districts. Lady Domville seems to have imbibed some of the spirit of Lamartine's own pastoral poems. In her description of public life and of French institutions, however, she reveals at times a lack of exact information. Thus in one case she refers to the French *Conseil Général du Département* as similar to the English Grand Jury. Had she compared it with the County Quarter Sessions of the Peace before the late Local Government Act, she would have been more nearly correct. Again, she speaks of the Mayor of Paris when she means either the Prefect of Police or the Prefect of the Seine. But outside of these minor inaccuracies, of which there are but few, her book gives, in addition to the life of Lamartine, a very good picture of French political conditions during the fifty years succeeding the Revolution.

The Popes and the Hohenstaufen. By Ugo Balzani.—*The English Church in the Middle Ages.* By William Hunt. [Epochs of Church History. Edited by Professor Mandell Creighton.] A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

THE making of "Epoch books" has in these days become an especial department of historical composition. The ideal of such a task should be to bring before the reader's mind with absolute clearness the great moving forces and the leading personalities of the given period, especially to exhibit the development of institutions—in a word, to show why the period in hand is an "epoch." Yet the number of these books which come within hail of this ideal is very small indeed. Most of them err in the direction of too much narration of events. The desire to tell the whole story runs away with the writer, and, before he is aware of it, his space is full, and he has put together a more or less readable mass of events over which the ordinary reader glides with a certain sense of "getting information," but without any real grasp of the peculiar character of the special period treated.

The two books before us do not form any exception to this rule. Mr. Ugo Balzani is the prospective author of a great work on the Popes and the Hohenstaufen, of which the present little volume is an earnest. He professes to write from original sources, but tells us nothing as to what these sources are. He acknowledges his obligations to preceding writers on his subject, but gives no reference to these writers by which the student might be guided into further study. He deals with events which carry the reader over enormous stretches of country, but he does not help him along by any maps whatever. The narrative runs along

with monotonous smoothness, so that one gets very little idea of what points in detail are important and what are not. For example, in describing the magnificent struggle of the Lombard cities against the imperial prerogative, the author loses a brilliant opportunity to sketch the new and wonderful life of these trading and manufacturing communities.

The "epoch" treated in the second book is a period of nearly eight hundred years, the history of the English church from Augustine to Wiclif. The very extent of this period prevents the error of too much narration, for any pretence at a complete narrative would have been absurd. The book may be regarded as the defence of a thesis, namely, that the English Church was a national institution from the beginning. It consists mainly of illustrations of effort on the part of patriotic Englishmen to prevent the entire control of the English Church by the Papacy. Like the numerous other efforts in the same direction, however, it suggests more than it means to do—that, as a matter of fact, England was pretty much under the control of the Papacy during a very large part of its existence. If one should select from Mr. Hunt's book—to go no further—the statements as to the extent of foreign influence in the English Church at various times, one would be pretty well supplied with arguments for the Roman position. This volume, like the other, has no references to authorities, either contemporary or modern, and no maps. Both have very complete indexes.

A Thousand Miles Up the Nile. By Amelia B. Edwards. With upwards of seventy illustrations after drawings executed on the spot by the author. Second edition, revised. Geo. Routledge & Sons. 1889. Pp. xxvii., 449. 8vo.

It would be difficult for one who wished to spend a winter on the Nile intelligently and profitably to find a more excellent companion and guide than this account by Miss Edwards of her journey made in 1874 and first published in 1877. In some respects, this second and cheaper edition is preferable to the original, as it is easier to handle, being smaller; and, while the narrative remains untouched, the parts relating to the ancient history of the country and the interpretation of the inscriptions have been revised and corrected so as to conform to the latest conclusions of the Egyptologists. The illustrations, also, which are admirable specimens of wood-engraving, are nearly as good in this as in the first edition, though printed on inferior paper. We regret, however, the omission of the maps, while the absence of an index in a work of this character is both irritating and inexplicable.

Miss Edwards was well qualified for her task by an early enthusiasm for and considerable knowledge of Egyptian art and history. She spent nearly six months on the river, going as far south as Wady Halfeh, and making a careful study of some of the most interesting ruins, and, after her return, gave two years' labor to writing her narrative. While especially interested in attempting to discover traces of the ancient life, she takes careful note of the varied scenes which meet the eye of the traveller at every bend of the river. The little events of the daily routine; the vivacious crew of the dahabeeyha; the picturesque groups of fellahin with their spurious "anteekahs"; the villages with their fields of waving grain; the creaking water-wheels; the limitless desert, with its wonderful and ever-changing color; above all, the silent and majestic ruins—all are described in such an effective manner as to bring them vividly to the reader's mind. Mingled with these word-pictures are chapters which only the Egyptologist can intelligently read, such as that on the history of Rameses the Great, and the one relating to the paintings in the rock-cut chamber at Abu Simbel discovered by Mr. Andrew McCallum. It should be said in closing that Miss Edwards carefully abstains from touching upon recent Egyptian history and politics.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Airy, O. The English Restoration and Louis XIV. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Baylor, Frances C. A Shocking Example, and Other Stories. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Book-Notes: Vol. V. Providence: Sidney S. Rider.
Bryans—Hendy. Mommsen's History of Rome. Abridged. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Bruchtmann, K. Psychologische Studien zur Sprachgeschichte. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich.
Byerly, Prof. W. E. Elements of the Integral Calculus. 2d ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
Cooke, Rose Terry. Steadfast: The Story of a Saint and a Sinner. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Cram's Standard American Atlas of the World. George F. Cram.
Crosby, Rev. H. The Bible View of the Jewish Church. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. XXIV. Ura—Zym. 9th ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Fenn, G. M. Commodore Junk. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Fredericq, P. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ. Eerste Deel (1025—1520). Ghent; J. Vuylsteke.
Gill, J. A System of Education: A History and Criticism. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.10.
Gray, David Letters, Poems, and Selected Prose Writings. 2 vols. Buffalo: The Courier Co.
Hamerton, P. G. Portfolio Papers. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Harcourt, Helen. Home Life in Florida. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.
Harte, B. Cressy: Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hassall, A. Life of Viscount Bolingbroke. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Heaps, A. The Story of Realmah. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Huish, M. B. The Year's Art. 1889. Illustrated. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.
In Palace and Faubourg: A Story of the French Revolution By C. J. G. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Jordan, D. S. A Manual of Vertebrate Animals of the United States, inclusive of Marine Species. 5th ed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
James, F. L. The Unknown Horn of Africa. London: George Philip & Son.
Johnson, Evelyn Kimball. An Errand Girl: A Romance of New York Life. G. W. Dillingham.
Kirkland, Miss E. S. What Shall I Write About? One Thousand Composition Subjects. Chicago: Fergus Printing Co.
Lamartine, A. de. La Bataille de Trafalgar. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Lampman, A. Among the Millet, and Other Poems. Ottawa: J. Durie & Son.
Lockhart, J. G. Ancient Spanish Ballads. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Lunt, H. Across Lots. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Macdowall, M. W. Tempted of the Devil: A Story Retold from the German of August Becker. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Maine, H. S. International Law: A Series of Lectures delivered before the University of Cambridge, 1887. Henry Holt & Co. $2.75.
Malot, Hector. Capi et sa Troupe. Episode de 'Sans Famille.' Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Martin, A. P. Australia and the Empire. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
McCarrell, Rev. J. Sermons. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Meredith, G. A Reading of Earth. Macmillan & Co.
Metropolitan Church and Choir Directory for New York and Brooklyn. 1889. Metropolitan Printing and Publishing Co.
Montesquieu. De la Grandeur des Romains et de leur Décadence. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
O'Rell—Allen. Jonathan and his Continent. (Rambles through American Society.) Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Owen, Catherine. Progressive Housekeeping. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Pease, Martha A. First Steps in Reading. Chicago: S. R. Winchell & Co. 10 cents.
Platt, J. Business. G. P. Putnam's Sons 75 cents.
Pushkin, A. Poems. Translated with Notes by Ivan Panin. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Raimund, G. Sought and Found. From the German. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Ross, J. D. Scottish Poets in America. Pagan & Ross.
Roy, G. For Her Sake: A Tale of Life in Ireland. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Russell, Rev. F. What Jesus Says: An Arrangement of the Words of Our Savior, under Appropriate Headings. The Baker and Taylor Co. $1.50.
Schenck, Mrs. Elizabeth Hubbell. The History of Fairfield, Connecticut, From the Settlement of the Town in 1639 to 1818. Vol. I. The Author.
Skeat, W. W. Chaucer: The Minor Poems. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.
Zola, E. L'Attaque du Moulin. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1889.

The Week.

THERE appears to be no doubt that the present phase of the Samoan trouble is due to a treacherous attack by Mataafa's forces on the German boat's crew who had come ashore to protect German property. The very large number of German dead and wounded, nearly half the force, shows that the attack was unexpected, and that no preparation had been made for it. To expect that the German Government would allow an outrage of this sort to pass unpunished is to expect forbearance which Americans, under similar circumstances, would be the last to show. If any savages or semi-barbarians made a similar attack on an American force, we doubt very much whether the demand for reparation or punishment would not be far louder and deeper than has yet been heard in Germany. In seeking satisfaction from Mataafa and his men, Prince Bismarck is clearly in his right; but in covering everybody on the islands, neutrals as well as belligerents, with martial law, the German authorities on the spot, as the Prince now acknowledges, went too far. "War" with Mataafa could only be made an excuse for establishing German military rule over the whole territory if all living in it acknowledged Mataafa's authority. But the English and Americans there have been living under their own consuls, and enjoying privileges of which no follies or crimes on Mataafa's part can deprive them. In repudiating the action of the German commander on the spot, therefore, Prince Bismarck has acted like a sensible man. It is unfortunate for the Republicans in the Senate that he should have done so under a protest and remonstrance from Mr. Bayard, but these little mishaps are unavoidable.

The amusing information is sent by the Washington correspondent of the *Times* that Steinberger, whose Samoan experiences during President Grant's Administration we describe elsewhere, has sent a letter to Congressman Cox suggesting that his advice would be of great value in settling the present controversy with Prince Bismarck. He suggests that he be called to the capital and asked "to set forth more in detail the particulars of the policy" which he himself sought to impress upon the Samoans during his sojourn there. As the fruit of that policy was a request from the United States Consul and all the missionaries in Samoa that Steinberger be removed by force in order to put a stop to the demoralization which he was causing in the islands, there does not seem to be much necessity for advice about details.

It is much to be regretted that Senator Allison has seen fit to decline the position of Secretary of the Treasury tendered to him by the President-elect. We have stated the reasons why we considered the selection of Mr. Allison for this place a very judicious one on Mr. Harrison's part. We do not see where his equal is to be found, or one approaching him in qualifications for the office—always supposing that Senator Sherman is out of the list. Not the least of the troubles is, that Mr. Allison's declination opens the door to a lot of more or less disreputable "claimants," such as Tom Platt, Billy Mahone, etc. We trust that Gen. Harrison will, as regards this office at least, look upon all claimants as *prima facie* disqualified. Here is one office which should seek the man, not the man the office.

It is a gratifying announcement that President Cleveland intends to resume the practice of his profession as soon as his term of office expires. It is especially gratifying to the people of New York city that he will make this metropolis his home and the scene of his future activity. It is known that Mr. Cleveland is not rich enough to live without work, and even if he were so, it would not be best that he should. He is still in the prime of life, and although honored as highly as any man can be under our form of government, he still has a career of usefulness before him, which will be watched with eager and affectionate interest by his countrymen in every State of the Union.

The choice of Col. Aldace F. Walker of the Inter-State Commerce Commission as Chairman of the new Inter-State Railway Association at Chicago is an excellent one, and, if he accepts the place, the public may fairly expect to see the roads held to substantial compliance with the Inter-State Law. Col. Walker is a first-rate lawyer, with long experience of contested railroad litigation, and he is also a man of excellent executive ability, still under fifty years of age. It is well known that Judge Cooley, Chairman of the Commission, is determined to bring the roads into full compliance with the law, peaceably if he can, forcibly if he must. Since their association on the Inter-State Commission, a friendship has grown up between Judge Cooley and his younger colleague, and the presence of the two men at the head of the Commission and of the roads would undoubtedly insure good faith and harmonious action between the bodies.

The renewed activity at the Stock Exchange noticed during the past three or four days seems to have impressed everybody as something more than a "spurt." Those who are at the focus of speculation can tell very readily whether a demand for securities is artificial or real, whether it has its springs among the habitués of the Exchange or with the public. They can even distinguish between different classes of the public so as to judge whether a buying movement is likely to be sustained or not, and whether it is of a discriminating sort or not. The opinion seems to prevail that the present movement is real, that it is not transitory, and that it is founded in reason. The pre-existing depression has lasted as long as depressions usually last that are not veritable panics and commercial crises. Among the causes pointing to a change in the temper of the market, probably the most important is the evidence that railway managers have at last recognized the necessity of peace, and have adopted means adequate to secure it, and that bankers have recognized the necessity of getting a fair return on railway capital already invested before putting any more at risk.

We have at last received a copy of the report of "Mr. Byrne of Boston," on the "sugar frauds." It is very voluminous, 174 pages of small print. It will take some time to analyze it, but we cannot resist the temptation to reproduce the following tidbit from the introduction :

> "I will say, at this point, that, prior to taking up this subject as a journalist, I had acquaintance with no person directly or indirectly engaged in the importation or refining of sugar, neither did I assume the work at the request of any person so engaged, nor have I received or had promise of emolument or benefit of any kind made me during or subsequent to the completion of this work of investigation from such source.
>
> "Purely from a journalistic standpoint did I undertake the work, prompted by those aims which stimulate honest, fearless, honorable newspaper enterprise, namely, to secure truthful news, ventilate proven wrongs or injustice imposed upon a community, in order to give deserved publicity to said wrongs, and, if possible, assist in securing such wholesome relief as honest administration of law and equity contemplates in behalf of law-abiding citizens and communities.
>
> "If, therefore, I have been charged as a prejudiced investigator, by reason of being a citizen of Boston, from whence the complaint emanates, or that the journal which I have the honor to represent has assumed the cause of Boston sugar merchants, right or wrong, I can and do deny said charges without hesitation."

He doubtless had no promise of pay before he began, because no sensible man outside of "journalism" would think of hiring him as an investigator of any subject. He probably did the job on speculation, and, in fact, tried to sell his stuff to a newspaper in this city before he was permitted to dump it into the Treasury.

When the Chace Copyright Bill was introduced into the Fiftieth Congress, it contained a provision which seemed to us to embody a principle as radically bad as the principle of international copyright was good. We pointed this out in an article printed January 5, 1888, and that our point was well made is proved by the fact that the bill was amended in this respect and passed by the Senate after such amendment was made. Yet some anonymous opponent of international copyright has reprinted, without authority, the article referred to, and laid a copy upon the desk of every member of Congress. The dis-

honesty of this proceeding is made manifest when it is pointed out and emphasized that the provision then objected to, the *absolute* prohibition of the importation of foreign copyrighted books, *no longer exists in the bill.* It is sincerely to be hoped that the opponents of literary honesty will not be enabled, at the eleventh hour, through contemptible and dishonest means, to influence a single vote in preventing the House of Representatives from granting a fair discussion of this measure, which—be its shortcomings what they may—will at least serve to put us in the ranks of honest nations.

The schemes for the admission of Territories as States have got into such a tangle between the two branches of Congress that it is generally accepted as settled that nothing will be done in the matter before the expiration of the Fiftieth Congress. This outcome will not be regretted by the country. The policy of admitting Territories by wholesale, as proposed by the "Omnibus Bill," is bad in itself, and the inclusion of New Mexico among the projected States is without possible defence. That only half-American community ought to wait a long time, while the others have waited so long that they can easily stand a little further delay. Partisanship must be expected to affect the decision of even so essentially a non-partisan question as the creation of States, but it is much better that it should be applied under circumstances which enable one of the parties to be held to account, than in a compromise measure which balances a New Mexico against a Washington, and causes both parties to unite in defending an act which each by itself would hold quite indefensible.

The Granger Meat Bill now pending in the Pennsylvania Legislature is having a fine run as a new device in the way of protection. The same measure has been introduced in the Legislatures of Ohio and Tennessee. It provides that no meat shall be imported into the State unless the animal, before it is killed, shall have been inspected and pronounced sound and healthy by an inspector of the State within the limits of the State. As the only satisfactory and scientific inspection of meat is that which is made upon the meat itself, an inspection of the animal being merely a diagnosis leading to uncertain results, we suggest that chloroform be administered to the animal and a piece cut out of him and submitted to microscopical tests before he is slaughtered. If he is found to be diseased, the wound can be sewed up, the proper remedies applied, and the animal's life saved. After the meat bill is passed, we shall have further suggestions to make. It is well known that the danger to health from canned meats and vegetables is greater than from fresh meat that is exposed on the butcher's block, because the eye of the practised buyer can generally detect a bad piece of meat, while nobody can tell what is inside a tin can till it is opened. A bill to prohibit the sale of canned corn, tomatoes, etc., unless the articles are inspected within the State before the cans are sealed, would be a much more rational measure than the Granger Meat Bill, and would be equally effective for the purposes of protection.

The Chicago Board of Trade has taken notice of the Granger Meat Bill in the Pennsylvania Legislature, and has passed resolutions on the subject declaring that "the pretence that dressed meats are diseased, advanced by the adherents of these bills, is a sham; that the sole purpose and design is to cripple and impair one of the great industrial enterprises of the country, and the false charges made by the supporters of such legislation will injure the reputation of our meat products at home and abroad, and damage the cattle-raising industry of the entire country"; also, that the proposed legislation is "unwarranted, and without precedent, and calculated to provoke retaliation." Touching retaliation it might be well to consider the subject of shoddy. During the Presidential campaign it came out that a dozen shoddy mills are in active operation, competing with the wool-grower in the production of cloth for the poor man. The owners of these mills were highly indignant over the Mills bill, because they said it would ruin their trade by making wool almost as cheap as shoddy. Now why should not Illinois adopt measures to prevent the sale of any woollen cloth or carpets in that State unless the materials composing them have been first inspected within the State? Why not apply the same rule to confectionery, which we all know is very liable to adulteration with noxious coloring matter? Then there is a long list of patent medicines, of which Pennsylvania furnishes a goodly supply; why should not Illinois require an inspection of the ingredients of these by a State officer within her own limits before allowing any to be sold there? We can see a widely expanding vista of possible retaliatory measures if the Granger Meat Bill becomes a law.

People with muddled ideas as to the causes of the car strike, and the "rights of labor" generally, should read the lucid and vigorous letter which Mr. Scribner, President of the Belt Line Road, has addressed to Mayor Grant. The whole matter is set forth there in terms so clear that no man can fail to understand it. Mr. Scribner says that ex-Convict Magee's Executive Committee of Division District No. 1 waited upon him in December last with a complete plan in detail for the management of his company and the running of his road, and requesting him to bind the company to follow the rules and regulations laid down therein for the ensuing year. His signature was demanded on or before the 7th of January following. He had never heard of the Committee, or the Division District No. 1 before, or of any of the men belonging to either. Because he refused his signature to the document, the strike was ordered, the stables and buildings of the company were surrounded and put under siege, the company's tracks were barricaded by boulders and torn-up pavements, and the company found itself compelled to guard its few employees who remained with it with a force of police, and to convey by "stealth and stratagem" food for the support of both men and guard. After enumerating these and many other similar vicissitudes of the company, growing out of its refusal to allow an unknown body of men to manage its business for it, Mr. Scribner says that the company pays the city about $150 a day in taxes, and he wishes to ask aloud what it is paying them for.

The *Tribune* says:

"It is overstrained and unreasonable to say that the street-railroad companies would surrender their franchises into the control of an irresponsible body, and prove false to the rights of their stockholders, if they should come to any agreement with the officers of the labor organization. If what the men demand is reasonable, they have a right to appoint a committee to represent them, and the appointment of such a committee is not an excuse for refusing to grant the reasonable demand. As to the organization, also, it may be, and the *Tribune* believes that it is, exceedingly injurious to the interests of the employees, and eminently calculated to prevent the attainment of the most favorable terms in the relations with the companies. But the workers have the right to organize, and unless the organization makes unreasonable demands, public opinion will not sustain the companies in refusing to consider demands made for the men by such a body."

The real point is missed here. The question is not whether the companies shall allow a representative committee to make a statement of grievances on the part of the men and communicate through the committee with the men. It is whether they shall make a contract or agreement with such a committee binding themselves to manage their business in a certain way. Even if it were fair to the public and the stockholders to make such an agreement with anybody touching the management of a business carried on under a franchise in the public streets — which we deny — it would be impossible to make it with any organization which offered no guarantees of permanency, of good character, and of ability to carry out its part of the contract. Magee's Committee offered no such guarantees. It had no real control over the men. It was itself liable to disappear at any moment, and it was composed of persons whom few would trust around the corner with five dollars.

The ludicrous figure which the members of the State Board of Arbitration have been cutting during the recent strike has probably furnished them less amusement than it has the public. They are compelled by law to hasten to the scene of a strike and offer their services—that is, open a headquarters and hang out a sign, "Arbitrating Done Here." The absurdity of the performance becomes apparent when a board of rational men is compelled to request a president of a great corporation to "arbitrate" on such a series of "demands" as Mr. Scribner shows were made upon his and other companies in this instance. One of the most zealous members of the Board hired a horse and buggy and started out to urge the car companies to accept the Board's services, but he got so

brusque a refusal from the first one he asked that he went back to the headquarters and resumed the passive rôle. After three days of fruitless waiting the members of the Board left town, satisfied that they could do nothing to help forward a settlement. This is the usual outcome of their labors, and we may add that their success in practice is about the same as characterizes all Labor legislation. They cost the State $11,000 a year in salaries alone—$3,000 for each of the three members of the Board, and $2,000 for the Secretary. Of course, they get their travelling expenses and hotel bills paid also by the State, so that in one way or another they cost the taxpayers quite a pretty little sum—all in Labor's name.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Crosby's bill, authorizing a detailed report by the authorities of the various prisons on the effects caused by the Yates bill, will be passed. Such a report would be of great value in showing the people of the State the almost incalculable harm which that bill has done by stopping labor in the prisons. It would be likely to raise such a storm of indignation as would not only ward off the danger of such another demagogic measure this year, but might also arouse the Legislature to the necessity of some kind of rational action on the convict-labor question. It might also become a precedent for authorizing similar reports upon the effects of other laws. There are hundreds of measures made laws at Albany each year whose effects, if set forth in detail a year or so later, would cause great astonishment in the public mind. Some of them are introduced with full knowledge of their mischievous character, but many of them do harm because of the ignorance in which they have been conceived and passed.

The advocates of prohibition in Kansas find more and more evidence all the while to justify their contention that the policy is proving a success. In his message to the Legislature Gov. Martin, the retiring Governor, declared that prohibition had abolished the saloon, and that its abolition had not only promoted the general prosperity, but also enormously diminished crime, as proved by the facts that, notwithstanding a steady increase in population, the number of criminals in the penitentiary is steadily decreasing; that many of the jails are empty, and the rest show a marked falling-off in the number of prisoners; that the business of police courts in the larger cities has dwindled to one-fourth its former proportions, while in cities of the second and third class the occupation of police authorities is practically gone; and that the dockets of the higher courts are no longer burdened with long lists of criminal cases, not a single such case being on the docket in the capital district, containing a population of nearly 60,000, when the recent term began. The Governor held that these facts had reconciled those who doubted the success, and silenced those who opposed the policy, of prohibiting the liquor traffic, and his view is shared by Judge Johnston of the Supreme Court, who, in his recent annual address as President of the State Bar Association, declared that prohibition "may be said to be as much a part of our political system as the right of trial by jury or the freedom of speech."

The prohibition law in Iowa went into operation July 4, 1886, although months elapsed before it was applied in many localities. In December, 1886, the number of convicts in the State penitentiary was 316; in December, 1887, it had fallen to 286; in December, 1888, it had sunk to 227, although during these two years there has been a perceptible increase in the population of the State. The Prohibitionists naturally "point with pride" to these figures, and it must be confessed that such a showing justifies their claim that prohibition pays in Iowa. The Nebraska Legislature has passed a resolution for the submission to the people of a prohibition amendment. Nebraska was one of the first States to introduce a high-license system, which has proved successful in materially reducing the number of saloons and increasing the revenues of the chief cities and towns. This has served to delay the crystallization of sentiment in favor of prohibition, but, as the State, like Kansas and Iowa, is mainly composed of small agricultural communities, it has seemed inevitable for some time that the Legislature would submit a constitutional amendment. It appears probable that the people, like those of Kansas and Iowa, will ratify it now that they are to have the chance.

There seems to be a growing suspicion in Pennsylvania that there is more "politics" than temperance in the sudden zeal of the Republicans of the State for prohibition. The passage of the prohibition amendment to the Constitution by the Legislature, under "Boss" Quay's inspiration, and its approval by the Governor, have set many people to thinking, and there is clearly going to be a good deal of discussion before the people come to the polls to vote upon it. The State has at present an excellent high-license law which is working well; there was no strong demand for a change from that, and no apparent cause for the sudden action of the Republicans in the Legislature. It is suspected, therefore, that there is some political trick in the movement, and one theory is that the Republican managers think a prohibition law would work for their benefit in Pennsylvania as it has in Rhode Island. In the latter State it is well known that the liquor-dealers pay little attention to the law, and that they pay regular assessments to the Republican managers with the understanding that they shall not be interfered with. This has been found to be so valuable a source of income to the campaign funds that Republican managers in other States than Pennsylvania are said to be casting longing eyes upon it.

The woman-suffragists have been counting with much confidence upon Dakota, but the rejection of a bill giving women the suffrage, by the decisive vote of 28 to 17, in the lower branch of the Legislature, shows that they must wait some time yet for their victory. A similar measure has failed of passage in the Ohio Legislature. Unusual interest in the matter is manifested in Maine this year, and the petitions of some women for the ballot are accompanied by the remonstrances of others. In Massachusetts the friends of the cause are hopeful of securing municipal suffrage, but it is not yet clear whether a majority of the Legislature are converted.

Mr. George W. Smalley telegraphs to the *Tribune* from London the following, in an account of the American Minister's departure for America on Thursday:

"If, however, there be in America any who wish the people of the two countries to be enemies, they, and they only, have cause to reject and resent these manifestations of good-will to the American Minister. They, and they only, are entitled to condemn Mr. Phelps's four years of honorable service abroad. He has, from beginning to end, done his country honor as well as service, and no small part of the honor offered him here is because the English know him, respect him, and admire him as one of the most American of Americans."

But how does this coincide with the same Mr. Smalley's account, sent by cable to the *Tribune* on November 6 last, of Mr. Phelps's conduct as the leading figure in an international negotiation, which the *Tribune's* headlines characterized as follows?—

"Mr. Cleveland's Bargain with the British Premier—Trading His Country's Honor for Electioneering Purposes—The Whole Shameful Trick Disclosed—A Secret Understanding with Lord Salisbury—The President did not Dismiss Lord Sackville until He had been Assured that England would not be Angry—Lord Salisbury Agreed to His Envoy's Dismissal for the Sake of Having Cleveland Reëlected—If Cleveland is Reëlected He will not Forget His Obligations to the British Government."

The death of the heir to the Austrian throne comes at an unfortunate moment in the affairs of the empire, as the Hungarians are violently excited over a new army bill introduced in the Hungarian Parliament, reorganizing the military force of the kingdom somewhat on the German model. Many things in the measure have excited alarm, as tending to efface the marks of Hungarian nationality in the military organization, but the principal thing is the exaction of a knowledge of the German language for officers of the reserve. The bill has had to be carried through by a threat on M. Tisza's part to resign if it failed, and in the teeth of great popular agitation, somewhat favored by a letter of protest from the aged Kossuth, now living in Italy, and hating the Hapsburg dynasty apparently as cordially as ever. It is unfortunate that at such a crisis the line of transmission of the Crown should be suddenly changed to the Emperor's brother, of whom, and of whose sons, but little is known. The only bit of political comfort in the situation is to be found in the fact that the late Prince Rudolph and the Emperor of Germany were at loggerheads, and never likely to be any better friends—a matter of some moment between States in which the monarch counts for so much.

THE GENESIS OF OUR SAMOAN TROUBLE.

We presume hundreds of thousands of American citizens have been asking during the past fortnight how we come to be in any degree responsible for the peace or prosperity of the Samoan Islands in the South Pacific any more than for any other islands in the same ocean—the Gilbert Islands, for instance, or the Ellice Islands, or the Phœnix Islands, all of which are nearer to us than the Navigator or Samoan Islands. The Samoan Islands are about 5,000 miles away from the nearest port of the United States. They are not even within our hemisphere, as they lie 15 degrees, or 900 miles, south of the equator. They do not belong to the American world, either geographically or politically, any more than does Sumatra, Java, or the Philippine Islands. In fact, they belong geographically to the Australian system, and are sure to be absorbed eventually into the great Australian Republic, which is slowly but surely rising in the South Pacific. The Samoan Islands are only 1,200 miles from New Zealand. They are only about 1,500 from the port of Sydney, or about five days' sail, which must, if they ever become civilized and commercial, be their principal market. In truth, unless all the signs by which the future of states and nations is forecast, fail us, they are as certain to become part of Australia as Washington Territory is to become an American State. The fact that they lie on our road to New Zealand and Australia will not save them for us, because we cannot possibly claim every place, however distant, which it is convenient for us to touch at in our voyages.

Moreover, our public policy as defined by the party coming into power is opposed to foreign traffic. We ought not, it is said, to have any trade or intercourse with New Zealand or Australia, in which we accept the products of those countries in payment for our goods, or accept anything but cash; and neither of them is now, ever has been, or is ever likely to be able to carry on a cash business with us, or any business but barter. Consequently we do not need, and are not likely to need, a stopping-place on the road to New Zealand, or anything more than a coaling-station for such passenger ships as we may subsidize for the purpose of encouraging American shipbuilders.

How, then, did we become interested in Samoa at all? Well, in this way. In 1872 Commander Meade of the Navy entered into an agreement with the Chief of the Bay of Pago-Pago for the exclusive privilege of establishing a United States naval station in that harbor. Then certain "highly respectable commercial persons" called President Grant's attention to the importance of our growing trade with the islands in the South Pacific, and he determined to send one Steinberger, who was doubtless one of "the highly respectable commercial persons," out on a voyage of discovery to see about it. In fact, Steinberger solicited the mission himself, and was strongly recommended for it by Gen. Horace Porter. Who Steinberger was, does not appear in the official reports. It was in the very noon of the Grant régime, and everybody in Republican politics was happy and hopeful, and few questions were asked. Parson Newman had started round the world already, as an "inspector of consuls," in the other direction. Steinberger was to inspect the Samoans. It is right to add that before this, to wit, in 1872, some of "the highly respectable commercial persons" had already got "the kings and rulers of the Samoan Islands" (names not mentioned) to send on a petition to President Grant asking for the annexation of the islands to the United States. Here is the petition, which displays a very remarkable acquaintance with our political literature, and especially the Declaration of Independence, for gentlemen whose habitual costume was a neat tattoo and a breech-cloth:

(Translation.)

Apia, Upola, Samoa.

To His Excellency the President of the United States of America:

May blessings from the Almighty rest upon your Excellency; this is our letter to your Excellency.

We, the chiefs and rulers of Samoa, deem it necessary for our future well-being and better establishment of Christianity, free institutions, fellowship of mankind, protection of life and property, and to secure the blessings of liberty and free trade to ourselves and future generations, to petition the President of the United States of America to annex these our islands to the United States of America.

Given under our hands and seals this ninth day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two.

The mention of "free trade" shows, however, that the minds of these cultured savages had been already poisoned by the British missionaries, or by the emissaries of the Cobden Club.

Steinberger started in June, 1874, with $2,000 of United States money in his pocket, in a schooner yacht chartered by himself, and on the 6th of August sighted the field of his investigations. He found an "American Polynesian Land Company" already established on the islands, which was "contracting with the natives for immense tracts of land at nominal prices," paid partly in powder and lead, as civil war was raging, and partly on two years' credit. This was probably not remotely connected with that petition of the "kings and rulers" already cited. He made a long report on the scenery, fauna, flora, products, and geography, climate, and people of the islands, ingratiated himself with the chiefs and people, revised their laws and Constitution, made peace between the warring tribes, delivered them long addresses in answer to their clamorous demands for American protection, and encouraged them to hope for it, and came home early in 1874. He soon had to report to Mr. Fish, however, that the Samoans could not get along without him. They insisted that he must come back to rule them, to carry on the Government he "had been mainly instrumental in creating." So he proposed that our Government should extend its protection to the islands, and send him (Steinberger) back in a man-of-war as Governor, with "a secretary, equipments for say 100 men, as a native guard, clothing, muskets, a battery of four field-pieces (brass), with ammunition, a botanist, a taxidermist, a photographic artist, a surgeon, and microscopist." He also drew up a proclamation to the Samoan people, full of religious and moral advice and promises of his coming back to take care of them, and asked Secretary Fish to endorse it. This Mr. Fish was too prudent to do. The President, however, did agree to send him back again as a "special agent," with a free passage in a man-of-war, and a present of some old arms and ammunition for the Samoan Government from the Navy Department, then presided over by Mr. Robeson. He was not long on the islands before he got himself made "Premier" by King Malietoa, and soon became such a meddlesome infliction that in October, 1875, the American Consul had to write, at the request of all the missionaries in the islands, to ask whether the United States Government was really responsible for him, and had "authorized him to form a government here in Samoa, because if not, and if the United States would not keep him in the islands by force," they would get the chief to expel him to prevent the "demoralization of the natives then going on"; the Consul heartily endorsing their request. Soon afterwards, Steinberger sent in his resignation as "special agent," while "believing that he might ever retain the confidence of his country." The State Department answered in January, 1876, that Steinberger was no longer in the public service in any capacity, and that his two visits to the islands had "no diplomatic or political significance whatever," and that "he was not authorized or empowered by the United States to form a government in Samoa, or to pledge the United States to sustain in any way, directly or indirectly, any government that he might form or assist in forming." And so the windy but amusing adventurer vanished from the scene.

THE APOLOGY FOR TRUSTS.

The truth of Adam Smith's observation, that one had only to support every proposal for strengthening the monopolists in order to acquire great popularity and influence and the reputation of understanding trade, has recently received a striking illustration. Mr. George Gunton, whose volume upon the philosophy of the eight-hour movement, published two years ago, failed to gain for him even rank as a "theorist," is now warmly applauded and widely quoted as a "scientific" authority, gifted with practical insight, because of an article which he has contributed to the *Political Science Quarterly* in defence of Trusts.

Mr. Gunton was predisposed to take a favorable view of these combinations by the fundamental principles of his social philosophy. One of the more striking of these he repeats at the outset of the article before us. The charge that Trusts tend to build up monopolies, and drive small capitalists out of business, is dismissed with the broad assertion that "the only economic and social interest the community can possibly have in either the diffusion or concentration of capital (tools) is, that it shall be so employed as to produce

considerable wealth most cheaply." In other words, it makes no difference to the nation whether the interest upon its capital shall go to promote the comfort and the culture of the many or the luxury and idleness of the few. The only advantage which this nation derives from the ownership of its agricultural land by 4,000,000 farmers instead of 40,000 landlords, as in England, is the cheaper production secured thereby. The ruin of small competitors which has marked the advance of the oil monopoly is not even a matter to be considered. The only question which concerns the public is the effect of the monopoly upon prices.

Here Mr. Gunton falls in line with previous defenders of Trusts, and maintains that there is no difference between a Trust and a corporation except in the size and complexity of its organization. Were Trusts responsible instead of irresponsible, and were corporations ever chartered, even in West Virginia, to restrict the production of wealth, instead of to increase it, to raise prices instead of to lower them, this proposition would need as little argument in its behalf as Mr. Gunton furnishes. What is said about Trusts "raising the plane of competition" and minimizing profits is a matter to be judged by experience. Where industries are in the hands of individuals, there are frequent instances of extortion, as every one knows who has looked into the subject of State contracts. The question to be settled is, Does the formation of a permanent combination tend to promote extortion or to restrain it?

In considering the influence of Trusts upon prices, Mr. Gunton naturally makes the record of the Standard Oil Company bear the brunt of his argument. He dwells at length upon the economies which the concentration of capital always secures, and which the managers of the great oil company deserve the highest praise for having instituted, upon a most magnificent scale. In addition to the reduced cost of administration and the common use of improved methods which have been made possible by every Trust, and actual by most of them, the Standard Oil Company has engaged in the manufacture of its own barrels and cans, and above all has constructed pipe lines to New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Buffalo, and Cleveland, and is now constructing another to Chicago. In emphasizing these economies, however, the unscientific character of Mr. Gunton's examination betrays itself. He tells us, for instance, that since the company began to manufacture its own tin cans in 1874, their cost has been reduced nearly 50 per cent., and in this way an annual saving of $4,500,000 has been effected. We are apparently asked to credit this result entirely to the combination, in exactly the same way that during the campaign, when we were told that the price of iron bar had been reduced more than 50 per cent. during the same period, we were asked to attribute that result entirely to protection. The saving which has been effected through the pipe lines stands upon a somewhat different basis, but the benefit which these have conferred upon the public in the way of cheaper transportation is either carelessly or shrewdly exaggerated. Mr. Gunton states that in 1872, when oil was transported by rail, it cost $1.50 a barrel to ship it to New York; to-day it costs but 50 cents. The saving upon transportation is therefore estimated at 66 2 3 per cent. Turning to Poor's Railway Manual, we find that since 1872 the average reduction of freight rates on the Pennsylvania Railroad has been 52 per cent. As this average includes local as well as through freights, it is evident that the public gets its oil transported at but little less than if the pipe lines had never been laid.

Setting aside, then, the question of the economies due to the concentration of capital, we come to the point in which the public is vitally interested. What has been the effect of the combination upon prices? Mr. Gunton shows that in 1871, the year before the Standard Oil Company was organized, the price of crude oil at the wells was 10.52 cents per gallon; the price of refined oil at New York was 24.24 cents. In 1887 the price of crude oil had fallen to 1.59 cents per gallon; the price of refined oil to 6.75 cents. Mr. Gunton substantially admits, though he does not distinctly state, that the Standard has nothing to do with the production of crude oil. Saying nothing of the percentages of reduction in the prices of the two commodities, he calls attention to the fact that the aggregate reduction in the price of refined oil has been almost twice as great as that in the case of crude oil, amounting to over 17 cents per gallon. Inasmuch as one thousand million gallons of oil were refined last year, he estimates the saving to the consumers at $174,000,000!

The one question of scientific interest—How much of this reduction in prices has been due to the existence of the Trust?—Mr. Gunton completely ignores. Fortunately, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for January this very question is treated by Prof. E. Benjamin Andrews of Cornell University, whose article upon "Trusts According to Official Investigations" is neither an arraignment nor a defence of these institutions, but a remarkably clear and judicial examination of their workings. The result of Mr. Andrews's investigation of the effect of combination upon the prices of oil is as follows:

From 1861 to 1872, inclusive—*i. e.*, before any Trust whatever existed—the net average annual percentage of *decrease* in the price of refining oil and carrying it to tide-water was.....	10.4332
From 1873 to 1881, inclusive, the Trust's infirm and formative period, the figure was.....	7.3897
From 1882 to 1887, inclusive, the years of its full maturity and vigor, it was..	2.2879

Mr. Andrews is not disposed to deny the economies in production which the Trust has introduced. What he does deny is, that these economies are turned to the benefit of the consumers. From the official investigation he finds that the Standard Oil Trust, upon its enormous capitalization, has earned dividends averaging between 12½ and 13 per cent. Supposing "water to have mingled with oil to the extent of but one-third of the original certificate capital, the old stock must have been bringing its possessors 18 or 20 per cent. yearly." The Standard Oil combination was formed for the express purpose of securing a rise in profits by resisting a fall in price. It has succeeded in accomplishing its aim.

Such being the effect of combination upon prices in the refining of oil—a commodity which is being produced at the wells in rapidly increasing quantities and must be sold or lost—it is scarcely worth while to direct attention to the doubling of prices by the Cotton-Bagging Trust in our own country, the Salt Trust in England, and the Copper Trust in France. The important question which remains to be considered is, Can we look to competition for relief from the present evils of combination? Upon this point Mr. Gunton repeats an old proposition, which should be stricken out of the political economies, while Mr. Andrews states a new one which, with some qualification, perhaps, should be inserted in its stead. Mr. Gunton, with easy optimism, maintains that excessive profits are impossible, since self-interest will dictate to invested capital that it is much better to reduce prices than to risk competition. Upon this question no new evidence need be cited. The fact that for years past most of the gas companies of New England have been capitalized at $15 per thousand feet of gas sold, whereas a capitalization of $5 per thousand is admitted to be sufficient for medium-sized works, shows conclusively that where monopoly is possible, attempted competition is apt to result in a waste of capital without relief to the public; each successive paralleling of lines or duplicating of works rendering reduction of rates more difficult and the danger of further competition more remote. The proposition stated by Mr. Andrews is of exactly the opposite tenor. It is that, in order to establish monopoly prices in any business, it is not necessary for the syndicate to control the entire production. "Immediate mastery of a decided majority is practically the mastery of all." The Canadian Trust Committee finds that the twenty-five mills which are outside of the Oatmeal Millers' Association invariably "avail themselves of whatever advantage the combination gives them to keep up prices." Mr. Andrews believes that the principle in such cases is similar to that of rent, or the fixing of prices by the dearest cost of production. The inference which he draws must be accepted as at least a most important suggestion regarding the future of industrial combinations. "Unless," he says, "the small producers, who pretend to compete with the Trusts, can so enlarge their capacity as to supply the market—of course, an impossibility—it will remain, as heretofore, for the Trusts to say what prices shall be."

THE TARIFF ON WORKS OF ART.

The Mills bill as it was presented to the House of Representatives contained a clause putting upon the free list "Paintings, in oil and water colors, and statuary not otherwise provided for"; the latter term to include the "professional productions of a statuary or of a sculptor only." But when the bill came to be discussed by the Committee of

the Whole in the House, this provision was stricken out without debate, upon the motion of Mr. Breckinridge of Arkansas, and the existing tariff provisions in regard to these productions were, therefore, left unchanged.

In the voluminous document issued by the Senate as a substitute for the Mills bill—from which it differs in being, not merely a bill amending the present law, but an attempt to recodify the existing tariff legislation—the provisions now in force relating to the importation of works of art are set out in full, and certain alterations proposed. Upon paintings and statuary, as described above, there is an ad-valorem duty of 30 per cent.—the act of 1883 having trebled the former rate of 10 per cent.; and during the twelve months ending June 30, 1888 (according to the Treasury Department's "Summary Statement of the Imports and Exports of the United States"), there was imported $1,679,807 worth of these two articles, upon which duty was collected at the above rate, while for the preceding fiscal year, 1886-'87, the value of the dutiable importations reached $2,332,436. Paintings, statuary, and other works of art, the production of American artists, are allowed free importation, and under this head the Treasury Department reported importation to the value of $473,562 during the fiscal year 1886-'87, and $531,654 from July 1, 1887, to June 30, 1888.

A number of other separate provisions relate to the free importation of works of art, but art productions proper are so mixed up with scientific apparatus, instruments, fountains, "collections," regalia and gems, pottery, photographic pictures, and similar articles, and the various clauses are for the most part such inconsistent repetitions of each other, that it is by no means easy to summarize them. It is a pity that in an elaborate bill attempting to codify the revenue laws, care was not taken to unite these various provisions into a single harmonious paragraph; but above all it is to be regretted that these carefully hedged provisions for a very limited free importation of the only means through which a large part of our citizens can participate in the art culture of Europe, should remain in the bill at all. The niggardly spirit in which they are framed would only be justifiable in a revenue measure intended to replenish a bankrupt treasury, and is ludicrously out of keeping with the title of the bill, "An Act to Reduce Taxation."

The provisions of the bill permitting free importation of works of art—set out as concisely as possible, and with the deviations from the present law indicated by italics—are as follows: (1.) The productions of American artists *residing temporarily abroad*. (2.) Statuary, casts of marble, bronze, alabaster, or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, and etchings imported for the use of any society or institution incorporated or established for religious, philosophical, educational, scientific, or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts. (3.) Statues, statuary, and specimens of sculpture imported for any society as above, and also for the use or by the order of any college, academy, school, seminary of learning, or public library. (4.) Paintings, statuary, fountains, and other works of art imported expressly for presentation to a national institution, or to any State or municipal corporation, or incorporated religious society, *college, or other public institution*. (5.) *Works of art, drawings, engravings, and photographic pictures, brought by professional artists for use by them temporarily for exhibition*. (6.) Paintings, statuary, and photographic pictures for exhibition by any association duly authorized under the laws of the United States, or of any State, for the promotion and encouragement of science, art, or industry; provided, that in cases of importation under "5" and "6," if the articles are not exported within six months, *or, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, within twelve months*, duties must be paid. (7.) Works of art, photographs, works in terracotta, parian, pottery, or porcelain, and artistic copies of antiquities in metal or other material, imported for permanent exhibition at a fixed place by any society or institution established for the encouragement of arts or sciences; and (8) like articles imported by any society or association for the purpose of erecting a public monument—in either of which cases bonds must be given for the payment of duties should any of the articles be subsequently sold or transferred, etc., "*and such articles shall be subject, at any time, to examination and inspection by the proper officers of the customs.*" (9.) Engravings, *photographs*, and etchings when more than twenty years old at the date of importation; and (10), the same articles *when imported for the use of the United States, or for the use of the Library of Congress*. Finally (11) fashion plates, whether "engraved on steel, or copper, or wood; colored or plain."

Of the changes proposed to be made in the present free list, that indicated in "five," permitting the free importation of works of art by artists for temporary exhibition in this country, together with the clause extending the time during which such exhibits shall be exempt from the payment of duty from six months to one year, were borrowed from the Mills bill; whereas, the other changes marked seem to have originated in the Senate Committee. The latter are of no importance, but they are not, unhappily, the only alterations proposed by the Senate bill affecting the duties upon works of art. Neither photographs nor lithographs are mentioned in the tariff act of 1883, but the lynx-eyed Treasury officials, who truly seem to display an abnormal acuteness for discovering provisions for taxing "protection"-ridden Americans, have ruled that these two articles are subject to the same duty as engravings, under the drag-net provision concerning non-enumerated articles which "bear a similitude" to any article enumerated; and in the Senate bill the word "photographs" is inserted in paragraph 379, which relates to books and engravings, and imposes a duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem. We do not wish to seem factious by finding fault with a single addition to the free list, but certainly one might not unreasonably have expected that an argument for encouraging the distribution among our people of photographic copies of the masterpieces of Old World painting and sculpture would have appealed to the good sense of the Senate of the United States, and that the untaxed importation of Braun's beautiful prints of the Sistine Madonna, or of the Venus of Milo, for example, would have been deemed of equal importance with the free importation of those marvellous Parisian productions known as fashion plates. As regards lithographs, the Senate bill (sec. 382) provides that "lithographic prints from either stone or zinc, bound or unbound (except illustrations in printed books), and all articles produced either in whole or in part by lithographic process," shall pay an import duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem, thus not only distinctly including this article among the enumerated dutiable articles, but increasing the rate of duty 10 per cent. above that now in force under the rulings of the Treasury Department. Moreover, whether inserted for that purpose or not, the words "and all articles produced either in whole or in part by lithographic process," will, apparently, increase the duty by 10 per cent. upon all lithographed or partly lithographed music, which now pays duty at 25 per cent., under the Treasury Department's decisions.

The provision establishing the duty upon paintings and statuary is contained in paragraph 424 of the Senate bill, which reads as follows: "Paintings in oil and water colors, and statuary, not otherwise provided for in this act, 30 per cent. ad valorem; but the term 'statuary' as herein used shall be understood to include *only such statuary as is cut, carved, or otherwise wrought by hand from a solid block or mass of marble, stone, or alabaster, or from metal*, and as is the professional production of a statuary or sculptor only." The words italicized indicate the substance of the alteration proposed to be made by the bill in the present law. Just what importance or value should be attached to the attempt to define more explicitly than is done in the law now in force, the term "statuary," we do not feel competent to say; but by the insertion of the word "alabaster" in this clause, this clever measure to "reduce taxation" succeeds in making yet another increase of duty. The act of 1883 (first paragraph of schedule N), provides for a duty of 10 per cent. upon alabaster statuary, but that clause is omitted from the Senate act, and paragraph 424 is made to include this article, thus increasing the duty upon it by 20 per cent.

This paragraph of the bill came before the Senate for consideration on Thursday, January 10, when Senator Vest pointed out that, according to the provisions of the bill, artistic, hand-made statuary in alabaster would be required to pay a higher duty by 5 per cent. than manufactures of the same material, and he protested against this discrimination, which was unfavorable to the work of the artist, but he suggested no amendment of the text of the bill. Senator Hoar deserves credit as the single member of the Senate who had the courage to speak a word in favor of free art. He expressed the hope that before the bill

had passed from the final consideration of the Committee that body would conclude to put all works of art on the free list. "I do not believe there is any American artist," he continued, "who desires to have his work protected as against the free competition of all mankind. It does not come at all, it seems to me, within any argument which is advanced in favor of a protective tariff. The genius of an artist is neither developed nor encouraged, nor in any way helped, by a policy which gives him any advantage which does not belong to him as a matter of pure superiority and merit. I do not propose to make any motion. I desire to defer to the Committee in regard to the bill; but I trust the Committee will come to that conclusion, which I believe is the desire of every American who is engaged in the production of works of art, either of painting or of sculpture, without any considerable exception." It was not to be expected that so gentle a remonstrance would have any effect on the Senate Committee. The very indefensibility of this tax makes it certain that a decided protest must be made against it before it will be done away with. No consideration seems to have been given to Senator Hoar's recommendation, but to the American who realizes the insular and disgraceful position occupied by his country in this respect, in comparison with other civilized nations, it is some satisfaction that at least one member of the Fiftieth Congress has given voice to proper convictions regarding the matter.

COME-OUTERS AND STAY-INNERS.

THE prolonged litigation over the Andover professors already resolves itself into a manœuvring for position in the contest of the American Board with the theory of future probation. Upon the denomination at large the effect of the final decision, whatever it may turn out to be, cannot now be great. The new view is strongly intrenched in many prominent churches, and they will continue to hold it, even if those who teach it in Andover should have to quit their chairs. There seems to be no likelihood of a split in the Congregational body over the question. This is really the most surprising aspect of the whole affair. Here is a large denomination with its peace disturbed by a group of innovators, who show no signs of abandoning their obnoxious tenets, yet no effort is made to cut them off, nor do the offenders ever appear to have thought of setting up for themselves.

All this is a striking testimony to the great dulling of the instinct of religious separatism in the past seventy-five years. Such a state of things simply could not have been at the beginning of this century. Every one familiar with the histories and biographies relating to the condition of the churches at that time in this country, will remember how constant a note in that literature is the willingness, almost the eagerness, of the men of those days to embody their separate religious ideas in separate religious organizations. They were afraid of schism neither as word nor as thing. If a man had a new social conception, he not only broached it but worked it—if, indeed, it could be made to work. If a man got beyond his sect, he did not wait to be put out—though if he had waited he would have been put out surely enough—but went out. It was a time of intense individualism, and it almost seemed as if society would cleave down to its ultimate atoms. It was the day of the come-outers. To it has succeeded, apparently, the day of the stay-inners.

And it is not, of course, in the Congregational Church alone that this wedding of opposites may be observed. That denomination is, from its principles and authority, peculiarly weak against perverse views from within; it cannot move against them with direct and swift ecclesiastical authority; nor has it the happy knack possessed by some other sects of repressing or concealing doctrinal differences existing within it. Still, divergences as broad as those from which it suffers can easily be detected in any of the leading Protestant bodies. They all have their "schools," their left, centre, and right. In all of them the traditional broad shield of toleration has to be made as elastic as Dido's bull's-hide to cover the range of doctrinal and ecclesiastical opinion. Yet, so completely has the petition of the Litany directed against the evils of schism been answered, that in none of them, any more than in the Congregational Church, is there a sign of disrupted creeds taking form in disrupted churches.

Nor does this argue a great falling off in religious earnestness, or inquiry, or speculation. These all go on as before. The difference is that they do not now lead men, as they once did infallibly, out of one sect and into another, or to the formation of an altogether new sect. The new fashion of tolerance has, in fact, led to a new kind of sect, what may be called the inter-sectarian sect. This is referred to in Dr. Holmes's recent letter to the Unitarian Club of Boston, where he says: "We have seen large bodies of those whom we have been accustomed to regard as our theological opponents, silently wheeling to our side, *without breaking ranks or changing colors.*" In other words, there are opinions and tendencies of thought stronger and more distinctive than any sect, and running through all the sects. Many men find their closest theological affinities outside the religious body in which they were born; they give way to these affinities and are marked by them; yet they do not leave the inherited form of faith. That form may have become, in its main positions, positively distasteful to them, yet they stand by it, giving to it their influence and activity, while they give their thought and affection to the inter-sectarian sect to which they really belong. In everything but organization, of course, such men actually have formed a new sect. They have their recognized organs of opinion; they have their shibboleths; they enjoy the freemasonry of a good understanding with those of like mind.

Some years ago, a Baptist clergyman woke up to find himself holding views which were, to say the least, novelties in his denomination, though not absolutely unknown in it. He fell to corresponding with the men in the different denominations whom he knew to be of his way of thinking. Between him and them there existed that intellectual agreement and sympathy of aim which once were the bond of every sect. But now this Baptist minister found his mental intimates and religious affinities in the persons of an Episcopalian lecturer, a Congregational pastor, and a Presbyterian professor! We should have added a Methodist preacher, had not the latter subsequently left his denomination.

And of course this sort of liberal inter-sectarian sect has its counterpart on the conservative side. The theological stiffeners-up of the various religious bodies themselves constitute a religious body most definitely marked. Their most secure sense of solidarity is experienced in connection with movements and sympathies wholly independent of any one sect. We can think of no better illustration of this than the recent course of the *Independent*. But a few years ago, that paper was the synonym for the liberal, if not the radical, in religion. For reasons best known to its proprietor, it suddenly took the other tack, and took it with the customary vehemence of a convert. What the effect was upon its liberal patrons we cannot say, but the effect upon its former enemies, the conservatives, was unmistakable. They almost wept over this brand plucked from the burning. Mr. Bowen was flooded with commendatory letters from the conservative leaders in all the denominations. There need be no hesitation in speaking about this, for he at once showed that it was precisely what he was after, and published columns of them as a capital advertisement. That is a small matter; the important thing is the evidence the circumstance afforded of the existence of a great conservative sect within the sects.

There is nothing strange about this. It was inevitable that the accidental classification of religious opinions, shown in the denominations as we know them, should eventually be broken down and overridden by a classification based on what seems to be the system of nature, the division of men into liberals and conservatives. Here we get true genera, while the sects constitute species at the most. And if the idea of the variation of species is a modern idea, that of the variation of sects is at least as old as Bossuet.

VOLAPÜK, OR WORLD-SPEECH?

WITHIN the first decade of its existence Volapük has made, in comparison with all earlier or later attempts at devising a universal language, extraordinary progress. Its adherents now number, according to their own estimate, upwards of a million (the opponents of the system place this figure as low as 200,000); twenty-two periodicals, published in Germany, Spain, France, Austria, Denmark, Sweden, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, England, China, Japan, Porto Rico, and the United States, are exclusively devoted to its dissemination; the seat of the Central Committee is established in the very place whence a superficial observer might have expected the most strenuous opposition—in Paris; clubs for and

courses of instruction in Volapük are to be met with in all civilized countries; neither Spelin, Pasilingua, Lingva internacia, nor the nine or ten remaining opposition schemes for a universal tongue have yet been able to hold the attention of any considerable portion of the public; the dissensions among the Volapükists themselves are generally hushed; the first scientific work in Volapük (and German), 'Abbildungen von 6 Schädeln, mit erklärendem Texte,' has just made its appearance. In short, Volapük would seem to be triumphant at all points.

Nevertheless, Father Schleyer's scheme has succeeded in developing not only numerous rival methods, but likewise deep-seated opposition in his own camp. Many of his earliest disciples, convinced, after long trial, of the undesirability of the Volapük method, have turned their backs upon it, and are engaged in searching after a more practical expression of the common need. Their opposition up to the present time has been spasmodic and disconnected, expressed chiefly through the medium of occasional pamphlets. It is now to take definite and organized shape. Karl Lentze of Leipzig, one of Schleyer's first disciples and foremost champions, is about to initiate a new movement through the publication of a periodical* in the three chief European languages (English, French, and German). This monthly review will furnish to the learned and unlearned of those nations most nearly interested in the success of a world-language a neutral ground—*forum linguarum*—where all parties can be heard and disputes settled without costly internecine strife of dubious outcome.

What are the most weighty objections to Volapük, aside from those brought forward against the idea of a world-language in general? (1.) The complicated character of the verb. (2.) The mutilation beyond recognition of word-roots, and the uncalled-for disregard, necessitated by Schleyer's entire method, of words universally accepted. (3.) The disagreeable and difficult pronunciation, caused by the profusion of long and modified vowels, monotonous accent, and too frequent employment of certain consonants. The first and third of these difficulties have already been commented upon at length in the *Nation;* a few examples will serve to give an idea of the second, and to throw light upon the evolution of the Volapük vocabulary. Europe is in Vp (Volapük) Yulop. Wherefore? (*a*) The Chinese, old people, and children cannot conveniently pronounce *r;* this consonant is therefore either dropped, or replaced by *l*, in forming Vp roots from known words. (*b*) Rule: No declinable word shall begin or end with a vowel. Away with *e* final and *r;* initial *E* is transformed to final *Y;* grand total: Yulop. Good! But observe the advantages of a "system." *Yul* may be looked upon as *root* of our new word, *op* as universal suffix designating "continent." A vista opens. *E. g.*, A-mer-ica: *mer* is *root; r=l* gives Mel; clap on the universal op—Melop! Aus-tral-ia; *tral*, *tal*, Talop! A-fri-ca; *fric*, *fik* (*k* phonetic)—Fikop. Asia—Hm! inconvenient; no proper *root* there. So let us take the French form with article, l'Asie; *lasi*, *las*—stop! Rule: No substantive shall end with a sibillant; we must turn it round: *sal;* no, that "root" has been taken before for *salt.* Happy thought: we had an *i* in *lasi;* let us take that instead of *a*—presto, change!—*sil*, Silop! The unprejudiced observer might ask: "Why change these well-known names at all?" Schleyer would answer: "The System demands it, the System is fixed and unalterable, without a System all is chaos; if you once learn what the System requires, you will reach the end and aim of World-Language: to make yourself understood by everybody everywhere."

One more example. In choosing a "root," Schleyer goes through his fifty-five languages to find the shortest and (for the System) most convenient one. *E. g.*, Eisenbahn—chemin de fer—railroad; the last appears on the whole the best, and from it is accordingly evolved *lellod*, and, to avoid the doubled consonant, *lelod* (vowels long, if you please). So far, so good. But presently he needs a new Vp "root" for *iron.* For Eisenbahn he already finds in his German Vp Vocabulary, *lelod;* what more natural (or *spirituel*) than to take *lel=iron*—and how logical, too! Here we not only see the *shape* (rail, regel (Sw.), Riegel) converted into the *substance*, but are called upon to admire the ingenuity of the process.

Alexander J. Ellis, F.R.S., Vice-President of the British Philological Society, in his politely sarcastic response to the invitation of the American Philological Soiety (calling a Congress for the consideration of the world-language), praises Vp as a speech based on non-Aryan principles. He is entirely right, both as regards its grammatical construction and word-material, which latter is founded on roots so mutilated that, although 80 per cent. are avowedly from English, Latin, Italian, Spanish, French, and German, they can no longer be recognized as Aryan. Now, the memorizing of the vocabulary of any wholly artificial language is, after the grammatical construction has been mastered, a matter of undeniable difficulty. In the case of Vp this difficulty is aggravated by the really arbitrary transformation and "swapping round" of roots.

But, whatever be the merits or demerits of Vp, its author has succeeded in awakening and keeping alive the interest of the world-public to an unprecedented degree; which goes far towards proving that a real world-speech is a thing desirable and desired, if not yet absolutely necessary. Just now the main difficulty would seem to be, that "das Gute der Feind des Besseren sein mag"—that the friends of Vp, who still include but an insignificant fraction of the hundreds of millions eventually to be reached by the "one speech for one humanity," may succeed in blocking the way for the introduction of an easier, because simpler and more intelligible, system of language. Mr. Ellis, while admitting (pp. 90-1, 96) the decided superiority of Spelin (the world-speech invented by Prof. Bauer of Agram) over Volapük, declines further discussion of the subject, on the ground that the latter tongue has already met with a favorable reception. Unfortunately (or otherwise), Mr. Ellis's own deliberate judgment in favor of Spelin, together with the much more attractive form of this latter as compared with Vp, must, it seems to us, aid in creating a current of public opinion adverse to the spread of Volapük. For why should all the world learn a more difficult system merely to please at the utmost a million of its friends? We have reached the most dangerous stage on the highway of universal speech, where the admittedly better is deliberately set aside by the partisans of the (moderately) good.

What does the new movement, headed by the *Interpretor*, offer as a substitute for, or advance upon, Volapük? As appears from the advance sheets, the founders of the undertaking assume the position that a world-speech cannot, and ought not to, be the work of any individual, however highly gifted. They declare, furthermore, that they, as former zealous adherents of Vp, are satisfied that this method does not afford a really practical solution of the problem. The Vp vocabulary they consider to present great and utterly needless difficulties to the student—all the difficulties, in fact, with the exception of grammatical simplification, presented by a new language. It is their aim to render available the mass of word material common to the languages of western Europe. While presenting a simple grammatical system of their own, the editors desire and request the active coöperation of all persons interested in universal language, in order that the question may be treated and illumined from every point of view. The *Interpretor* desires ostensibly neither to enter into a conflict with Vp or any other system, nor to present any similar scheme, but will exert its influence towards settling the many disputed points respecting world-speech in a way at once satisfactory and final. In regard to the vocables, no doubts are to be left unsolved as to the material which the world-speech shall have at its disposal. As long as a dozen or more different world-languages exist, each with its own partisans, no clear public opinion can be formed regarding the nature of world-language. The editors propose to show that, by taking natural and linguistic laws, more especially those touching the evolution of language, into account, a world-speech can be framed from which invention pure and simple, and consequently individual idiosyncrasies, shall be completely excluded. They propose that from the languages of western Europe the best known, shortest, and most euphonious words of clearest meaning shall be selected, preserving form and pronunciation as far as possible (the spelling is of course to be phonetic); also, that the best rules and principles shall be adopted in all cases; "then," say the editors, "the relatively best language must result, which will deserve to take precedence of all others."

Without filling space unnecessarily with details of the new departure, it may be said that it invites the earnest attention of all, whether adherents of Vp or no, who believe in the theory of a world-speech, and desire to see it put into a practical shape. It is altogether unlikely that the *Interpretor* will accept Vp or any modification of it, for Vp admits of no radical modification. The *Interpretor* shows in some particulars a leaning towards Spelin. But all views worthy of attention, whether favorable or unfavorable to the editors' scheme, will receive due notice in the *Interpretor*, whose motto seems to be "Principle above party." It is hoped that the many rival systems may crystallize about the *point d'appui* here offered.

* *Interpretor:* International Review for Universal Language. Karl Lentze, Editor, Leipzig.

THE YOUTH OF CALVIN.

PARIS, January 23, 1889.

M. ABEL LEFRANC is the author of a 'History of the City of Noyon and of its Institutions to the end of the Thirteenth Century.' He has now applied himself to the study of the earliest part of the life of Calvin, who was, as everybody knows, born at Noyon. His 'Jeunesse de Calvin' is an important contribution to the Calvin literature. Historians have hitherto neglected the early part of Calvin's life; they know the smallest circumstances of his career only from the time when he left France and began his apostolate in Geneva. But who has ever well explained how the great reformer was himself reformed, under what influences he became what he was afterwards in Switzerland? Did his conversion take place in Paris, in Orleans, in Bourges? We really knew little about the first act of the drama which ended out of France.

The documents which M. Abel Lefranc has

used are in the first place the "Registers of the Deliberations" of the city of Noyon, in which are related the smallest incidents of the life of Noyon, and which had been completely unexplored. He has made some use also of the accounts of the "Rôles des tailles" of the "Livre des bourgeois." He found in the National Library at Paris an analysis of the "Registers of the Chapter" of Noyon, by one of the canons (the original registers have unfortunately been destroyed). I do not mention many works containing notes and researches on Noyon and its inhabitants, nor the more ancient biographies of Calvin, well known to all historians.

The ancestors of Calvin were all fishermen, who lived on the river Oise. His father Gérard became a bourgeois of Noyon in 1497; he was promoter of the chapter in 1500, inhabiting a house, not far distant from the fine cathedral, afterwards demolished during the League by the enemies of the great reformer. Gérard Calvin (or Cauvin) married the daughter of one of the most notable bourgeois of the town, Le Franc, who had a good fortune. Jeanne Le Franc was handsome, very pious, and used to take her son, John Calvin, when a child, to the pilgrimages of the neighborhood. Calvin, in his 'Treatise on the Relics,' speaks of the relics of the famous Abbey of Ourscamp. Jeanne Le Franc died young, and Gérard Calvin married again, but we know nothing of his second wife. He himself died in 1531, leaving four sons and two daughters.

At the age of twelve years, May 19, 1521, John Calvin received his first "bénéfice," consisting in a rent of some church property lying at Eppeville ("Eppeville" is one of the pseudonyms afterwards used by the reformer). On the 29th of September, 1527, he became curate of Saint-Martin de Martheville, and on the 5th of June, 1529, he exchanged this living for another and better one at Pont-l'Évêque. We must evidently abandon the legend, too long credited, of young Calvin educated by charity in the shadow of the cathedral of Noyon. His father was a man of some importance, and obtained church preferments for his sons, in his capacity of *procureur*, or clerk of the chapter. He gave them a very good education in a college of Noyon called after the "little caps" of the scholars. John Calvin was there the companion of the children of the seigneur of Montmor. He went with them to Paris, where he stayed at the house of his uncle Richard, near Saint-Germain l'Auxerrois. This journey took place in August, 1523.

A quarrel arose between Calvin's father and the chapter of Noyon. "At the bottom of it," says M. Lefranc, "are money difficulties. Gérard Calvin was embarrassed in his affairs, refused to render his accounts to the chapter, and put himself in complete opposition to it. The influence of this quarrel on the mind of the future reformer must have been considerable." Gérard was excommunicated by the chapter, and fell ill; his son John returned from Paris and saw him die. The chapter was not disarmed by his death. Charles, the eldest of the Calvin children, was persecuted by the chapter, and was excommunicated in his turn, though he was chaplain of the cathedral and curate of Roupy. He was suspected of heresy, and when he died on the 1st of October, 1537, without being reconciled with the Church, he was not interred in consecrated ground.

John Calvin was thus not the first member of his family who was opposed to the Church. He was probably much shocked by the proceedings of the chapter of Noyon, first against his father and then against his brother Charles. The religious beginning of Calvin is, however, to be found, not only in his feelings for his family, but also in the state of his native country. Picardy was open very early to the ideas of the Reformation. Pierre Robert, who was known under the name of Olivetan, was a Picard; the inhabitants of this part of France are proverbially known for their love of contention. At Noyon, there was a perpetual quarrel between the Bishop and the chapter. It seems highly probable that Olivetan, who had been attracted to the ideas of the Reformation at Orleans and afterwards at Strasbourg, was the initiator of Calvin and the cause of his religious evolution. Olivetan had become in Strasbourg a pupil and a friend of Martin Bucer. Lefèvre d'Étaples, the Roussels, Vatable, Olivetan, and Calvin all belonged to Picardy. We can, therefore, not look upon Calvin's conversion as an isolated fact; he was drawn along in a current, with many others; he belonged to a sort of class, which received the new ideas chiefly in the universities. Calvin's conversion was determined by a chain of reasoning; he does not seem to have suffered from any doubts, to have felt the same sort of anxiety as Martin Luther. He resigned his livings, and provoked in the cathedral a public manifestation which was followed by his immediate arrest. He was put in prison on the 26th of May, 1534, and he remained in it for about five months. This arrest was the origin of the legend which afterwards represented him as having been marked with a hot iron on the shoulder for an abominable crime (a legend which has found its way into some historical books).

M. Lefranc has attempted to throw more light on the various peregrinations of Calvin, and on his life at Paris, at Orleans, at Bourges. Some parts of the time which he spent in these various places as well as at Noyon are extremely obscure, and I must say that M. Lefranc, by not following an exactly chronological order, has added somewhat to the obscurity and confusion. Calvin's journeys become almost enigmas. We have to follow him from place to place, and we cannot follow him from year to year. We are presented to his acquaintances, to the friends he makes in the universities, without any regard to time, and the impression received becomes confused and almost irritating. Did Calvin meet Rabelais in one of these journeys in the province of Saintonge? It is a question which cannot well be answered; what is certain is, that in 1533 Calvin denounced 'Pantagruel' as an obscene work, justly condemned by the censure. Rabelais, on his side, did not spare Calvin (see the famous passage in the third book of 'Pantagruel'). From Angoulême, he went to Nérac, where he visited Lefèvre d'Étaples, the translator of the Bible, and the patriarch of the French Protestants, who was living quietly at the Court of the Queen of Navarre. Calvin visited Poitiers, Orleans, gaining everywhere adherents to the new idea by his propagandism and his eloquence. We find him again in Noyon in 1534. We have said already that he was thrown into prison at that time; when he was free, he went to Paris. He led there a very quiet life, preparing himself for his great work, in communication with the ardent Farel, with Gérard Roussel, with the leaders of the Reformation. Persecution had begun, on all sides the heretics were threatened. Marot fled to the Duchess of Ferrara in Italy. Calvin took the road into exile, going first to Bâle, and stopping at Strasbourg on the way. At Bâle he was hidden under the name of Martianus Lucanius, and led a life of complete retirement. He was working at his first great work, the 'Institution Chrétienne,' which he finished on the 23d of August, 1535. His great mission really began with the publication of this book, which is equally remarkable in a literary and in a religious sense.

I will not dilate much on the further movements of Calvin. They are better known than the first part of his life. From Bâle he reached Italy, and went to Ferrara with Dutillet, who travelled under the name of Haulmont. In 1536 he came back to France, and stayed some little time in Paris and in Noyon, in order to settle some family business. He was stopped on his way back to Bâle, and went to Geneva, where he was detained by Farel and remained.

I have said that Calvin was not, so to speak, an accident, that in his birthplace of Noyon, in his earliest infancy, there was a party inclined to reform. This ecclesiastical centre was not, in the sixteenth century, the quiet and sleepy place which it is now; the Protestant group became stronger and stronger with time, and a sort of municipal civil war raged in it for as much as thirty years. The division became well accented when the persecution began; on one side were the Huguenots, on the other the future members of the Holy League. The chapters which M. Lefranc has written on the divisions of Noyon are perhaps the most interesting in his book; he shows how the city of Calvin, though Calvin was there no longer, became a sort of headquarters for the reformers of all the region of the north of France. Laurent de Normandie, a friend of Calvin, became lieutenant of the bailiwick of Noyon, and through his influence the Protestants of the region enjoyed more liberty than in the rest of France. But he was, after a while, obliged to leave the town with his friends, and took refuge in Geneva. An inquisitor-general of the Faith was sent to Noyon. The Parlement of Paris interfered and began prosecutions against the heretics. Then came a period of calm: the Maréchal de Montmorency tried to preserve a sort of neutrality between the Protestants and the Catholics. But neutrality cannot last long in civil wars; the Catholics triumphed completely in the end, and at the time of the death of Calvin (May 29, 1564), it may be said that his partisans had been completely vanquished by the partisans of the League, which now was beginning to organize itself. The chapter spoke of him as the Antichrist.

How can this total extinction of the Reformation in Noyon be explained? Persecution and force had done their work; moreover, the Catholic clergy of Noyon had fought with the greatest energy. The most aristocratic inhabitants were inclined to the new ideas, but the people had remained all along faithful to the old doctrines. Thirty years after the death of Calvin, Cardinal Alexander de Médicis passed by Noyon. He wished to see Calvin's house. It was shown to him. He then asked if there were any Protestants in the town; the answer was, "Not a single one." This was an exaggeration; but it is true that Catholicism had finally triumphed in the place where the greatest reformer was born.

SHELLEY WITH BYRON.

Este, August, 1888.

The little town of Este lies at the foot of the last of the Euganean Hills, just where they gradually subside into the plain, and from the little river which washes its side the Battaglia Canal carries the water to Padua. The villa called I Cappuccini, now belonging to the Künkler family, which Byron in the autumn of 1817 hired as a summer residence for two years from the English Consul-General Hoppner, who had then a lease of it, is just above the town on the hillside, immediately over the great ruins of the

old Castle of Este, the home of the ancestors of the Queen of England. It is a plain, square house, with commodious, airy rooms, in the midst of a large, pleasant garden full of trees and flowers and plots of grass, with a vineyard extending behind the house up the hillside. You are still shown the room which Byron habitually occupied, and the table on which he wrote; but the battlemented wall on the steepest side of the garden is so arranged and filled in as to form a high terrace, on which is a pavilion which tradition points out as the favorite resort both of Byron and of Shelley. The view extends far over "the waveless plain of Lombardy." From the top of the hill the view is wider and finer, for there you can look back into the Euganean Hills. "We see before us," Shelley wrote to Peacock, "the wide, flat plains of Lombardy, in which we see the sun and moon rise and set, and the evening star, and all the golden magnificence of autumnal clouds." This was the house which Byron lent to Shelley when the latter came on with Jane Clairmont, who had been seized with a sudden desire to see again her own and Byron's child, the little Allegra. Here the Shelleys spent, with the exception of visits to Venice, the months of September and October, 1818; and here Shelley, under the renewed influence of the excitement of Byron's talk, did some of his best work.

In looking over the manuscript diary of the Cavaliere Mengaldo, who was afterwards a General in the Revolution of 1849, I find that on September 21, 1818, he drove from Padua to Este to see Count Cicognara and other friends. He adds: "Visit Lord Byron's little girl. Embarrassment of the people who received me. Conversation awkward on both sides." And on the next day: "They tell me that the English family living in Lord Byron's house has suddenly gone away." Mengaldo probably drew some strange inferences; for at that time he did not know that Shelley's little Clara was very ill and had been taken to Venice in search of a doctor, but only to die. On the 24th, Mengaldo returned to Venice, and in the evening visited the Hoppners, where the Shelleys had just arrived. His journal says: "In the evening, sad presentiments while going to Mr. Hoppner's, which were verified by the death of the little girl of Mr. Schelling." On Monday, September 28, Mrs. Shelley's diary says: "Go with Mrs. Hoppner and Cavaliere Mengaldo to the library"; a statement curiously confirmed by Mengaldo, who on the same date wrote: "With Madame Hopner and Madame Scheling to the Ducal Palace to see the library [*livrerie*, he writes, in his odd French]. I am ashamed to know so little about all these rarities."

Shelley had not seen Byron for fully two years since they parted in Switzerland, and "really hardly knew him again; he is changed into the liveliest and happiest looking man I ever met." There had been, however, some correspondence about the little Allegra, and the task of negotiating an interview between mother and child, which Shelley had then undertaken, was not of the pleasantest nature. Byron's reception of Shelley was so warm and cordial that the latter at once surrendered himself to Byron's influence; and though at various times he tried to shake it off—especially when urged and badgered by the complaints and recriminations of Jane Clairmont, or Claire as it is easier to call her—it affected him at times very strongly throughout the remainder of his life. The first result was to excite Shelley's poetical faculty, which had been slumbering during these two years, or had exercised itself only on political themes and on trifles. "Julian and Maddalo," written in the summer-house at Este, reflects strongly the impressions left on Shelley by his first visit to Venice; for it gives idealized portraits both of himself and Byron, and a picture of their relations, as well as a charming sketch of the little Allegra, on account of which, in deference to her mother's feelings, he reluctantly withheld the poem from publication during his lifetime. The "Lines among the Euganean Hills" were written, the poet himself tells us, "after a day's excursion among those lovely mountains which surround what was once the retreat, and where is now the sepulchre, of Petrarch." The compliment paid to Byron is thought by Mr. Forman to be an afterthought; but the evidence does not seem very convincing, as that passage forms an integral part of the poem. The poetic faculty once awakened, Shelley was able to begin work on a subject which had for some time occupied his mind, the "Prometheus Unbound," of which he wrote the greater part of the first act at Este. The stimulus given by Byron lasted throughout the ensuing winter, and, in spite of the troubles which beset him at Naples, he was able to finish "Prometheus," and to write the "Cenci."

"It was one of the infirmities of Shelley's character," says Dowden, "that, from thinking the best of friend or acquaintance, he could, of a sudden and with insufficient cause, pass over to the other side and think the worst." As before, there had been a "violent outbreak of vituperation" about Miss Hitchener, as was a little later the case with the Gisbornes. Shelley, notwithstanding the pleasant intercourse at Venice, and the mutual services—for Mrs. Shelley had transcribed "Mazeppa" for publication—perhaps indignant with himself for being so easily influenced, when he had arrived at Naples, when he had listened again for two months to the complaints of Claire, and had been greatly worried by domestic troubles and by others, the nature of which we can only conjecture, burst out into an invective against Byron. There is no need to quote his letter to Peacock of December 22, 1818, where, after speaking harshly of Byron's mode of life, and feeling that for his sake he ought to hope that his present career must end soon "in some violent circumstance," yet admits Byron's greatness as a poet. It is very difficult, however, to see what he could mean after reading, as he had done, in the manuscript, the fourth canto of "Childe Harold," by saying: "The spirit in which it is written is, if insane, the most wicked and mischievous insanity that ever was given forth. It is a kind of obstinate and self-willed folly, in which he hardens himself." And yet this letter is relied upon as one of the testimonies to Byron's "depravation" in Venice! So much has the temper of the times changed that acts like those of Byron's would nowadays hardly be thought worthy of remark even in London.

Again, for three years, the two poets had no communication with each other except by letter, and then generally on the unpleasant subject of Claire and her wishes about Allegra. Meanwhile, Shelley's poetical faculty had again become blunted by domestic troubles, by financial straits, and by the interest which English politics excited in his mind. It was only when he could get away from home for long days in the pine woods about Pisa, in the mountains, or floating down the river in his boat, that he could write those short poems by which he is best remembered, the "Ode to the West Wind," the "Cloud," the "Skylark," the "Boat on the Serchio," and the "Letter to Maria Gisborne." In the "Indian Serenade" he has an interesting reminiscence of "Lalla Rookh" in the lines,

> "The champak odours fail
> Like sweet thoughts in a dream."

In the general bewilderment about this mysterious plant, it seems to be forgotten that it is more than once mentioned by Moore, who had crammed himself with several volumes of *Asiatic Researches* for the purpose of giving local color to his poem. The champak is a shrub or tree of the magnolia family—*Michelia Champaca* of Linneus—whose golden flowers are used for adorning the black hair of the Indian women, and are sometimes strewed on the temple floors; their odor is so strongly aromatic as to be thought offensive to bees, who do not frequent the plant. The sambac, which has so nearly the same name and is equally fragrant and beautiful, is a shrub of the jasmine family, and is not unfrequently cultivated in Europe. There used to be specimens of it in the Botanical Garden at Pisa.

But let us return to Byron. Miss Clairmont was constantly worrying herself and others about little Allegra. She had given up the child to Byron, in order that it might receive a better education and be better provided for. She knew that she could not herself support the girl, and that to ask the Shelleys to do so would be asking too much, as her presence would in the end have caused annoyance to every one. Claire besieged Byron with letters on the subject, asking for at least a visit from Allegra; protested against her staying "in unhealthy Venice," "with its stinking canals and dirty streets enough to kill any child," and when it was proposed to send her to a convent, as she had outgrown the servant's care, Claire protested still more. Byron refused to have any intercourse with her, and was evidently annoyed at Shelley's letters on the subject, although the latter professed not to know what was contained in the letters of Claire which he enclosed. There seemed to be an idea in this atheistical family that a conventual education rendered Italian women "licentious and ignorant, bad wives and unnatural mothers"; but after Shelley had discussed the matter calmly with his wife, he fully upheld Byron's decision as being in every way just and proper, and could not discover that he had acted in any way unworthily towards Allegra. There was, however, a reason for Byron's conduct which Shelley found out—apparently to his surprise—when, in August, 1821, at Byron's request, he visited him at Ravenna. Byron had heard that Claire had been living as Shelley's mistress, that a child had been born when they were in Naples in December, 1818, and had been sent to the foundling hospital; and therefore he did not consider Claire a proper person to have the care of the child—not only for its own sake, but also for that of his own reputation. This story had been told by some servants whom Shelley had dismissed, and as there seemed nothing intrinsically improbable in it, it was believed by both Byron and the Hoppners without difficulty. Miss Clairmont had already committed one fault; Shelley was very fond of her, and so much under her influence as to give his wife many pangs of jealousy, so that at last she could not have Claire in the same house with her; Claire had been ill some time in Naples, and a child had certainly been born there to some one and intrusted to Shelley's care. Shelley's moral character was really no better than Byron's; but one was a cynic, and the other a sentimentalist who perhaps did not always carry his feelings into action. Without going back to Shelley's former life, it is sufficient to study his relations to Emilia Viviani, to Jane Williams, and, indeed, to all the women whom he met frequently, or to read his poem, "Epipsychidion," which inculcates

the necessity of loving more than one woman in the interest of art and of the higher spiritual culture.* Nor did there seem to Byron and his friends anything particularly shocking in this accusation. Claire, though called Mrs. Shelley's sister, was in reality no relation at all, being her stepmother's child by a previous marriage.

Byron would have thought it absurd to be jealous of Shelley, and therefore wrote to him and invited him to Ravenna, and received him warmly. Mrs. Shelley, on hearing from her husband of this accusation, which he thought she only could "effectually rebut"—referring, apparently, to the charge of cruelty, as that about Claire he seemed to think only "a great error"—was very indignant, and wrote a long letter to Mrs. Hoppner, denying the whole story, which all are willing to accept for true so far as she was cognizant of the facts. This letter was sent to Shelley to be forwarded; he, however, gave it to Lord Byron, who engaged (he says) to send it with his own comments. The fact that this letter was found among Lord Byron's papers after his death is used by Shelley's biographers "to witness against the baseness of the man who thought to spare his own vanity at the cost of the honor of his friend." This, however, proves nothing of the kind. We do not know that what Byron said really amounted to a promise, for Mr. Dowden has shown over and over again that it is unsafe to trust literally to the statements either of the Shelleys or of Claire. Lord Byron may either have written to Hoppner on the matter, or have sent him a copy of the letter, reserving the original for his own use; or he may have intended to read the letter to Hoppner with comments, not knowing then that they would never meet again; or he may have taken the extremely sensible view that it was one of those subjects about which the less said the better.

As Byron had laughed at the story as absurd and ridiculous, Shelley soon thought no more about it, looked at the antiquities of Ravenna, though he could not interest himself in them as they were only Christian, rode with Byron in the pine forest, talked with him all night on poetry and politics, and generally adopted his mode of life during the ten days of his visit. It was a delight to him to have again some intellectual conversation, although they, "as usual, differed, and even more than ever." Shelley could not agree with Byron's system of criticism; thought that he recognized the pernicious effects of it in the "Doge of Venice," and said: "It will cramp and limit his future efforts, however great they may be, unless he gets rid of it." To Leigh Hunt he wrote: "Lord Byron—I suppose from modesty, on account of his being mentioned in it—did not say a word of 'Adonais,' though he was loud in his praise of 'Prometheus,' and, what you will not agree with him in, censure of the 'Cenci.' Certainly, if 'Marino Faliero' is a drama, the 'Cenci' is not—but that between ourselves." While Shelley, with great good judgment, thought Byron on the wrong road in following the lead of the French tragedians and Alfieri, he added, in a letter to Horace Smith: "But, genius-like, he is destined to lead and not to follow. He will shake off his shackles as he finds they cramp him. I believe he will produce something very great, and that familiarity with the dramatic power of human nature will soon enable him to soften down the severe and unharmonizing traits of his 'Marino Faliero.'" As for Byron's other poems, Shelley had nothing but unbounded admiration.

"He has read to me one of the unpublished cantos of 'Don Juan,' which is astonishingly fine. It sets him not only above, but far above, all the poets of the day; every word is stamped with immortality. I despair of rivalling Lord Byron, as well I may, and there is no other with whom it is worth contending. . . . There is not a word which the most rigid asserter of the dignity of human nature would desire to be cancelled. It fulfils, in a certain degree, what I have long preached of producing—something wholly new and relative to the age, and yet surpassingly beautiful. It may be vanity, but I think I see the trace of my earnest exhortations to him to create something entirely new."

Comparing himself to Byron always put Shelley into a despondent mood, and at this very time he said of himself:

"I write nothing, and probably shall write no more. It offends me to see my name classed among those who have no name. If I cannot be something better, I had rather be nothing. My motive was never the infirm desire of fame; and if I should continue an author, I feel that I should desire it. This cup is justly given to one only of an age—indeed, participation would make it worthless; and unfortunate they who seek it and find it not."

Renewed intercourse with Byron had immediately dispelled the black ideas which Shelley had formed of him during their separation, and he writes:

"Lord Byron is in excellent cue both of health and spirits. He has got rid of all those melancholy and degrading habits which he indulged at Venice. He lives with one woman, a lady of rank here, to whom he is attached and who is attached to him, and is in every respect an altered man." And again: "L. B. is greatly improved in every respect—in genius, in temper, in moral views, in health, in happiness. The connection with la Guiccioli has been an inestimable benefit to him. He lives in considerable splendor, but within his income. . . . He has had mischievous passions, but these he seems to have subdued, and he is becoming what he should be, a virtuous man. The interest which he took in the politics of Italy, and the actions he performed in consequence of it, are subjects not fit to be *written*, but are such as will delight and surprise you."

One of the reasons why Shelley had been invited to Ravenna was that he might try to dissuade the Countess Guiccioli from seeking refuge in Switzerland; as he, being independent in the question, and one who himself had suffered, could represent to her in forcible terms the straightlacedness, the petty gossip, and the unpleasantness of Swiss society, as well as the curiosity and even the malicious calumnies of the English residents and visitors. In this negotiation he succeeded, and Byron decided to try some place in Tuscany, which ultimately turned out to be Pisa. Nothing was positively decided at the time about the little Allegra, except that she was to be kept temporarily at Bagna Cavallo. Shelley went to see her at the convent, and convinced himself that the arrangement was in most respects a good one; that she was well, and kindly treated, and even petted, although he added: "Her intellect is not much cultivated. She knows certain *orazioni* by heart, and talks and dreams of *Paradiso* and all sorts of things, and has a prodigious list of saints, and is always talking of the Bambino. This will do her no harm, but the idea of bringing up so sweet a creature in the midst of such trash till sixteen!" The description of Allegra given in this letter is interesting to compare with the one of her at Venice three years before in "Julian and Maddalo."

Shelley was not without misgivings about Byron settling at Pisa, as he himself had had somewhat the idea of passing the winter at Florence. First of all, Claire must be got out of the way. She had indeed been already separated from the family, to appease Mrs. Shelley's jealousy; but she had to be kept out of the way to prevent any disagreeable scenes with Byron. Then there were personal questions, for Byron and Shelley differed too much in character and habits to make constant intimate intercourse always agreeable. Occasional separations are of use even to the best of friendships.

"We are excellent friends," Shelley had written to his wife from Ravenna, apropos of helping Leigh Hunt, "and were I reduced to poverty, or were I a writer who had no claims to a higher station than I possess, or did I possess higher than I deserve, we should appear in all things as such, and I would freely ask him any favor. Such is not the case. The demon of mistrust and pride lurks between two persons in our situation, poisoning the freedom of our intercourse. This is a tax, and a heavy one, which we must pay for being human. I think the fault is not on my side; nor is it likely, I being the weaker. I hope that in the next world these things will be better managed. What is passing in the heart of another rarely escapes the observation of one who is a strict anatomist of his own."

At the same time Shelley thought that Lord Byron's presence at Pisa would afford them a certain amount of security and protection which they might not have at Florence; and after they were all settled there—Byron in the Lanfranchi Palace, and the Shelleys and the Williamses in the Tre Palazzi just across the Arno—Shelley wrote to Peacock: "Lord Byron is established here, and we are constant companions. No small relief this, after the dreary solitude of the understanding and the imagination in which we passed the first years of our expatriation, yoked to all sorts of miseries and discomforts." Byron persuaded Shelley to see something more of society; and insisted on his weekly dinners, which Shelley attended, though he professed to be bored by them. He was made, too, to take more exercise; rode daily with Byron, and became almost his rival in pistol shooting, to the great advantage of his health. His cousin Medwin, on seeing him after an absence of some months, had found him an altered man: "His health had sensibly improved, and he had shaken off much of that melancholy and depression to which he had been subject during the last year." Shelley wrote to one friend about his tranquil life, his better health, and his lighter cares; and to another: "What think you of Lord Byron now? Space wondered less at the swift and fair creations of God, when he grew weary of vacancy, than I at the late works of this spirit of an angel in the mortal paradise of a decaying body. So I think—let the world envy, while it admires as it may." And again, with regard to Byron's latest volume: "In my opinion, it contains finer poetry than has appeared in England since the publication of 'Paradise Regained.' 'Cain' is apocalyptic: it is a revelation not before communicated to man." In urging Horace Smith to assure Moore that he had not the slightest influence over Byron on religious subjects, he says, "If I had, I certainly should employ it to eradicate from his great mind the delusions of Christianity, which, in spite of his reason, seem perpetually to recur, and to lay in ambush for the hours of sickness and distress. 'Cain' was *conceived* many years ago, and begun before I saw him last year at Ravenna. How happy should I not be to attribute to myself, however indirectly, any participation in that immortal work!"

Shelley's company and conversation were to Byron a solace, a resource, and an amusement. Each friend did good to the other; but the demon of mistrust came in again, in the persons

* One cannot help recalling a passage in George Sand's 'Valentine,' where Jacques says: "I have never worked on my imagination to light up or reanimate in myself a feeling which did not yet exist, or had come to an end. I have never imposed on myself consistency as a duty. When I have felt that love was dead, I have said so without shame or remorse, and *I have obeyed Providence who attracted me elsewhere.*"

of Leigh Hunt and of Jane Clairmont, especially just before and just after the death of Allegra. The perpetual money troubles of Hunt and his establishment in Pisa caused apprehensions of difficulty, which induced Shelley to write to him: "Particular circumstances, or rather, I should say, particular dispositions in Byron's character, render the close and exclusive intimacy with him in which I find myself intolerable to me." This was at the time when Claire had written another ill-advised and senseless letter to Byron about Allegra, and when Shelley and his wife had, almost in spite of themselves, taken up her quarrel. Mrs. Shelley, wishing for a "lone sea-girt isle," wrote to Mrs. Gisborne: "Shelley is entangled with Lord Byron, who is in a terrible fright lest he should desert him"; and to Claire: "You say great sacrifices will be required of us. I would make many to extricate all belonging to me from the hands of Lord Byron, whose hypocrisy and cruelty rouse one's soul from its depths. . . . To get a furnished house, we must go nearer Genoa, probably nearer Lord Byron, which is contrary to our most earnest wishes." Shelley about the same time wrote to Claire:

"It is of vital importance, both to me and to yourself, to Allegra even, that I should put a period to my intimacy with Lord Byron, and that without *éclat*. No sentiments of honor or justice restrain him (as I strongly suspect) from the basest insinuations, and the only mode in which I could effectually silence him, I am reluctant (even if I had proof) to employ during my father's life. But for your immediate feelings, I would suddenly and irrevocably leave the country which he inhabits, nor ever enter it but as an enemy to determine our differences *without words*. . . . I shall certainly take our house *far* from Lord Byron, although it may be impossible suddenly to put an end to his detested intimacy."

What Shelley feared was a duel, although in all probability none of his expressions were literally meant, as he wished only to produce a strong effect upon Claire, for he writes a few days later:

"Your late plan about Allegra seems to me in its present form pregnant with irremediable infamy to all the actors in it except yourself; in any form wherein *I* must actively coöperate, with inevitable destruction. . . . I *could not* refuse Lord Byron's challenge, though that, however to be deprecated, would be the least in the series of mischiefs consequent upon my . . . intervention in such a plan. I say this because I am shocked at the thoughtless violence of your designs, and I wish to put my sense of their madness in the strongest light."

Yet when all this was going on, and there was no need of thinking about Claire, Shelley could write that 'Sonnet to Byron' which must needs be quoted here:

"[I am afraid these verses will not please you, but]

If I esteemed you less, Envy would kill
Pleasure, and leave to Wonder and Despair
The ministration of the thoughts that fill
The mind which, like a worm whose life may share
A portion of the unapproachable.
Marks your creations rise as fast and fair
As perfect worlds at the Creator's will.
But such is my regard that nor your power
To soar above the heights where others [climb],
Nor fame, that shadow of the unborn hour
Cast from the envious future on the time,
Moves one regret for his unhonoured name
Who dares these words: the worm beneath the sod
May lift itself in homage of the god."

We all know what happened next. The Casa Magni, near Lerici, was hired for the summer. All that Byron could do was to perform the last sad offices to his friend on the seashore, near Viareggio. Claire could always console herself with the revengeful thought that she had embittered the last years of two great poets.

E. S.

Correspondence.

THE IMMIGRATION BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am aware that the *Nation* does not claim to have any great direct influence over the present House of Representatives, but I venture to believe that it is a powerful organ of that public opinion which, Prof. Bryce tells us, really governs the United States. I therefore ask you to allow me to appeal to your readers against certain provisions in the bill on immigration as reported by the Committee of the House of Representatives.

It is unsafe to rely upon telegraphic reports, but Reuter can hardly be mistaken in describing the bill as excluding, not only convicts and polygamists, but also "Anarchists, Socialists, and persons afflicted with any loathsome disease." It is, moreover, undeniable that if the bill is really thus expressed, it represents not unfairly the hasty desire of many specimens of the "average American."

The words "Anarchist" and "Socialist" are at present so unpopular in the United States as to be little better than vague terms of opprobrium. But even members of the House of Representatives might be expected to know that they are the avowed designations of thousands of reputable European political economists, historians, and students of sociology. The "acute outbreak of individualism, unchecked by the old restraints, and invested with almost a religious sanction by a certain soulless school of writers," from which Prof. Foxwell asserts England to be still suffering, may be considered in the United States to be the only possible basis of social organization; but socialism is daily accepted in Europe as the social creed of more and more competent observers.

Do the people of the United States really desire to exclude Socialists from "the land of liberty"? They would find the result a little unexpected. English political economists could seldom land in New York, for a large majority of them would be found to profess themselves Socialists. One who is perhaps our present leader, Prof. Marshall of Cambridge, has at various times publicly proclaimed himself a Socialist, and Cambridge turns out annually a good number of socialist-economic students. It was computed two years ago that out of thirteen courses of political economy being given in London, eight at least were being delivered by avowed Socialists. And would the United States have excluded John Stuart Mill, who proclaimed in his autobiography (pages 231-2) his emphatic adhesion to the Socialist views?

American students resort in annually increasing numbers to German universities. How many of their professors could they invite to visit them in the United States if this bill passes? It may safely be said that a good majority of German economic professors are Socialists of one type or another.

If "Anarchists" are to be excluded, you would shut out half-a-dozen men in the very first rank of European science. Does America not care to hear Élisée Reclus on Geography or Prince Kropotkine on Prison Reform? It is time that even Americans learned that "Anarchist" does not mean a worshipper of anarchy, but a believer in a particular tendency of social evolution, for which there is admittedly much to be said. Indeed, if you desire to keep the "land of liberty" free from Anarchists and Socialists, you will have to export some of your favorite citizens, beginning with one of your greatest novelists, and going on to one of your best economists.

Of course, it may be said that the law would not be enforced against such persons as I have mentioned; it is only the disagreeable class of immigrants whom it is desired to exclude. Whether it is expedient or fair to legislate only against the steerage passenger, may be open to question; but I desire to draw attention to the serious danger that such legislation would operate merely as an instrument of foreign tyranny. Any opponent of the system of the Czar is styled a Nihilist, and Prince Bismarck would be able to deny the "right of asylum" in America to any opponent whom he might denominate a Socialist.

For what is an "Anarchist" or a "Socialist"? Is the customs officer at Castle Garden to put test questions to the Bohemian and German immigrant, as, for instance, "Do you consider it just that the whole annual advantage of superior land (known as economic rent) should go for ever to the individual descendants of the first occupant of that land?" The exclusion of persons of lower standards of comfort is, no doubt, a legitimate economic corollary from Malthusianism, but any attempt to set up a new shibboleth in New York harbor *as to opinions* is not only unworthy of America, but practically impossible.

I am, etc.,

Sidney Webb,

Lecturer on Economics at the City of London College, England.

January 22, 1889.

[This seems a difference about names. All Anarchists of whom the United States have had any experience avowedly propose to reorganize society by violence, and the same thing may be said of the bulk of the European "Socialists" who come to this country. But we have already pointed out in the *Nation*, long ago, that any attempt to exclude either denomination by law would be futile, because they could not be recognized on landing. Anarchists and Socialists outwardly are not different from Conservatives, and they would only have to keep their opinions to themselves in order to be allowed to go where they pleased. Mr. Webb is unnecessarily alarmed.—Ed. Nation.]

SUGAR, TIN PLATE, AND TEA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the debate in the Senate on granting a bounty on sugar made in this country, the statement was made that Germany, France, and Austria had adopted this policy and found it of advantage. The sugar laws of France and Austria I have not at hand, but the German law, approved July 9, 1887, and taking effect August 1, 1888, is very different from the law proposed by the Senate.

Section 2 of that act provides that a tax of 0.80 marks per 100 kilograms shall be paid on the beets used, and section 6 that on every 100 kilograms of sugar, raw or refined, containing not less than 90, nor more than 98 per cent. of sugar, a rebate equivalent to the tax paid on the beets shall be allowed when the sugar is *exported*. This rebate is fixed by the act at 8.50 marks per 100 kilograms. For the season of 1886-'87, the latest figures at hand, 843 kilograms of beets produced on an average 100 kilograms of raw sugar; the tax on the beets, therefore, was 6.75 marks, making a bounty for export, and for export only, of 1.75 marks per 100 kilograms—say $\frac{2}{10}$ of a cent a pound, as

against the Senate proposition to pay the manufacturers 1 cent a pound on all sugar made in this country. The other taxes laid by this law are, on sugar imported, 30 marks per 100 kilograms, and on domestic beet sugar 12 marks per 100 kilograms when entered for domestic consumption.

In discussing the duty on tin plates it was admitted that there are no manufacturers of tin plates in the country to be protected, and that the consumer must pay the enhanced price caused by raising the duty; but, continued the high-tariff members, this increase in duty will cause the establishment of tin-plate factories, and the competition that will result will in the end reduce the price to the consumer.

Following the logic of this argument, I want to put in a plea for a duty on tea sufficiently high to start the business on a firm basis, when domestic competition will reduce the price below the present, and the large amount of money or goods we now pay to China and Japan will be kept at home. As evidence that, even without a duty to help it, tea culture is still in advance of the tin-plate business, I quote the following from the monthly report of the Department of Agriculture of South Carolina for July, 1888:

BUCKVILLE, S. C.

Col. A. P. Butler, Columbus, S. C.

DEAR SIR: I will mail you a sample of tea grown and made by myself here on my farm. I have at least 100 plants four to six feet in diameter and height. Have made all the tea used by my family for years, besides giving away many samples each year. I have no trouble growing the plants. Seldom have one die in transplanting. Obtained seed from United States Government six or seven years ago. This spring made eighteen pounds dry tea at one picking. All who have tasted it speak in highest terms of its flavor, and can and do make two drawings from same leaves, the second drawing about equal to that of first of store tea. I am satisfied that Commissioner Le Duc was correct, and that tea can be made a profitable article of growth in our dear old State, where it only requires proper soil and care. I have given mine comparatively little care, indeed. But the soil required is a deep light loam. I have over 100 acres of such. I am satisfied from my trial will make as good tea, I think, as can be grown in China. Yours truly, B. L. BEATY.

If, then, a part of the business of the United States Government is to build up home products and home markets, let us have a duty on tea. W. S. A.

BOSTON, January 29, 1889.

THE *INDEPENDENT'S* "REVERSION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the most curious developments of protectionism is the theory, propounded by the *Independent*, that no doctrine may honorably be taught in a public institution unless the practical application of that doctrine be allowable under present laws. Of course, no man who has any respect for the necessary laws of thought can stop here. Almost all colleges receive the aid of the State in the remission of taxation; and hence, any one of them which teaches free-trade doctrines is guilty of base ingratitude and dishonesty, so long as freedom of trade is not possible under our laws. But we must go still further. Every individual receives the inestimable benefits of Government in the preservation of his right to life, liberty, and so much of his property as certain classes of protected manufacturers can do without. The conclusion is self-evident: no man can honorably attack the present tariff laws until after they shall have been repealed. But how shall the *Independent* effect its own escape from the pit which it has digged for the unhappy free-trader? Has not its able voice been lifted up against an 85-cent dollar? Its editor is surely aware that the coinage of this dollar is required by law, and that no college professor, editor, or private individual can, by its own logic, honorably advocate any other so long as this law shall remain.

Perhaps, however, it is not fair to call up the checkered past of this able journal. This new principle which it has enunciated may be the beginning of a new era, in which the infallibility of the Republican Machine will be consistently maintained. We say "new principle" only with reference to the present era of enlightened civilization. The readers of the *Nation* are well enough acquainted with the history of the Bourbons to recognize the fact that we have in this vagary of the *Independent* only an extreme case of what the science of heredity calls "reversion." W.

A KANSAS JOKER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial regarding the anti-British resolution introduced into the Kansas Legislature by Mr. Poe does that body, and possibly Mr. Poe, a great injustice. The resolution was introduced, but not adopted, much less "unanimously adopted." On the contrary, it has been the occasion for much merriment with the members; and some of them begin to think that Mr. Poe, who is represented to be a sane person in most respects, has been making game of them and laughing in his sleeve at their discussions.

However, Mr. Poe may be in earnest. Not many years ago a member of the House objected to an appropriation for increasing the library of the State University. "What do they want of more books?" said he. "I don't believe there's a man in the institution who has read all the books they now have." Another member objected to the increase of the Faculty, declaring that they had in his county a man and his wife who could teach "the whole lot" of the students.

But these are merely amusing phenomena—not representative of the Kansas Legislature, any more than Henry James's specimens are representative of American womanhood. If any one wishes to get a fairer notion of the real quality of that body, let him consider at Lawrence the noble beginning it has made for a great university. In addition to the splendid material "plant" characteristic of the West, there are two hundred and fifty legitimate college students, a Faculty of thirty, containing men from Berlin, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Yale, Williams, and Dartmouth, and from which, within five years, Princeton, Harvard, Cornell, and Williams have drawn professors; and collections of great value—those in certain lines of natural history unexcelled in America.

Senator Moody has introduced a bill, which has been favorably reported, providing for a government of the University more like that of Ann Arbor, and which will remove the institution from danger of attack by Anglophobists or the others above mentioned.

Very respectfully,
W. H. CARRUTH.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

BALLOT REFORM IN CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The ballot-reform wave has reached California, and we hope to adopt the Australian system as adapted in the Saxton bill of last year, with certain amendments. The Young Men's Democratic League, a tariff-reform organization, has been active in the matter, and has been working on a bill already introduced before our Legislature by the Federated Trades Organizations. During our discussions some new ideas have been suggested. One, which has been adopted, is to have the ballot-paper water-marked with a design to be changed at each election, and to be kept secret until election-day. The ballot is to be so folded that the water-mark shall appear on the outside. This was preferred to the plan of endorsing by initials, because the latter are so easily counterfeited. Another plan was to have adhesive stamps, to be prepared by the Secretary of State, with the same provisions as to change and secrecy. One of these stamps was to be affixed to each ballot before being given to the voter. A third proposal was to number the ballots and stubs consecutively, the number on the ballot to be surrounded by a perforated line, in order that it might be separated from the ballot just before the latter was placed in the ballot-box. We have good reason to hope that the bill will become a law at this session of the Legislature. F. I. V.

SAN FRANCISCO, January 23, 1889.

THE ELECTORAL VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since the election of President, either by the direct vote of the people or by the vote of Congressional districts, seems objectionable, a third method may be worth consideration.

Let each State, as at present, have a certain number of electoral votes; but let these votes be divided among the candidates for President in proportion to the popular vote for each. To illustrate: Indiana has 15 electoral votes. At the recent election the State cast 536,949 votes, or 35,796 to each electoral vote. The votes were distributed as follows: Harrison, 263,361; Cleveland, 261,013; Fisk, 9,881; Streeter, 2,694. It is obvious that Harrison is entitled to 8 of the electoral votes, Cleveland to 7.

An examination of the entire vote cast in November shows that, if this method had been employed, Cleveland would have received 205 electoral votes; Harrison, 188; Fisk, 5; Streeter, 3. This result, of course, represents the vote of the whole country much more accurately than the method in use. (If the 401 electoral votes were divided among the candidates in exact proportion to the entire vote for each, they would stand, Cleveland, 195; Harrison, 192; Fisk, 9; Streeter, 5.)

If this method were to be adopted, the machinery of the Electoral College might be abolished. The executive authority of each State, instead of issuing certificates to the electors chosen, would send to Washington a certificate to the effect that the State had cast so many electoral votes for such candidates. If, however, it were thought best to retain the electors, the requisite number of each party could be appointed, either by naming those having the most votes (there is always some scratching of electors) or by taking the names from the head of the several tickets—as is done in the simplest form of proportional representation, the "free list."

It is true that this method is to some extent open to one objection raised against election by direct vote—that the result would not be reached so promptly as by the present method. But the delay, even if considerable, would not be excessive; and it would be a small price to pay for a result which should remove the injustice of the present method. C. P. W.

DRESDEN, January 22, 1889.

BENJAMIN WEST OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your paper of January 17, and the account of Mr. Walker's book 'A History of the New Hampshire Convention,' etc., I find the following:

"Mr. Walker might have given a dash of 'local color' to his narrative if, in referring to John Langdon and Nicholas Gilman as the delegates of New Hampshire in the Federal Convention, he had explained the reason of their late attendance and why they were not joined by their colleagues, John Pickering and Benjamin West. Mr. Madison tells us in one of his letters that it was not owing to any backwardness on the part of the State to be represented at Philadelphia, but because 'the State Treasury was empty' and the substitution of private resources was found inexpedient or impracticable."

This, as far as my great-uncle Benjamin West (Lawyer West, as he was usually called) is concerned is a mistake. His brother, my great-grandfather, the Rev. Samuel West of Hollis Street Church in Boston, left a manuscript record of the West family which lies before me, and I copy this reference to his brother:

"As evidence of his not coveting but even feeling an aversion to publick office, it is sufficient to mention the numerous appointments which he has received from the State to which he belongs, and his uniform refusal to accept them. He was chosen a member of Congress under the old or first Confederation, a member of the Convention which formed the present Constitution, and of the State Convention which ratified that Constitution, and of the first Congress after it was put into operation; he was appointed Attorney General and Judge of Probate, all which, against in many instances the urgent intreaties of his friends, and so as sometimes to excite their resentment at his obstinacy, he resolutely declined. This can be accounted for on no other principle than his extreme aversion to publick life and equal fondness for domestic peace, the enjoyment of which appears to have been his first object through every stage of life."

I have only to add that members of the family to-day regret as deeply as did the relations and friends of his own day, that Mr. West did not take a different view of his public duties. L. W. R.

Millbury, Mass., January 28, 1889.

[In cheerfully giving a place to the foregoing communication, we beg leave to say that our statement on the point in question was expressly limited by the authority given for it—"Mr. Madison, in one of his letters." Writing to Jefferson on the 6th of June, 1787, three weeks after the date fixed for the assembling of the Federal Convention in Philadelphia, he said: "New Hampshire has appointed deputies, but they are not expected, the State Treasury being empty, it is said, and a substitution of private resources being inconvenient or impracticable. I mention this circumstance to take off the appearance of backwardness, which that State is not in the least chargeable with, if we are rightly informed of her disposition" (Madison's Works, vol. i, p. 331). Mr. Fiske mentions that John Pickering and Benjamin West were "appointed as delegates, but never took their seats." He does not seem to have known that Mr. West "refused" the appointment, and we were not ourselves aware of the fact until advised of it by our correspondent.—Ed. Nation.]

MARRIAGES AMONG THE FRENCH POOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your interesting remarks on the rarity of marriage among the French poor lead me to ask two questions: (1.) Are the unions they form, as a rule, permanent, and are the rights and interests of children at all respected, or is it practically a system of free love? (2.) Do you mean, as you seem to suggest, that property is a prerequisite to marriage, as, in fact, it so often is to (Protestant) church membership?

Respectfully, W. M. S.

January 29, 1889.

[It would be impossible to answer the first question with any approach to accuracy. (1.) As far as we can learn, the unions are as permanent and the rights of children as much respected as among the corresponding social class in any European country. (2.) We mean that legal marriage is in France a somewhat expensive and complicated form, with which a poor couple dispense easily in order to save the money, finding that an illegal union does not lower them in the eyes of their friends and neighbors.—Ed. Nation.]

SHAKESPEARIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 17th, you speak of a new magazine as "an offshoot of *Shakespeariana*, or even its heir." We beg to inform you that *Shakespeariana* is now in its sixth year, a longer period than any yet reached by any Shaksperian journal, and that at no time have we even considered its discontinuance.

The magazine to which you refer has no connection with us, and we trust that you will correct the impression you have made that *Shakespeariana* has been discontinued.

Yours very truly,

Leonard Scott Publication Co.

New York, 29 Park Row, January 29, 1889.

Notes.

Three hundred years ago (winter of 1588-89) Christopher Marlowe's "Dr. Faustus" and probably his "Tamburlaine" were first produced upon the stage, and this anniversary has given an impetus to the desire of his admirers to raise a monument to the "creator of English drama in all its principal branches." A work in sculpture is contemplated, of such size and rarity as the fund raised will warrant; and Canterbury, the poet's birthplace, has officially laid claim to the memorial, which will accordingly be set up there. Lord Coleridge is the chairman of the committee having the matter in charge, with Tennyson, Browning, Swinburne, Leslie Stephen, J. A. Symonds, and other lights of poesy and letters for his colleagues. Prof. F. J. Child of Harvard, Mr. J. R. Lowell, and Mr. Horace Howard Furness of Philadelphia, are named as of the "American Committee," concerning which we have no other particulars.

Something will no doubt be added to the Marlowe fund from this country. To the Darwin fund which resulted in the statue by Boehm, now in the Central Hall of the Museum of Natural History at South Kensington, in a bronze medallion for Westminster Abbey, and in a residue of some $13,000, now held in trust by the Royal Society to promote biological studies and research, the United States contributed about $675, the largest sum from any foreign country save Sweden, which gave about $1,900. The final report of the Darwin Memorial Fund has just been published.

It has been proposed by the Society for the Publication of Old Norse Literature (*Samfundet til Udgivelse af gammel nordisk Litteratur*) in Copenhagen to publish in phototype reproduction the parchment MS. of the Older Edda. The Danish Ministry has recommended the sum of 4,500 kroner (about $1,600) for this purpose, and it is likely that the work will be commenced this year. The MS. is at present lodged in the Royal Library at Copenhagen, and as the building is not fire-proof, it is of special importance that a facsimile of this priceless work be secured as soon as possible. Only a few years ago, at the burning of Christiansborg, the Royal Library had a very narrow escape from total destruction. The importance of this codex, certainly the most valuable diplomatic treasure in Denmark, need scarcely be commented upon, but it may be of interest to note that this is the only old parchment copy of Saemund's Edda in existence, and that on it all modern editions of the poems have been based. The publication of this monument is an enterprise that appeals not alone to Scandinavians, but to all Germanic peoples that preserve any feeling of reverence for the old religion of their race. Students of language and religion in Europe and America will welcome the appearance of this great work, and the Society is to be heartily congratulated on its scholarly and patriotic attempt.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have in press 'French Traits,' by W. C. Brownell, a collection of essays some of which have appeared in print in the magazines; and the second volume of the Rev. Marvin R. Vincent's 'Word Studies in the New Testament.'

M. Henri Doniol's 'Histoire de la Participation de la France à l'Établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique,' with which we have recently made our readers acquainted, is to be translated by Miss Ruth Putnam and Mr. Alexander Arbuthnot, and published (probably in a limited edition) by G. P. Putnam's Sons. They also announce as in press a work by Theodore Roosevelt, on the early history of our Western territory, entitled 'The Winning of the West and Southwest, from the Alleghenies to the Mississippi,' in two volumes, the first of which will cover the period 1769-1783, or to the close of the Revolution.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, will shortly issue a volume of 'Essays, Religious, Social, Political,' by the late David Atwood Wasson. It will include an autobiographic sketch, and a biography of Mr. Wasson by his friend O. B. Frothingham.

There are some books of which it is only necessary to mention their appearance in print to insure a demand for them. Such is the timely work, by Mr. John H. Wigmore of the Boston bar, on 'The Australian Ballot System as Embodied in the Legislation of Various Countries' (Boston: Charles C. Soule). It is seldom that what we may call the contagiousness of our Federal system is manifested as it has been since November last, in the direction of ballot reform, one State following the lead of another with an almost unanimous rapidity. Mr. Wigmore provides an historical sketch of the Australian ballot, and then appends the needful text of statutes in South Australia, Queensland, Great Britain and Ireland, Belgium, Massachusetts, Kentucky, New York; with summaries of those of the Dominion of Canada, Quebec, Tasmania, New Zealand, Victoria, New South Wales, and West Australia—all this with

notes, model ballots, even diagrams. Moreover, Mr. Wigmore invites the sending to him of copies of drafts of bills as soon as introduced, and of laws as soon as enacted, or any pertinent information which may perfect subsequent editions of his work.

Mr. A. Patchett Martin's 'Australia and the Empire' (Edinburgh: David Douglas) is a disappointing book. There is no country which, in its main lines of political development, so closely resembles our own as Australia, while the rate of its development has been still more rapid than our own. Its history is full of most instructive comparisons, and its present problems are almost the same as those with which we are confronted. We need only refer to the system of recording titles to real estate and to the Ballot Act to show that we may receive valuable suggestions from this quarter; but we are obliged to say that nothing of the kind is to be derived from this book. It is singularly aimless and futile. It does not indicate what the relations of Australia to the Empire have been, are, or ought to be; and it appears to have been written merely to allow the writer to relieve himself of a quantity of miscellaneous reflections of the most pointless character. We may dimly discern that the presence of the Irish in the Australian colonies raises difficulties concerning government, education, and religion of a kind with which we are familiar; but this discovery is of little service to us. Possibly Australian readers may find somewhat of interest in these pages; we do not see how they can profit the inhabitants of any other quarter of the globe.

Mr. Albert Shaw has taken the pains to make "a collection of papers by American economists" and issue it under the title of 'The National Revenues' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). We are tempted to make the old distinction between an economist and a professor of economics, for the professors, it must be admitted, do not shine in this collection. With the exception of three or four of the papers, the writing and the reasoning are both feeble and confused, and the assumption of *ex-cathedra* airs by men of obviously limited capacity and knowledge produces an effect that is both ludicrous and painful, and is only intensified by their attempts to make up for weakness of argument by appeals to one another's authority. Nor can we attach much value to Mr. Shaw's efforts at critical exposition.

Of a very different character is Mr. John Watts Kearny's 'Sketch of American Finances, 1789-1835,' published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. It is a very careful and scholarly account of the nature of the indebtedness incurred during the Revolution, the manner in which it was funded, and the successive measures by which the payment of the interest and the principal was secured. The causes which affected the debt, its increase and decrease, and eventual discharge, are enumerated, but, in our judgment, are not sufficiently explained. The author's materials are too valuable to be wasted upon a mere sketch of this kind, which is so condensed as to be hard reading, and we are inclined to think that he would do well to expand his work to three times its present size, and, indeed, to continue it down to recent times. There is room for a really good financial history of our Government, and the measures adopted during the civil war have never been made to yield the instruction of which they are full.

'The Stock Exchanges of London, Paris, and New York,' by George Rutledge Gibson (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is a comparative account of the methods of dealing in stocks and bonds in the three great markets of the world. It is written in a pleasant enough style, but is too superficial to be instructive and too general to be entertaining. Many works on these subjects have appeared, and we do not understand the necessity of making this addition to their number.

'Leaders Upward and Onward' (Thos. Whittaker) consists of twelve brief biographies of noted English and Scotch clergymen, all of whom, with two or three exceptions, were of the Broad Church school. It is edited by Henry C. Ewart, who contributes the chapters on F. D. Maurice and Dr. Arnold. The writing throughout is admirable, and by persons evidently in full sympathy with and considerable personal knowledge of their subjects. Especially interesting are the portraits of Dean Stanley by Prof. R. H. Story, of Bishop Fraser of Manchester by Mary Harrison, and the appreciative sketch of Archbishop Tait by his suffragan, Dr. Parry, the Bishop of Dover. Scarcely less stimulating are the accounts of the Scotch contingent, Edward Irving, Norman Macleod, Thomas Guthrie, and Principal Tulloch. A better representative of the English dissenting ministers, however, could surely have been found than John Curwen, the apostle of the Tonic Sol-fa method of teaching music. His work, though doubtless important, was on a decidedly lower plane than that of the others.

A 'Discourse in Memory of William Hague, D.D.,' by the Rev. Dr. S. F. Smith, comes to us from Boston (Lee & Shepard), with a good likeness on steel of this well-known Baptist clergyman.

'Topics and References in English History, 1066–1689,' arranged for freshmen class-work in Carleton College (Northfield, Minn.), by Prof. C. H. Cooper, will be found a very useful guide for the work of classes in this study. Some of the topics seem to us to be rather above the level of freshmen classes, which will find their most profitable work in a clear general outline, rather than in constitutional and ecclesiastical relations. If the number of lessons was to be limited to thirty, we would have omitted some of the topics here given, and brought the lessons down to the present time; for, after all, it is the most recent history that—with the exception of certain important epochs—is of the most value. We should have been glad to see appended to each lesson one really good historical novel. The only ones given are 'Unknown to Fame,' 'Kenilworth,' 'Westward Ho,' and 'John Inglesant'; besides these, Shakspere's historical plays are named.

Mr. John Ashton finds a fresh title for every new publication of his, but one always knows how he is going to spread his table. His 'Men, Maidens and Manners a Hundred Years Ago' (Scribner & Welford) is a smaller antiquarian venture than its predecessors, but it is, like them, the product of scissors and paste—a patchwork of clippings from old newspapers with a semblance of weaving into a general pattern, and illustrated by copies of contemporary caricature and other designs. The year 1787 is the one under review, and is treated in monthly order. The book is amusing and, in a way, instructive reading.

American centennial publications—centennial in both the narrow and the broad sense—abound. Mr. Worthington C. Ford has privately printed the 'Letters of Joseph Jones of Virginia, 1777-1787' (Washington). Judge Jones was a Virginian of no little prominence and local influence in the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary period. Madison was one of his chief correspondents, and most of the series here printed were to that statesman. Mr. Ford has added a few others from the archives of the Department of State, and some from Washington and Madison to Jones; and has furnished occasional explanatory notes. The collection is very interesting, but we can say no more of it at this time.

The Legislature of Connecticut has published a pamphlet 'History of the Equestrian Statue of Israel Putnam at Brooklyn, Conn.,' with illustrations. It is a very imperfect history, for it praises the public-spirited citizen who determined the present site of the statue on the main street of the village, where it is alike killing to and killed by its surroundings, monumental and bucolic. A sadder destruction of the character of a country town famous for its beauty and for its historic associations, we have seldom seen, amid all the shocking examples of "soldiers' monuments" in every direction.

'A Vindication of Gen. Samuel Holden Parsons against the Charge of Treasonable Correspondence during the Revolutionary War,' by Dr. George B. Loring, has been reprinted from the *Magazine of American History* of October, 1888 (Salem, Mass.). The accusation was conveyed in "Sir Henry Clinton's Original Secret Record of Private Daily Intelligence," which first saw the light in the same magazine.

We should have mentioned long ere this a scholarly paper on the "Land Politics of the United States," by President Welling of the Columbian University, Washington, delivered in May last before the New York Historical Society, and by it published. It begins with the disputes of the colonies over the western extension of their territory or territorial claims, and comes down through the settlement of them to the acquisition of Louisiana, the Missouri Compromise, the Mexican War, and Kansas.

A valuable reprint from the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History and Biography* is Dr. Charles J. Stillé's 'Life and Services of Joel R. Poinsett,' the confidential agent of President Jackson in South Carolina during the nullification troubles of 1832. Mr. Poinsett was a great traveller in his day, and we have some entertaining views of foreign parts in his letters, especially in Russia. He saw at Baku "the sources of Naptha which are within fifteen miles, . . . and constitute its chief branch of commerce."

A life well worth commemorating is described in papers read before the Rhode Island Historical Society by its President, William Gammell, and by President Robinson of Brown University ('Life and Services of Rowland Gibson Hazard, LL.D.' Providence). The late Mr. Hazard was one of the best types known to this generation of the New England character—a successful manufacturer, a philanthropist, an idealist, a weighty writer on finance and on philosophic subjects. Vols. iii and iv of his published works are 'Two Letters on Causation and Freedom in Willing,' addressed to John Stuart Mill; and 'Economics and Politics.' Mr. Hazard's patriotic services during the Rebellion, his aversion to slavery, and his powerful argument as a mill-owner against our monstrous tariff, hardly need to be recalled now, but should never be forgotten.

Another curiosity in periodical literature launched this year is the *Magazine of Poetry*, an illustrated quarterly review published at Buffalo by Charles Wells Moulton. It is a strange medley of talent and mediocrity, but to somebody the biographical data and the portraits will prove acceptable, and more or less of the poetry, according to taste.

The *Cosmopolitan Magazine* is taking a fresh start, and the February number is a decided advance on former issues. Mr. M. D. Conway's "American Nobleman at Mt. Vernon" exhibits Washington in the light of com-

mon day, with the aid of many interesting illustrations. We may also mention Mr. Frank G. Carpenter's "The Koreans at Home," with many cuts; V. Gribayedoff's paper on Verestchagin, with many reproductions of his canvases; Thomas Stevens's "A Visit to Holy Meshid"; David Ker's "Over the Cossack Steppes," etc., etc. Mr. Edward Everett Hale takes charge of the Department of Social Problems.

From F. W. Christern we receive the December number of the *Illustrated Italian Magazine*, which is published in Rome. It can hardly pretend to rival pictorially the *Illustrazione Italiana* of Milan, and it lacks the attractiveness of being in a foreign tongue.

We are requested to state that Prof. Wm. A. Keener, of the Harvard Law School, succeeds Prof. Thayer as General Secretary in America of the Selden Society; and that Mr. John W. Houston, 346 Broadway, as Local Secretary in New York city, succeeds Mr. Alexander Tison, who has accepted an appointment as Professor of Law at Tokio, Japan.

—If there were any doubt that ballot-reform had come to be a question of great interest to the people, it would be dispelled by the appearance of a discussion of it in that home of timely articles, the *Century*, and by that writer who has the knack of knowing what the people are thinking about as do few of his cloth, Dr. Washington Gladden. There is nothing particularly new in his "Safeguards of the Suffrage," but he puts with great force the truths which most thoughtful men will admit, and no better messenger than the *Century* could be found to carry his words throughout the land. The more striking parts of the Lincoln biography, as it progresses in the February number, have already been given to the public, and serve anew to show on what large lines the Illinois country lawyer was laid out. The "Romance of Dollard" comes to a right tragic end, as it needs must in fidelity to the history it follows. The completion of the story gives occasion to renew the commendation with which its opening was greeted; it is altogether a piece of strong and fine work. We are glad, remembering our adverse comment on the first of the series, to say that the third of Mr. Jessop's stories of Irish life in California seems to us very successful and pleasing. Art is represented in this issue by an affectionate study of Gérôme, with several illustrations from his works, and the short paper, in the Italian series, on Simone Memmi, with two of Mr. Cole's full-page engravings. Practical affairs receive attention in Edward Atkinson's article on "Slow-Burning Construction," which will bring to many a great deal of information about the development of New England factory-buildings. "The Revival of Hand Spinning and Weaving in Westmoreland" hints at the practical, too, but really reveals mainly an experiment in a Ruskin-born fancy and in a cumbrous benevolence.

—Volumes 5 and 6 of Stedman and Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature' (Chas. L. Webster & Co.) form the second and third parts respectively of the "Literature of the Republic." Channing leads off, and the selections from this writer exemplify at its best the discrimination of the editors. A burning question of the present day probably determined them to make their one selection from Henry C. Carey his argument against international copyright. Criticism of a whole class of text-books is involved in a passage from Charles Follen: "As soon as the historian of a nation ceases to think that posterity will be benefited by the knowledge of the faults, as well as the merits, of their ancestors; or, rather, as soon as he has any other object in view than to represent them as they actually were, whether deserving of censure or imitation, he forfeits his right to describe them." It is because they have been mindful of this that Mr. Stedman and Miss Hutchinson have given so large a place to the gravest of all faults in the founding of the Republic. In these two volumes we meet with Benton's bathetic account of the "high-toned duel" between Clay and Randolph; Beverly Tucker's 'Partisan Leader,' a foreshadowing of secession; Garrison's Declaration of Sentiments and other landmarks; Pierpont's "Fugitive Slave's Apostrophe to the North Star"; Mrs. Child's 'Chloe'; Channing's letter to Jonathan Phillips; Seward's speeches on the higher law and the irrepressible conflict; William Leggett's editorial defence of "ultimate abolition" against Southern threats of disunion; George Fitzhugh's 'Cannibals All'; Whittier's "Ichabod"; John Brown's address to the court that condemned him; Jeff Davis's speech on withdrawing from the United States Senate, and his first inaugural; Toombs's five stipulations of the South as the alternative of disunion; and Lincoln's Cooper Union address of 1860, first and second inaugurals, emancipation proclamation, and speech at Gettysburg. More on this topic might have been borrowed from Horace Mann, Palfrey, Richard Hildreth (his 'Archy Moore' combining imaginative with historical excellence), and Edmund Quincy, whose satirical anti-slavery side has been altogether overlooked.

—The purely literary aspect and entertainment of this instalment are to be sought in authors like Bryant, Cooper, J. P. Kennedy, Halleck, N. P. Willis, Emerson, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, and Poe—the last five being very copiously represented. Robert Dale Owen's 'Footfalls,' Josiah Quincy's 'Figures of the Past,' the leading historical works of Irving, Mrs. Kemble's 'Records of a Girlhood,' Audubon's 'Ornithological Biography,' etc., contribute further to the general readableness. We remark again the laudable practice of forming a national portrait gallery by competent hands, as, Benton on Jackson, C. J. Ingersoll on Jefferson, Ticknor on Prescott, Everett and Seward on J. Q. Adams, Choate on Webster (with one breathless sentence two and a half pages long), Longfellow's verse to Hawthorne, Alcott's sonnets of character, etc. Finally, a classic in temperance literature, Dr. Cheever's "Deacon Giles's Distillery," has been preferred, perhaps wisely, to his anti-slavery thunders.

—A friend writes to us:

"By the way, the writer of the interesting summary of Döllinger's address on American Literature, by some misunderstanding, makes him say: 'Appleton's Biographical Dictionary devotes a section to inventors, as we elsewhere might to soldiers or to lords.' What Döllinger really said, and was perfectly correct in saying it, was, according to the report of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, that in Appleton's dictionary the epithet inventor is applied to a number of persons as a designation of their profession or occupation."

—A work on 'Eminent Domain,' by Mr. John Lewis of Chicago, recently published, contains a reference to six thousand cases in this country in which private property has been taken for public use. This list contains perhaps all, or nearly all, the cases decided. Inasmuch as they are, as the author says, an indication of material progress and of public improvements, they make the subject of an interesting commentary. New York heads the list with 830 cases; Massachusetts, the next highest, claims 599. Among the Western States, Illinois takes first rank, showing 377, followed closely by Indiana with 366. Of the Southern States proper, Louisiana takes the lead, though Georgia, showing 87 cases to her 98, may be allowed, nevertheless, to insist upon being the "Empire State of the South," seeing that the reports of these cases extend back at least fifteen years further in Louisiana than in Georgia. Though one of the oldest States, Georgia had no Supreme Court, and consequently no "Reports" (if we except one or two containing a collection of decisions in the Superior Courts of the State) until 1845 or 1846, whereas Louisiana, though much her junior as a State, had at that time already issued many volumes of decisions pronounced by the highest court of the State. Last of all comes Florida, with only six cases—one-half as many as the new State of Nevada.

—While not devoid of its usual general instructiveness, the annual report of the President of Harvard University for 1887-88 raises no important question, and furnishes few topics of discussion. Even the vista of a definitive policy in regard to intercollegiate athletic contests, half opened last year, is closed. If everything in this regard is not quite for the best in the best of worlds, the "general utility" of these contests has been "demonstrated" since the last report. They do indeed intensify "many excesses and evils connected with athletic sports," but the Faculty are comforted by the improvement in the physical condition of the average student, and "they hold that dyspepsia is less tolerable than a stiffened knee or thumb, and that effeminacy and luxury are even worse evils than brutality." Holders of scholarships hereafter must manifest, not athletic distinction, but such a bodily condition as will satisfy the Director of the Gymnasium that they observe the laws of health and are likely to keep down the death-rate of the beneficiaries, which is now one-quarter of one per cent. too high. The gifts to the University last year amounted to some $300,000, of which the larger half was the bequest of the late Mrs. Ellen Gurney, or, as President Eliot points out, jointly hers and her husband's, the late Professor Gurney. It is for the support of higher instruction in history, political science, and literature, in a comprehensive sense, with a view to the promotion of original work. Women have been among the contributors to the new building for a Botanic Museum—in fact, were a majority of all, and some of the larger donors. A former beneficiary of the Divinity School has given back with interest the amount received by him, and it is remarked that this sort of restitution has been more conspicuous in the case of the Divinity School than of any other department of the University. The School is now prosperous, and turns out graduates for whom there is "an active demand" and "immediate employment." Mr. Alexander Agassiz gives notice of his intention ere long to withdraw from the active charge of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, which owes so much to his munificence and executive capacity, and which will be left enormously enlarged and self-supporting. Mr. Agassiz desires to be free to devote himself to scientific investigation. On the whole, the University in all its departments seems to have been exceptionally flourishing during the past year.

— The most interesting thing in the seven volumes of the new Weimar edition of Goethe thus far published is a hitherto unprinted fragmentary sketch of the original plan of the Second Part of "Faust." The find consists of half-a-dozen pages of manuscript, defective both at the beginning and at the end, and

covering in print pages 173–177 of the second division of volume 15. The sketch is mentioned by Eckermann, under date of August 10, 1824, who says that it was intended for the third (new) book, or what we now know as the eighteenth book, of 'Dichtung und Wahrheit.' The reason of its non-appearance in that place is obvious: it was in 1824 that Goethe first definitely determined to complete "Faust," and it became thus quite unnecessary to furnish the public with a *brouillon* of a work which it was soon to have in full. Although, as above remarked, the sketch is but a fragment, there is enough of it to make it extremely interesting; it shows how simply and clearly the story took shape in the poet's mind, how closely it attaches itself to the legend, and how far it is from all that frigid allegory and deep-diving metaphysic which a whole generation of interpreters insisted upon reading into it. The sketch has the further value that it throws much light on the poem as it stands, even where the latter differs radically from the first concept.

— The bare outline of the story presented is as follows: *Faust* is disclosed sleeping; nothing is said of mountains or of sunrise. Spirits sing to him alluring songs of honor and power, and he wakes up cured of sorrow and sensuality. *Mephisto* appears and describes in a facetious vein the Imperial Diet at Augsburg, alleging that *Faust's* presence is desired by the Emperor Maximilian. The pair go to Augsburg, where *Faust* is kindly received at court, having first forbidden *Mephisto* to pass the threshold or to practise magic arts in the Emperor's presence. *Faust* now converses with the Emperor about the black art, but soon gets into difficulty and looks around for *Mephisto*, who has approached and now joins in the conversation, speaking in *Faust's* name. He makes a favorable impression, and presently "manifestations" are called for. *Faust* goes away to get ready for them, *Mephisto* meanwhile amusing the court by practising as quack doctor. Evening comes on and a magic theatre takes shape. *Helen* appears, and is unfavorably criticised by the women. Soon *Paris* shows himself, and is adversely commented upon by the men. The spectators cannot agree as to what shade shall be called up next; several illustrious spirits appear together, *Paris* and *Helen* become uneasy, confusion arises, and suddenly the apparitions are gone. *Faust* is in a swoon, *Mephisto* runs away, and the spectators have uncanny sensations. When *Mephisto* returns, he finds that *Faust* has fallen violently in love with *Helen*, and insists on possessing her. *Mephisto* replies that she belongs to Orcus, and that while she can be called back temporarily by magic, she cannot be retained. But *Faust* insists so passionately that *Mephisto* agrees to try to gratify him. *Faust* is now installed in an old castle, whose owner is absent in Palestine, and whose castellan is himself a magician. *Helen* now reappears, wearing a ring which gives her a corporeal existence. She thinks she is just returning from Troy to Sparta. She is lonely and longs for society, especially for the society of men. *Faust* appears as a German knight. *Helen* at first thinks him ugly, but finally yields to his suit. The pair have a son who, from the moment of his birth, has a fancy for singing, dancing, and playing pranks. Here it is explained that the castle is encompassed by a magic line within which alone these sham occurrences can take place. The boy has strict orders not to cross a certain brook; but one day, as he hears music and sees soldiers dancing on the other side, he disobeys orders, crosses the stream, mingles with the crowd, gets into a quarrel with the soldiers, and is killed. *Helen* is inconsolable, wrings her hands in despair, and in so doing pulls off her ring. She vanishes into nothing, leaving only her dress in *Faust's* embrace. *Mephisto* now tries to comfort him for his loss and to interest him in the pleasures of proprietorship. The owner of the castle has died in Palestine, and monks are trying to get possession of the estate. Their formulæ destroy the magic circle, and *Mephisto* advises the use of force. He provides three powerful champions for *Faust*, who, thus assisted, defeats the monks, avenges the death of his son, and becomes a great proprietor. Here, unfortunately, the fragment comes to an end.

HUME'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH STRAHAN.

The Letters of David Hume to William Strahan, now first edited with Notes, Index, etc., by G. Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L., Pembroke College. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 1888.

READERS of Burton's 'Life and Correspondence of David Hume' will recall the regret expressed by the biographer at the "unfortunate loss" of an extensive correspondence which was known to have been carried on by Hume with "the eminent printer, William Strahan." Strahan, in connection with Thomas Cadell, a famous Scotch bookseller in his day, was publisher for Dr. Johnson, Dr. Robertson, Blackstone, Adam Smith, Gibbon, and many other literary dignitaries of the last century besides Hume. In 1774 he was of sufficient consequence to be elected a member of Parliament. Select portions of this correspondence between Hume and his printer were shown to George III. soon after the historian's death in 1776. That Burton should have so easily despaired in his search simply because somebody told him, as he says, that it was Strahan's "practice to destroy all the letters addressed to him," is not a little surprising, for one of these letters had been published in the London *Chronicle* of June 7, 1777, nearly a year after Hume's death, and had subsequently worked its way into popular histories of England. It is quoted textually in such a familiar book as Wade's 'British History Chronologically Arranged.'

It now appears that these letters (a few numbers only are missing) were found in the summer of 1887 in the hands of a London autograph dealer, and, the Earl of Rosebery having generously purchased the whole series to prevent their dispersion, they were committed by him to Dr. Hill for editing. It was natural that this scholar, fresh as he is from the elaborate annotation of Boswell's Life of Johnson, should have approached this new task with a good measure of the same commentating zeal which he brought to that most delightful of biographies. Indeed, the "neat rivulet" of the text meanders here so lazily through the "meadow of margin" which spreads out before us that we sometimes have to dredge for our Hume through wide sandbars of literary reference and large continents of historical silt. No nice detail of the learned grammarian is too small, no "coney-catching art" of the delving commentator is too recondite to escape the scrutiny of Dr. Hill. One wishes sometimes to whisper in his ear that the "average reader" of modern times may be safely assumed to know some things. We hardly need to be told exactly where we can find the story of Dares and Entellus in the Æneid, or in what book and at which line of Lucretius we should look for the much-bequoted passage beginning "*Suave, mari magno*, etc." Even when the keen scent of Dr. Hill for ferreting out a literary allusion may occasionally serve us a good turn, we could none the less wish that he had rather called us far afield in quest of larger game. It pleases us somewhat to know that Master Daniel Wray intended a delicate allusion to Horace ("Book iii, Ode 24, line 5") when he tells us that Hume on one occasion, while attending a congress at Inverary, was compelled "*by the adamantine peg-maker* to make one of three in a bed." But we should have been greatly more pleased if our learned critic, with such ample resources at his command, had oftener exercised himself with a higher order of problems—with telling us, for instance, in this very matter-of-chance and gregarious fellowship, how it was that Hume, in the changeful politics of his time, should have sometimes found himself "pigging together in the same truckle-bed" with stranger bed-fellows than any he could possibly have encountered at Inverary. For these letters to Strahan, in throwing a new light on the political opinions of Hume, not only with regard to the American Revolution, but also with regard to the general political situation of England in his troublous epoch, may be said to throw new light on the whole political creed of the great Tory historian. Burton, with all the admiration proper to a biographer, is frank to admit that the political opinions of Hume hung very loosely on him, and could hardly be said to have the consistency of a creed, insomuch that he was "tolerant of any system of politics which bore the air of philosophy," and could "let his reason vibrate between opinions of the most opposite character in practical politics." This judgment of the biographer finds a singular confirmation in the letters before us. On all questions of purely domestic politics the Scotch philosopher here figures as a Tory of the Tories, but on most questions of foreign politics he out-Whigs the Whigs in the extremity of his liberalism. For example, we find him writing to Strahan under date of October 25, 1769, that he "hopes" to live long enough (he was then fifty-eight years old) "to see a public bankruptcy, the total revolt of America, the expulsion of the English from the East Indies, the diminution of London to less than a half, and the restoration of the government to the King, Nobility, and Gentry of the realm." And then, as if he had wished still more to emphasize the antithesis between his foreign and his home politics, he immediately subjoins: "I hope also that some hundreds of patriots [Wilkes, Alderman Crosby, "that rascal Beckford," etc., etc.] will make their exit at Tyburn and improve English eloquence by their dying speeches." In another letter (June 25, 1771) he laments that all the flowers of the royal prerogative are faded or gone—the right of the King to remove judges at will, the privilege of General Warrants, of expelling members from Parliament, and of wielding the coercive powers of the House of Commons in support of Government measures. "For God's sake," he exclaims, "is there never to be a stop put to this inundation of the rabble?"

But with all this "Jingoism" for home consumption, we find him, from the year 1769 down to the day of his death, setting his face like a flint against the foreign policy of the Tories with regard to America. In 1771 he writes to Strahan that "in the nature of things" the union between Great Britain and the American colonies "cannot long subsist." On a rumor reaching him at Edinburgh in 1775 that the Ministry were minded to withdraw both fleet and army from America, he hastens to write that he could wish himself a member of the Cabinet that he might second this measure, which, he prophetically added, "only antici-

pates the necessary course of events a few years." He pronounces the conquest of the colonies to be impossible. "Arbitrary power," says the philosopher to his Tory friend, then sitting in Parliament (for Strahan was a thorough-paced Tory), "can extend its oppressive arm to the antipodes, but a limited government can never long be upheld at a distance, even where no disgusts have intervened." After remarking on the confiscations, hangings, and "acts of destructive violence" which could alone reëstablish the British dominion in America, even if a conquest were possible, he dismisses the topic with these words: "Let us, therefore, lay aside all anger, shake hands and part friends. Or, if we retain any anger, let it only be against ourselves for our past folly, and against that wicked madman, Pitt, who has reduced us to our present condition. *Dixi.*"

It is difficult to understand exactly what Hume meant when, with his high Tory notions and his fondness for kings and lords, he professed himself "an American in his principles." Can it be true, as Dr. Johnson once snarlingly said, that Hume was "a Tory by chance, as being a Scotchman," and not at all a Tory "upon principle," as being "upon principle a Hobbist"? How could he write to Strahan that "it is a pleasure to hear that the Bill-of-Rights men are fallen into total and deserved contempt," when a little later he is found writing to his nephew that "the republican form of government is by far the best"? Was it the personal influence of Lord Hertford which made him reactionary in his home politics, or was it the conservatism inspired by historical studies? Was it the personal influence of Gen. Conway (Lord Hertford's brother) which made him hope for the successful revolt of the American colonies, or was it his mad hatred of the English—"those factious barbarians," as he calls them? These are among the enigmas suggested to us by these letters, and we would willingly forego half a hundred explanatory notes on things which need no explanation, for a little light and leading on such topics.

From other sources than Dr. Hill's text or annotations we are abundantly informed that Hume was private secretary and afterwards Secretary of Legation under the Earl of Hertford at Paris, from 1763 to about 1766, and that he was Deputy Secretary under Gen. Conway during a part of that Minister's term of service as Secretary of State from 1765 to 1768. But Dr. Hill grows parsimonious in his references to the politics of both Hertford and Conay precisely at the point where the politics of the two brothers bifurcated simultaneously in the same two different directions discovered by the letters of Hume. In the whirligig of politics peculiar to that period of turmoil and upheaval, Hertford became the Lord Chamberlain of the King's household in 1771, and Gen. Conway became the leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons to the American war. While his brother, in the name of the King, was notifying Wilkes and the Livery of London that his Majesty would no longer receive insulting pleas for American rebels when offered in the guise of "humble petitions" addressed to the throne, Gen. Conway was openly proclaiming in Parliament that he would never draw his sword against the insurgent colonies, defending as they were the hereditary rights of British subjects. "Better peace with America," he said, "and war with all the rest of the world, than war with America." On the very day (April 5, 1775) when the Tory, Rigby, predicted that "the Americans would not fight," he warned the Commons against "the dreadful consequences" which must ensue "should the sword be once drawn." On the 29th of February, 1776, he scouted the idea of reducing America "as impracticable and absurd." A few weeks later we find Hume writing to Strahan in the same sense.

Was it the antagonistic influence of these two brothers, each a friend and patron of Hume, which kept him "vibrating" between opposite poles in the political world? Or, siding as he did with Hertford on questions of home politics, was it because of his own strong Tory proclivities; and, siding as he did with Gen. Conway on American politics, was it because of his own strong antipathy to the English domination—an antipathy which made him wish not only for the defection of the English colonies in the western and eastern continents, but also for "a general bankruptcy" of the Government? On all such questions Dr. Hill leaves us to our own devices.

Hume's hatred of the English ("the factious barbarians of London," "the barbarians who inhabit the banks of the Thames," as he habitually calls them) was already sufficiently known, but it breaks out *ad nauseam* in these letters. In one of them he protests against "the mad rage of the English against the Scots." The English, he adds, are "a mobbish people," whose opinion "happily gives him [me] no concern"—a proof of the concern he felt. In another letter he intimates that he would like to turn his attention to a species of historical composition which "has no reference to the affairs of these factious barbarians." In still another he avers that if he shall be "silly" enough to keep on writing "more British history," he will take good care "not to warp his principles or sentiments in conformity to the prejudices of a stupid, factious nation with whom he is [I am] heartily disgusted." All this is in perfect keeping with the contemptuous surprise he once expressed that Gibbon's History should have been written by an Englishman, as also with his sardonic dissuasive addressed to Adam Smith against publishing 'The Wealth of Nations,' because a work so "full of reason, sense, and learning" was too good for "the wicked and abandoned madmen."

We have not been much surprised to find the old "Walpole Land Grant" cropping out in these letters. Strahan had an interest in that land-jobbing scheme. Thomas Walpole, a London banker, and Benjamin Franklin were prime movers in it. The project dated from 1769, and contemplated a large land purchase on the Ohio River. This speculation, which Hume thought could never "turn to great account," opened for a time a pretty active mud volcano in our colonial politics. Besides casting up a good deal of mire and dirt in the debates of the day, it threw Lord Hillsborough, the colonial secretary, out of office in 1772. He was disgusted to find that Franklin's influence with the Privy Council was greater than his. The Revolutionary War soon came to put an end to the negotiation, and everybody remembers the curt and irate letter with which Franklin bade adieu to his fellow-stockholder, Strahan, at the beginning of the Revolution: "You have begun to burn our towns and murder our people. Look upon your hands; they are stained with the blood of your relations. You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am, yours, B. FRANKLIN."

Dr. Hill will regret to learn that notwithstanding the useful aid afforded him by that excellent historical scholar, the late Dr. Israel W. Andrews, he has missed the opportunity of citing some very apposite historical references under this head. For instance, he quotes Smollett's allusion to the "Twightees" who once inhabited "the delightful plains" which it was purposed to cover by the Walpole grant, but he never tells us who the "Twightees" were, though the designation must be very obscure to the modern English reader, and though abundant records exist in which he might have traced the habitat and affinities of that old Miami tribe of Indians. And then, the reference suggested by Dr. Andrews to the proceedings of the Continental Congress on May 1, 1782, when this land grant came up for discussion, should have been preceded by an earlier reference to the debates of September 4, 1779, and should have been followed by a later reference to the proceedings of Congress on the 16th of August, 1782, when Arthur Lee, then a member from Virginia, publicly flouted Dr. Franklin as an unfit man to conduct negotiations for peace, because he was reputed to be "interested in Western lands," and therefore had a personal motive for seeking to bring these lands under the jurisdiction of the United States, instead of leaving them under the jurisdiction of Virginia. It was the last eruption of the mud volcano. It might be added that Lee had good reason for his virtuous indignation. An earlier land-job of his had been squelched by the Walpole concession.

These letters contain nothing new on the origin or merits of the quarrel between Hume and Rousseau. In its day this was a famous *esclandre*. Hume wrote to Mme. de Boufflers in 1766, when the quarrel broke out, that if the King of England had declared war against the King of France, it could not have made more noise in London drawing-rooms. Readers who are familiar with the 'Concise Account' and with the 'Private Correspondence of Hume,' as published in 1820, need not turn to this volume in quest of a single newly discovered gossipy tidbit, but they will find in Dr. Hill's notes a salmagundi compounded from what is most savory in the remains of this literary scandal.

We do, however, see in these letters that Hume, after imprudently allowing his Paris friends to rush into print with a French version of the pamphlet, became heartily sick of the publicity he had provoked, and repented of his angry passion so soon as he was called to take measures for an English edition of the brochure. He writes to Strahan on the 4th of November, 1766: "I wish it were possible not to print an edition in London, because the whole affair will appear perfectly ridiculous to the English." After some correspondence about certain details of the publication, we find him railing at Strahan for some printer's negligences which had made "the silly pamphlet" (so Hume calls it) appear in a still more ridiculous light. The reader will remember that Morley, in his Life of Rousseau, while frankly exonerating Hume from the blame of instigating the quarrel, does not exonerate him from the blame of instigating a needless publication of it in printer's ink. The sober second thought of Hume had anticipated the comment.

In taking our leave of this book, we ought perhaps to say, as a matter of justice to Dr. Hill, that if in his former contacts with Boswell, while editing the Life of Dr. Johnson, he may seem to have caught at all the *lues Boswelliana*, it is only in the mild literary form of that harmless malady. He has not a particle of that adoring awe with which "Bozzy" prostrated himself before the Grand Lama of his idolatry. On the contrary, while doing full justice to Hume's "noble industry as a scholar," he is sometimes even severe in his animadversion on the grave faults and unmanly foibles which marred, as he conceives, the symmetry of the philosopher's character.

PEASANT EMANCIPATION IN DENMARK.

Stavnsbaands-Lösningen og Landboreformerne set fra Nationalökonomiens Standpunkt. Af V. Falbe Hansen. 1ste Del: fra 1733 til 1807. 8vo, pp. 161. (Copenhagen: Gad. 1888.)

THIS is the first volume of an exceedingly interesting book on the emancipation of the peasants and the reform of land tenure in Denmark at the end of the last century. The event is so recent that information about it is fairly trustworthy, and the interpretation of the record is not subject to the difficulty which we experience in filling in the background of remoter times. Hitherto the most accessible source of information has been Sugenheim's 'Aufhebung der Leibeigenschaft.' The present work supplements that, dealing with a particular period, and striving to ascertain, from historical and statistical material hitherto unused, the effect of the settlement and its abolition. It is therefore a very valuable contribution to our knowledge of land tenure, land-class interests, and a whole series of cognate subjects. The present article aims only to reproduce the most essential contents of the book with the necessary condensation.

Serfdom was never fully established in Jutland, because the population always was restless and wandering. It was abolished on the islands in 1702 by decree, although it is very doubtful how far the abolition was realized in fact. Wages were a matter of custom, and the relations of classes were also matter of custom; hence it is hard to get information about them. It appears, however, that wages in city employments were rising in 1730; therefore, that land wages were rising, and that laborers were moving to the cities. Prices of land products were falling. Agriculture produced only fourfold at best. Taxes bore very heavily on land-owners; consequently, land bore no rent beyond the taxes, and had no value except for the improvements. Proprietors abandoned lands, or allowed them to be sold for taxes. In 1728 an ordinance was issued prohibiting this. Cases occurred where a fine was paid for the lease of a house without land, while a lease of a farm was granted gratis. The conjuncture was therefore against landlords and the state treasury, and in favor of the wages class. Five or six days' labor would buy the produce of an acre and a quarter of rye, and the laborer got it in that way more easily than the villein farmer for whom he worked to raise it.

The proprietors complained that the abolition of serfdom was putting an end to the cultivation of the soil. Although the governmental policy of the time was a landlord's policy, the reason of the State for the action which it took lay in the interest of its own revenue. It did not renew serfdom (*Vordnedskab*) by name, but it renewed it substantially under another name (*Stavnsbaand*), and under a pretence of providing for the recruitment of the rural militia. It was ordained that "no peasant youth may leave the manor on which he was born so long as his lord can give him employment, unless he is above the age of enrolment (fourteen to forty), or has served out his time." The lords might enroll whomsoever they would. In 1745, in connection with police measures against cattle disease, the settlement was made still more stringent, and extended beyond the age of forty. A villein could be forced to take any farm assigned to him by the lord, and the service to be done for it was undetermined. The *Stavnsbaand* (soil-bond) was therefore a permanent settlement of the peasants on the land subject to servitude.

As this was a new and arbitrary introduction of settlement, against the tide of history, the villein had no custom to protect him; and it appears that, as the system went on, the demands made on him constantly increased, until the fact was that, under the burden of the landlords, the Church, and the State, the villein had nothing left for himself but scanty and coarse subsistence. Land industry being in a crisis, labor had been stolen to help it out. A protective tax was also put upon grain. At that time Norway imported a significant amount of grain from outside the kingdom. The tax forced the Norwegians to buy this in Denmark at an advanced price, so that the Norwegians were forced, with the villeins, to carry the Danish land-owners over an unfavorable conjuncture.

According to the accepted political economy of the time, every man in the State had his set place, where he was expected to stay and do his allotted part towards the maintenance of the whole. It was also held that the separate interests were entitled to the fostering care of Government, especially to help each over an unfavorable conjuncture when that disaster should overtake it. Hence the succor of the landed interest and the oppression of the peasants were in perfect harmony with current opinion. It was also believed that extravagant expenditures by Government "gave a circulation to money" and enhanced prosperity, provided always that the expenditure was not on *foreign* luxuries. It was also an accepted dogma that big taxes made people work hard, which was morally beneficial to them as teaching them diligence. These theories came from Germany, and Von Justi was invited to Denmark to give counsel. The King acted faithfully upon the theory. In the middle of the century, the King and court used up one-quarter of the revenue. The King built a castle at a cost equal to the market value of all the landed estates on the island of Zealand.

It was also almost universally believed at that time that increase of population was increase of national wealth and strength, because wealth came by labor, and increase of population was increase of labor-force. The reasoning ran: More population, more labor; more products, lower prices; lower wages, greater power to compete in foreign markets, favorable balance of trade, prosperity. The servitude of peasants and artisans was quite consistent with this theory, perhaps necessary to it; but some economists preferred freedom, on the ground that population would increase faster under it.

The unfavorable conjuncture to agriculture speedily passed away. Grain rose in price. Land increased in value. There was greater and greater demand for labor, in the sense that the lords would have been glad to have improvements made and work done on the land, if they could have got it by simply calling on more bondmen to do it without pay. This "demand" did not call out a corresponding supply. The population barely maintained itself. It appears that the settlement was not strictly maintained, and in various ways individuals escaped from it. In 1764, part of the crown lands were sold, and peasants were in a position to buy them at prices then thought extravagantly high. In certain districts, for which statistics are available, about 1770, there were 7,235 peasants free of servitude, 23,224 under servitude, and 21,252 cottagers (land proletariat and day laborers, possibly with slight common rights and petty allotments). The proportion of free peasants to peasants under servitude on private estates in Jutland and Fyen was as high as one-third.

From the middle of the century, distrust of the existing system and opposition to it began. Our author attributes to Arthur Young and Adam Smith the most direct and positive influence. In 1771 Struensee played the rôle of Turgot. He tried to define and limit the servitudes, but his reform was ephemeral. The actual reform began by private initiative under the hands of enlightened landlords. Reventlow is credited with the leadership of the public movement; but Frederick VI., as Crown Prince, not only gave it royal sanction, but put as much enlightened zeal and initiative into it as anybody. An ordinance of 1788 abolished the settlement and also payments, including tithes, in kind, and made provision about allotments, migration, and enclosures. Sugenheim says, what our author does not mention, that it was not a complete and final abolition, but was limited according to the age of the peasants, and did not become final until 1800. The general principle of the new system was free contract; but the villeins were entitled to life-leases, and the lords were not allowed to put the land freely on the market at terminable leases, the doctrine being that, as the peasants had been bound to the soil out of consideration for other interests than their own, they should now be recognized as having a vested right in it. All parties began to come together under voluntary agreement, and a Commission appointed in 1795 to arbitrate and determine, had to act on only four estates in Jutland and thirty-three on the islands. In 1799 all servitudes were made definite. They were gradually commuted, or bought out, or became obsolete.

Our author now proceeds to study the effects of the abolition, directing attention repeatedly to the most material circumstance that this reform, throughout the period of its strong and steady advance—1788 to 1808—was sustained by an advancing market for land and land products. He also refers the advance in social and economic welfare which followed, even more to the dissolution of the village community and the common rights than to the abolition of the settlement. Under the old system the peasants lived in villages, and their strips of land were intermingled with each other. The village assembly met frequently for trivial purposes, leading to riot and drink. Marriages were discouraged, because a young man could not marry until a dwelling was vacant. The sanitary arrangements were bad, and child mortality great. Improvement was impossible without common consent, hence it was hardly practicable at all. The agricultural art stood far higher in the demesne than on the villein farms. The movement which followed the abolition of the settlement therefore took two forms—the parcelling in unity of the lands so that each man got a compact farm, and the scattering of the farmsteads out of the village upon the separated allotments.

Under the settlement the tendency had been to increase the demesne at the expense of the villein land. After the abolition, the big demesnes (sometimes 1,000 to 2,000 acres) could not be worked profitably. They were broken up and sold or rented. The waste or common was also enclosed and included in the new allotments. The lords were more eager to sell, fearing further innovations, than the peasants were to buy. The favorable conjuncture, however, encouraged the latter, and the lords used both persuasion and coercion to make sales. In 1835 the peasant proprietors and copyholders were to the tenant farmers as 41 : 34, and the land held by the former was to the land held by the latter as 177 : 137. In 1806 the same lands were worth ten times as much as in 1733 to 1740, and the advance had been

far more rapid in the last part of the period. The "unearned increment," therefore, was what carried the reform through to a successful issue. After 1818 the advance in land values was arrested, and the peasant purchases diminished or ceased.

In twenty years after the reform—

"the product-fold increased nearly 25 per cent., and the annual harvest was nearly doubled. The largest part of the waste was cultivated so that the cultivated area was greatly extended. The export of grain was doubled while the home consumption greatly increased. Stock was increased and improved. All products advanced in price, and the value of land increased nearly three-fold. Agriculturists who before had been poor and in economic straits, both proprietors and villeins, now felt how wealth poured forth from the ground. Great activity was awakened in agriculture. Agriculturists, formerly locked fast in the routine of the old system, were freed. A new system of land cultivation began to make its way." "Enterprises were begun which even now seem ahead of the times. . . . New plants were introduced (clover, tobacco, potatoes, rapeseed, etc.) and new sorts of grain. . . . Old tools were thrown aside and new ones introduced. . . . Experiments were made with new and noble breeds of animals. . . . They began in places to move buildings to the new farmsteads on rollers, American-fashion. The same feverish struggle forward meets us in the history of Danish agriculture of that time as in the most rapidly advancing portions of modern society, also the same evils—land-jobbery, overindebtedness, and the labor question."

There was great need for capital in carrying out the reform. The expense of parcelling and scattering was reckoned by Reventlow as high as $14 per acre. The State set up a land bank to assist in this respect, it being a paper-money period. When the market turned, the indebtedness thus incurred brought ruin to those who had not freed themselves.

From 1788 to 1800, although other classes of the population remained nearly stationary in number, the cottagers nearly doubled. This was the response to the new demand for labor under the wages system; but the cottagers increased so rapidly that they deprived themselves of all share in the general improvement of the period. There were two classes of them—those who had allotments of land, and those who had not. The former gained by virtue of their crops, but those who depended on wages did not gain. The numbers of these two classes were about equal. The landlords and new farmers built cottages for this class, as a means of attracting them, but in many cases made it a condition of the house lease that the cottager should work for the house-owner so many days per week and so many days in harvest; from which arrangement arose a new sort of servitude, which still exists.

M'KENDRICK'S PHYSIOLOGY.

A Text-Book of Physiology. By John Gray M'Kendrick, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., Professor of the Institutes of Medicine in the University of Glasgow. Including Histology, by Philipp Stöhr, M.D., of the University of Würtzburg. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THE first volume of this treatise, entitled 'General Physiology' (pp. xxv, 516), introduces the subject with an unusually full and satisfactory account of the province of physiology, the phenomena of life, and the relation of these phenomena to those of physics and chemistry in harmony with the doctrine of the conservation of energy. The main part of the book consists of short treatises on chemistry, physics, and physical methods, histology, embryology, bacteriology, the microscope and microscopical methods, and the physiology of the simple tissues. This manner of treatment becomes intelligible upon consulting the preface, where it is stated that the book is designed for the author's own students, and is the outgrowth of his needs as a teacher in a great medical school where those who come for instruction in physiology have had practically no preparation in chemistry, physics, and histology, and the methods of investigation in these subjects. The teacher must accordingly clear the ground by explaining the principles of these collateral sciences, and the methods of demonstration, before making a special application of them to physiology. The language is clear and simple, sometimes even partaking of the semi-colloquial directness of the lecture-room. The first part, in fact, appears to be made up of a series of lectures arranged as they were given, and from the variety of subjects introduced it is not a pleasant book to read consecutively, on account of the constant interruption of the proper subject-matter in order to discuss methods or the principles of collateral sciences; and while it is inferior to several of its predecessors, it probably represents better than any one of them an actual course in physiology in a great medical college where the fundamental related sciences are not required for admission, and where histology, the microscope, microscopical and bacteriological methods form part of a course in physiology. Condemnation, therefore, of the introduction of these subjects into a text-book of physiology would be a condemnation of the present state of medical education in Great Britain and America.

Of the 166 pages devoted to chemistry, the parts differing most markedly from other works are the accounts of fermentation, the animal pigments, and the value of chemical formulæ. The discussion of animal pigments forms one of the most satisfactory and welcome parts of the volume. The same commendation cannot be given to the chapter on fermentation, as almost the only reference is to the organized ferments, while those which are unorganized or soluble, and which produce the true physiological fermentation in the processes of digestion, etc., are very briefly, almost parenthetically, mentioned. Hence the beginning student of physiology would inevitably obtain his fundamental idea of a ferment from some living object like the yeast-plant, instead of from one of the unorganized ferments with which he is more directly concerned, for the understanding of the digestive and some other processes of the body. The methods of bacteriological research given with this chapter seem very incomplete and unsatisfactory when compared with works written by specialists upon the subject, and it is hard to see how the value of the work is enhanced by the addition.

The discussion of the physiology of the tissues represents fairly well the present state of knowledge. As a rule, recent investigation has been considered, especially that done in Great Britain and America; but some of the latest and most accurate work has been overlooked. This is most noticeable in the physiology of muscle, where the elaborate investigations on its change of volume and specific gravity during contraction are not noted, and the old statement that a muscle decreases in volume during contraction is repeated and sanctioned. Following the physiology of the muscular tissue is an exceedingly interesting and suggestive chapter on the phenomena of the electric fishes; but it is doubtful whether a consideration of these phenomena will assist the student so much in gaining an insight into the complexities of muscular and nervous action as is hoped for by the author.

The histological and microscopical parts of the book were taken largely from Dr. Philipp Stöhr's 'Lehrbuch der Histologie,' with the consent of both author and German publisher. The treatment of histology is more elementary than one would expect in so ambitious a text-book as the one under review, and is as a whole inferior to that of many English and American works. Histology is one of the prominent features in both anatomical and physiological text-books of the present day, but this one is distinguished by the introduction of the methods of microscopical research. This innovation must be condemned, for, from the nature of the subject, the treatment must be inadequate. The methods given are mostly good, but many are incompletely described or needlessly complex, and several are antiquated; for example, the method recommended for preparing cartilage would produce appearances about as unlike the natural ones as it would be possible to obtain. Admitting the desirability of introducing methods, however, there is one admirable feature of the work: the way in which the preparations figured were prepared is given either in the description of the figure or in the appendix to which reference is made; but the claim in the preface that this is a unique feature is somewhat surprising, for it is common to nearly all treatises and monographs on histology from the classical work of Schwann (1839) to those of the present day; it is also found in some works on gross anatomy. It is no less surprising to find the assertion that the illustrations "are not diagrams, but drawings of real preparations," as though most histological figures were drawn from the imagination. They really illustrate the text, and are mainly of a good quality.

Typographically the work is excellent. Very few errors appear, and most of these are so evident that they may be easily corrected by the reader. The mistake in the statement on p. 5, that the human red blood-corpuscles are "77 microns, or .077 mm.," in diameter would not be so easily corrected, and, to increase the difficulty, the approximately correct size is given, under blood, p. 299, as 7.5, instead of 7.7 microns. Unmistakable errors of statement are also infrequent, but a few occur which would prove very misleading to students: on pp. 318, 320, it is said that the epithelium of the conjunctiva of the eyelids is ciliated. The white blood-corpuscles of warm-blooded animals are said (p. 295) to move very slowly, and the movement "can only be detected by careful observation with the aid of the hot stage." When warmed to the temperature of the body, the white blood-corpuscles of man move almost or quite as vigorously as do those of cold-blooded animals, and at the temperature of a comfortable sitting-room the movement is often quite rapid, and in nearly every case noticeable. It is opposed to the teaching of modern embryologists to affirm (p. 248) that "the notochord becomes the bodies of the permanent vertebræ and the basis of the cranium." This statement is indirectly contradicted even by the author on pp. 251, 252, where he states that bony tissue is developed from the mesoblast, and the notochord from the hypoblast.

Statements are usually positive, but made with care and after duly weighing the evidence; but not enough stress is laid upon exceptions. It looks as though the author disliked to spoil the effect of a striking and easily remembered generalization by giving exceptions; for example, on p. 312, it is affirmed that "the contraction of the transverse striped muscle is quick and under the control of the will," no exceptions being given, not even that of the transversely-striped muscle of the heart. A similar unqualified statement is made concerning the distinction between the red blood-cor-

puscles of animals on p. 300, where those of birds, reptiles, amphibia, and fishes are said to be distinguished from those of mammals by their large size, oval and biconvex form, no mention being made of the fact that in the lamprey eels the red corpuscles are circular and biconcave, like those of mammals. On p. 434 occurs a marked example of the tendency to state a probability as a truth when it is said, with reference to the increase in size of a muscle by exercise, etc., that "the enlargement is due both to the development of new fibres and to an increased thickening of the older ones." This is probably true, but it is only an assumption, and not a part of established knowledge. From the very nature of the case the muscular fibres cannot be measured and counted before and again after the increase in size of the muscle, and no conclusive observations have been made as to the relative size and number of the fibres in the same muscle of individuals with varying muscular development.

Art in the Modern State. By Lady Dilke. London: Chapman & Hall.

THE title of this book is somewhat misleading. It is not, as one might expect, a discussion of the position of "art in the modern state," or of the influence of art upon modern civilization, or of modern civilization upon art; indeed, it contains little discussion of any sort. It should in strictness be called a 'History of French Art under Louis XIV.'

The period is not greatly interesting by its achievement. Between the glories of the Renaissance and the freer and more personal art of to-day, the pompous formality of Le Brun and the mild correctness of Le Sueur seem flat and insipid. Even the art of the next generation, the art of Watteau and of Fragonard, frivolous though it be, has a piquancy and charm altogether wanting in the magnificent commonplace of the *grand siècle*. Nevertheless, it is a period of great importance in art history, for it is the time of the academic organization of art. In this time were founded the French Academy, the various Academies of Architecture, Painting, etc., which make up to-day the Institut, the Ecole des Beaux-Arts, and the French School in Rome. For good or for evil, the influence upon modern art of the academic system then founded has been inestimable, and the history of its founding was well worth the writing.

For good or for evil? One must read between the lines a little to know what Lady Dilke's answer is. The book is, as we have said, mainly a history, with little digression into theoretic or philosophic reflection, and the history deals often with small men and small intrigues, with the names of third-rate and no-rate artists, and the dates of third-rate and no-rate works. Yet, if the details become sometimes fatiguing, the grand lines are firmly traced. The first chapters treat of "France under Richelieu" and of "France under Colbert," and show clearly the conception and the execution of the great scheme of organization and of centralization which created the "modern state"; the succeeding chapters show in detail the application of this scheme to the arts, while the conclusion refers briefly to the modern reaction, "the protest against the suppression of the Renaissance."

One of the most interesting chapters is that which deals with the Gobelins and the Savonnerie. Nowhere did Colbert's idea of art as an organized function of the state meet with a more indisputable success than in the founding of these vast workshops for the production of "meubles de la Couronne," which turned out not only tapestries and carpets, but objects in almost every branch of what we know as industrial art, and where the artisans were regularly trained by celebrated artists in the drawing of the figure, on the principle that "the highest and widest possible artistic training is none too good for your art-workman." The resultant beauty and thoroughness of workmanship have never been lost to the French, and have given them that preëminence in art-manufacture which, to apply a merely material test, has been worth millions of dollars to their nation.

But if the influence of the academic system has been clearly for good in the minor arts, what has it been in the fine arts, properly so called? Has the work of Academies and Schools of the Fine Arts and the Prix de Rome been upon the whole a beneficial or a deleterious work? Lady Dilke seems to believe, as do we, that it has been in the main beneficial. We are in the midst of the reaction, and our ears are filled with denunciations of Salons and medals and prizes. All these things, we are told, encourage only mediocrity, and genius makes its way without them or in spite of them; and we are bid to consider Millet and Corot and Courbet, or perhaps Manet and Monet, and are asked what the official and academic system did for them but to try to crush them. Yet we cannot forget that all these men were Frenchmen, and that it is the one nation possessing a thoroughly organized academic system of art training and art encouragement which has produced them. Granted that Salon after Salon is filled with the work of highly trained mediocrity; is the *un*trained mediocrity that fills the exhibitions of some other countries, preferable? Granted that training cannot produce genius, it can give it its weapons. As Lady Dilke says, "the very antagonists of this system have owed to its method and discipline more than half their practical strength." The office of an academic training in art is to preserve a high standard of excellence in workmanship — to compel all who would attain recognition as artists to become first of all good craftsmen. The very perfection of technique which it induces may make more visible the lack of contents in the work of the mediocrities, but it insures that the work of the geniuses shall be sound. It does not make geniuses of the workmen, but it makes workmen of the geniuses, and the most erratic and rebellious of the artists of France have felt its influence in spite of themselves, while the greater and soberer ones have knowingly profited by it. A Turner would be impossible in France, a Baudry would be impossible out of France; and one such name is enough to mark as successful the system that has produced it.

The book is well written, and is supplied with index and appendices, and the printing and proof-reading seem to have been excellent.

Letters of Felix Mendelssohn to Ignaz and Charlotte Moscheles. Translated from the originals in his possession, and edited by Felix Moscheles. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

THIS is a charming collection of letters—the record of a memorable friendship, based on a complete harmony of taste and feeling, and unmarred by a single discord. It appears from the preface that the letters addressed to Moscheles came into his son's possession in 1870, but they have not been made public before because "many passages occur in which prominent musicians of those days are unreservedly criticised"—passages which the present editor "felt as little authorized to suppress as to publish during the lifetime of those alluded to." He trusts that "they will be none the less interesting now that time has judged between the critics and those criticised." On the contrary, these passages add immensely to the value and entertainment of the book. Mendelssohn had a rare gift of literary expression, and knew not only what displeased as well as what pleased him, but how to convey his impressions to others. For instance, this is what he has to say of Berlioz, who may be said to be at the musical antipodes of Mendelssohn:

"We were all curious to know what the result of French genius would be. I say French, for so far no other country but France has recognized Berlioz as a genius. But, oh! what a rattling of brass, fit for the Porte St. Martin! What cruel, wicked scoring! As if to prove that our ancestors were no better than pedants! . . . Then the mystic element—a progression of screeching harmonies, unintelligible to all but the March cats! To show that something terrible is agitating the fevered brain of the composer, an apoplectic stroke of the big drum shakes to shivers the efforts of the whole orchestra, as also the auditory nerves of the assembled audience."

Again:

"At first he made me quite melancholy, because his judgments on others are so clever, so cool and correct; he seems so thoroughly sensible, and yet he does not perceive that his own works are such rubbishy nonsense."

This was no hasty judgment, but the expression of a feeling running through all his criticism. Speaking of Neukomm's music, he recurs again to the subject of brass:

"Then, again, that constant use of the brass! As a matter of sheer calculation it should be sparingly employed, let alone the question of Art! That's where I admire Handel's glorious style; when he brings up his kettledrums and trumpets towards the end, and thumps and batters about to his heart's content, as if he meant to knock you down—no mortal man can remain unmoved. I really believe it is far better to imitate such work than to overstrain the nerves of your audience, who, after all, will at last get accustomed to Cayenne pepper."

Mendelssohn liked nothing eccentric in music. He says, for instance, of "a book of mazurkas by Chopin," that they are "so mannered that they are hard to stand," while some of Liszt's music he speaks of as "depressing" and "very stupid," denies him altogether "original ideas," yet speaks of him very highly as a pianist. Most people's judgment of their contemporaries is apt to be capricious, and often governed by personal considerations. Mendelssohn, as he disliked, so also heartily liked, and we have to accept his admirations as well as his criticisms with certain reservations. For instance, it is impossible to believe that Moscheles himself is musically as important a figure as these letters make him out.

This book is a sort of companion volume to the charming 'Life of Moscheles,' edited by Mrs. Moscheles. It gives an impression of Mendelssohn never to be effaced. There is a charm and grace in his letter-writing so remarkable that we can only compare it to that of his music. His relations with Moscheles and his wife are those of a friend whose affection is never dimmed by a sordid or interested motive. Quotations, except in the critical passages, would fail to give any idea of the letters, which, filled with gayety and childlike playfulness (the illustrations abound with that sort of humor), put us at once on familiar terms with the writer and those to whom he writes, please us with their glimpses of a charming mind and heart, and leave us (and what is more rare?) better pleased with ourselves and with the world for having made the intimate acquaintance of a man of genius.

Rides and Studies in the Canary Islands. By Charles Edwardes. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1888. Pp. xx., 365. 8vo.

If the Canary Islands do not increase in popularity with English and Americans as a health resort, it will not be because attention has not been directed to their merits. Mr. Charles Edwardes's entertaining description of his three months' sojourn among them follows very closely the two large volumes on 'Tenerife and its Six Satellites,' by Mrs. O. M. Stone, which appeared a little more than a year ago, to say nothing of numerous recent works in other languages. From this latest account, the only comfortable place for our countrymen still seems to be Puerto Orotava on the north coast of Tenerife. Here, in a valley extravagantly praised for its beauty by Humboldt, who saw it, however, at the beginning of his travels, sheltered from the hot southern blasts, the invalid may enjoy perpetual summer, the thermometer varying only from a mean of about 62° in January to 77° in August. If he wearies of the palms and the sunshine, he can climb the steep slope of the Peak, passing through every variety of climate and vegetation, until, if he have energy enough, he comes almost to the region of perpetual snow on the summit, 12,180 feet above the sea. Add to these advantages the extraordinary dryness of the atmosphere, at night equally with the day, and an excellent hotel, and it is difficult to see what more can be desired. The want of carriage-roads, however, restricts all but the experienced rider to a small part of the island. Mr. Edwardes, indeed, made the tour of both Tenerife and Palma, but the ride was difficult, and at times dangerous, from the *barrancos* or ravines, some of a tremendous depth and nearly perpendicular sides, which are to be crossed at every few miles. There are also numerous lava-beds and slopes covered with pumice, which, under a scorching sun and with water unattainable, make travelling for the time anything but pleasant. Under these conditions, it is hardly necessary to add that the accommodations for tourists, outside the largest towns, are of the very roughest character. Among other excursions made by the author was a short trip to the Grand Canary and the ascent of the Peak, which was fatiguing and disappointing on account of the clouds.

Interspersed with the narrative are incidents of the early history of the islands, in which, however, the traditional and the historical are not always clearly distinguished. The author is not strictly accurate in his assertion that "the first civilizers of Florida were Canarians, and the city of St. Augustine in that State, which claims to be the oldest European settlement of the United States, was founded in the sixteenth century by a contingent of seventy families from Santa Cruz," the fact being that Menendez brought the first colonists from Spain.

Mr. Edwardes gives, on the whole, a favorable impression of the present condition of the islands. Notwithstanding the decline of the cochineal industry through the invention of aniline dyes, and the destruction of the vines by the oidium disease, the indications of prosperity are not wanting. Roads are being constructed, harbors improved, and school-houses "broadly sown over the land." In the sleepy town of Laguna, the ancient capital of Tenerife, our traveller even found a palace converted into a "workingmen's club." The foundling hospitals, however, in every town still bear witness to a low state of morals among the islanders. In this respect, as in some others, the aboriginal inhabitants, the Guanches, appear to have been superior to their conquerors. Among other things, the son of a noble could not be received into the ranks of the nobility if it could be shown that "he has made raids in time of peace; if he has been uncivil or spoken amiss, especially to a woman." "In the island of Grand Canary, a noble would never wound or kill any one, except in a stand-up fight. And in time of war, when he had his enemy at his feet, he would not kill him."

The author is always entertaining, and gives an apparently truthful and unexaggerated description of what he saw, adding also in an appendix a few useful hints to the intending visitor. The illustrations are in some cases excellent, especially those of the buildings, but those of the scenery do but scant justice to their subjects.

Wellington; or, The Public and Private Life of Arthur, first Duke of Wellington, as told by himself, his comrades, and his intimate friends. By G. L. Browne. London: Allen & Co. 1888.

A book of this kind, if the execution had corresponded to the conception, would have been a really valuable contribution to the literature of history. While the echoes, so to speak, of a great man's achievements are still ringing in our ears, the mind finds a lively interest in the collection of all particulars respecting those achievements. But as these achievements recede into the past, interest in the man himself takes the place of the interest that once was felt in the things that he did. We want to know the secret of his power, the causes and the nature of the influence he exercised over his comrades and friends—the man, in a word, in his habit as he lived. It is because they supply us with this kind of information that so much of interest attaches to works like Mme. de Rémusat's 'Memoirs of the First Napoleon.' The Duke of Wellington was not a genius like the first Napoleon; but in an age prolific in the production of great men, he stands assuredly for one of the most remarkable—remarkable, not alone as a great and successful military commander, but for his patriotism, his rigid and unbending honesty, his admirable adherence through life to a lofty ideal of duty. One would gladly have the picture of such a man as it appeared to "his comrades and intimate friends." Mr. G. L. Browne has given us nothing of the kind. He seems, indeed, to be altogether unaware of the wealth of materials which exists for the construction of such a picture. He has been content to skim, with a pair of scissors in his hands, the pages of half-a-dozen well-known books, and to excise such passages as he thought effective—the total result being as sorry a bit of book-making as we ever had the misfortune to peruse.

For a right understanding of the after successes of the "Iron Duke" there is no portion of his career so indispensable as his Indian campaigns. The victor of Salamanca and Waterloo was there in process of making. The years he spent in India covered the most momentous period of the British connection with that country. His brother, the Marquis Wellesley, was then Governor-General, and under his conduct the East India Company had, for the first time in its history, boldly stood forth as the paramount power in Hindostan. That claim was disputed by the leaders of the great Mahratta Confederacy, whose armies were trained and led by French officers. General Wellesley, who was intrusted by his brother with the conduct of the war in the south of India, formed one of a group of distinguished Indian officials. The Duke was not very susceptible to feelings of friendship, and it is therefore the more worthy of note that he retained through life a special cordiality and friendliness for these early comrades of his—Sir Thomas Munro, Sir John Malcolm, and Mountstuart Elphinstone. In the lives and letters of these men there is much of the greatest interest about the Duke on which Mr. Browne has wholly omitted to levy contributions. The Indian despatches, too, of the Duke exhibit a degree of penetration into character, a capacity for establishing cordial and confidential relations with Oriental statesmen, which show that, despite the apparent inflexibility of his character, he possessed the abilities of the diplomatist in a hardly less degree than those of a soldier. But of all this nothing whatever appears in Mr. Browne's hasty and superficial compilation.

Matters are not much improved when he takes his readers into Spain, France, and Belgium. Wellington's "comrades and intimate friends" are, for the most part, conspicuous by their absence. The title-page naturally suggests that during these eventful years the reader is to be told how Wellington impressed, as a soldier and a man, those who fought under him, as well as those to whom he was opposed. What did his own lieutenants think of him—Grahame, Hill, Beresford, the Napiers, and others? What did the French Marshals whom he successively defeated—Soult, Victor, Masséna, Marmont, Jourdan? Their sentiments are all on record, but Mr. Browne apparently is unaware of the fact. At any rate, he produces nothing which proves the contrary; and the worst of it is that even with the books which he has looked at, he has quite a remarkable capacity for overlooking or ignoring the most characteristic stories. Thus he has looked through Charles Greville's Memoirs and missed two delightful anecdotes which are therein recorded. The one has reference to the Duke's Spanish despatches. Greville informed the Duke, as they chanced to be riding together, that Lord Brougham had declared that there was more of political wisdom to be found in these despatches than in all the works of Thucydides. "By G—, sir," replied the Duke with straightforward simplicity, "and that is quite true. I can't imagine how the devil I came to write such things." The other story is quite idyllic. It tells how Greville, calling at Lady Jersey's house, found that she and a party of thirty-two little children were starting for Astley's Theatre to see the Battle of Waterloo performed, the Duke of Wellington having been pressed into the service as a military escort appropriate for the occasion and the play. The Duke in his later years was exceedingly fond of the society of little children, and there is something beautiful and pathetic in the old hero witnessing in such innocent company the counterfeit presentment of himself and his achievements. The "Iron Duke," as he was called, possessed, in truth, a deep well-spring of humanity under an unsympathetic exterior. A man of war from his youth, he never lost his sense of the frightful sufferings which follow in the wake of war, and no general of any age or country ever strove with greater earnestness to protect from pillage, assault, and incendiarism the people and the country visited by his armies. In after life he had a hand always open to the pleadings of distress. He was accustomed to carry a store of loose guineas in his pocket, to reward any of his old soldiers who might happen to address him. His scorn of all deviation from the strictest justice is well exemplified in the following story, which Mr. Browne has done well to include in his volume:

"Some years ago it was proposed to him to purchase a farm in the neighborhood of Strath-

fieldsaye, which lay contiguous to his estate, and was, therefore, a valuable acquisition; to which he assented. When the purchase was completed, his steward congratulated him upon having had such a bargain, as the seller was in difficulties, and forced to part with it. 'What do you mean by a bargain?' said the Duke. The other replied, 'It was valued at £1,100, and we got it for £800.' 'In that case,' said the Duke, 'you will please carry the extra £300 to the late owner, and never talk to me of cheap land again.'"

As regards his military exploits, the untheatrical character of the Duke—his utter contempt for fanfaronade and everything savoring ever so little of self-applause—has caused the world to underrate in no small degree their brilliancy and greatness. Wellington, in these respects, was the exact opposite of Napoleon. It was essential to the policy of the latter that he should stand forth upon all occasions as the ruling spirit, with Victory attendant at his heels like one of his pages. Wellington despised all such brag and exaggeration. An epoch-making achievement was never told in more laconic and unpretentious language than in the Waterloo despatch. The student, however, of Wellington's campaigns cannot fail to perceive that in his military character there was a happy combination of qualities the most opposite; that, cautious and complete as he was in making his preparations, he had an eye of the utmost keenness to detect the favorable moment for striking a blow, and all the swiftness and audacity of execution to turn it to the best account. The victories of Assaye, Salamanca, and Vittoria are notable illustrations of this keenness of observation and felicitous audacity of action; the lines of Torres Vedras and the battle of Waterloo, of that inflexible tenacity of purpose which gained for him the sobriquet of the "Iron Duke."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Airy, O. The English Restoration and Louis XIV. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Besant, W. For Faith and Freedom. A Novel: Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Bonvalot, G. Through the Heart of Asia, over the Pamir to India. Illustrated. 2 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $10.50.
Cocker, W. J. The Government of the United States. Harper & Bros.
Dawson, Sir J. W. Modern Science in Bible Lands. With Maps and Illustrations. Harper & Bros.
Dodge, T. A. Great Captains: Alexander, Hannibal, Cæsar, Gustavas Adolphus, Frederick, and Napoleon. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $2.
Echoes from the Blarney Stone, and Other Rhymes, by W. C. R. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Ellis, Ethel E. Memoir of William Ellis and an Account of his Conduct-Teaching. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.00.
Harper's Bazar. Vol. XXI. 1888. Harper & Bros.
Harper's First, Second, Third, and Fourth Readers. Harper & Bros.
Harper's Monthly. Vols. LXXVI. and LXXVII. Dec., 1887—Nov., 1888. Harper & Bros.
Harper's Weekly. Vol. XXXII. 1888. Harper & Bros.
Harper's Young People for 1888. Harper & Bros.
Heap, Major D. P. Ancient and Modern Light-Houses. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $5.
Hill, Prof. A. S. Our English. Harper & Bros.
Holloway, Laura C. The Woman's Story, as Told by Twenty American Women. With Portraits and Sketches of the Authors. John B. Alden.
Huntington, C. M. A Bachelor's Wife, and Other Poems. Utica: Kelly & Bostwick.
Lang, A. Grass of Parnassus: Rhymes Old and New. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Lewis, C. T. A Latin Dictionary for Schools. Harper & Bros.
Mackay, D. The Dynamite Ship. Manhattan Publishing House.
Malone, J. S. The Self: What Is It? Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888.....		1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,253,404 39
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....		$3,867,269 52
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Amount.....		$12,167,986 34

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1889.

The Week.

THE latest correspondence between Prince Bismarck and Mr. Bayard on the Samoan question ought to be satisfactory to us. The German Chancellor invites a conference on the express basis of the independence of the Samoan islands, and the neutral—that is, equal—position of all the treaty Powers therein. As this is all that we have ever contended for, there can hardly be a doubt that the conference will have a happy result. Mr. Bayard's acceptance of the invitation is accompanied with a suggestion that Germany should refrain in the meantime from seeking satisfaction for the killing and wounding of some fifty of her sailors by one of the warring factions at Apia recently. "If," he says, "we may indulge the hope which the adoption of this suggestion promises for a successful issue of the conference, the Government of the United States will at once take steps to be properly represented at the meeting of such conference in Berlin." This phraseology would seem to make the conference hinge on a cessation of hostilities between the German forces and those of Mataafa. Although this has apparently been agreed to by Bismarck, it is not probable that he will ever forget the slaughter of his men, or fail to secure justice for them in the end. He will do what we should do under like circumstances—exact an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.

The Nicaragua Canal Bill has now passed both houses of Congress, and simultaneously the Panama Canal Company has passed into dissolution, or at all events into a state of suspended animation. It is the common belief in this country that if the Panama property, as it now stands, and the Nicaragua project, with not a spadeful of earth turned, were offered in competition for the purposes of inter-oceanic transit, the latter would be the cheaper of the two. This is the opinion of Admiral Ammen, who is certainly the best authority on this side of the ocean, if not the best in the world. Our people are not much given to investing their money in foreign countries, but there is a strong probability that the Nicaragua Canal will be taken up and carried forward to completion. For the purposes of navigation between our Atlantic and Pacific ports it has the advantage over the Panama route of about 2,000 miles in the way of distance, and the same advantage as between England and the North Pacific ports. Probably English capital will join the venture if Americans show a disposition to go ahead with it. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty secures to Great Britain an equal voice with this country in fixing the maximum tolls on the canal and in protecting the entrances to the same. This treaty was one of the subjects of discussion in Congress while the bill was under consideration, but was not deemed of sufficient importance to impede the passage of the bill. The opinion seemed to prevail that in time of peace the joint protectorate could do no harm, and that in time of war the entrance to the canal would be under the control of the strongest Power, treaty or no treaty.

Anxiety lest the privilege of completing the Panama Canal should pass into the hands of foreigners is still "played for all it is worth" in Paris. It may be worth something in France, where *la gloire* and *la grandeur nationale* and such fustian really command a good deal of cash. But anxiety to take up the privilege of finishing the canal has not been shown in any other part of the world. In this country the only anxiety felt is to get American citizens who may happen to be on the isthmus out of the mêlée when the pay of laborers stops and the demands of hunger are felt along the line of the works. The administrators who have succeeded to the powers of the Lesseps Company have arranged with the contractors for continuing the work until February 15 by offering as security the unpledged shares of the Panama Railway, the last of the company's assets and the only one that has a market value. This arrangement was made in the expectation of reorganizing the company, issuing preference shares, to take precedence of all outstanding securities, to the extent of 5 per cent. per annum until and after the opening of the canal, and 16 per cent. of the subsequent profits. The subscription to these shares was limited to the present share and bondholders. The subscription closed on the 2d inst., and was a complete failure. Under these circumstances the appropriation of $250,000 by the Senate to enable the President to protect or bring away destitute American citizens from the isthmus was a very proper proceeding.

A syndicate of State Legislatures is a new thing in American polity. Such a phenomenon is in course of promotion or incubation at the West, to deal with what is called the Dressed-Beef Combine. The Senate of the United States also has the subject under consideration, a committee having been appointed last year to take testimony and report upon it. This committee held sessions at St. Louis and other Western cities, and is expected to make some kind of a report before the adjournment of Congress. It seems, however, that the Legislatures of Missouri, Kansas, Tennessee, and half-a-dozen other States cannot wait for the action of their common agent, the Government of the United States, but must needs take the matter in hand themselves, not individually but collectively. It is said that eleven States have given their assent to the movement, whatever it may be. Naturally there is a good deal of confusion as to the steps to be taken. The real grievance is cheap beef, the ostensible one being diseased beef. Mixed up with the grievances, real and pretended, is a deal of sympathy for the ranchmen on the plains, who, it is said, are suffering from the low prices of cattle, and are ground down by the Dressed-Beef Combine to starvation rates. So we have for the basis and *raison d'être* of the syndicate of Legislatures two real evils to be fought against, and one imaginary one, viz.: cheap beef, low-priced cattle, and inadequate inspection laws.

We can understand how the last evil, the imaginary one, may be met, if any single Legislature has the courage to grapple with it, the Granger Meat Bill of Pennsylvania having blazed the way. But since the Legislature of that State, as well as that of Ohio, has been lacking in intrepidity, we do not see much prospect of advance in that direction. The syndicate of States will therefore be expected to give attention principally to the evil of cheap meat, and here the difficulties to be encountered are serious. France and Germany manage it by means of the tariff on imported meats. The former country can even protect one locality against another by octroi duties, as Paris has lately protected her own carpenters and cabinet-makers against the pauper labor of the provinces. With such examples before us, why should not the syndicate of Legislatures, or some one of them, memorialize Congress to authorize internal tariffs to protect the slaughtering industry of the several States? The Constitution says that "no State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports." The consent of Congress is the only thing needed to clear the way for the discouragement of cheap beef. A duty of two or three cents per pound would probably be all that the local butchers would need. How this step would help the ranchmen to a higher price for their cattle is not so clear. Perhaps a bounty on steers of a certain weight, to be paid under regulations of the Internal Revenue Department, would meet that difficulty.

There has been much discussion as to the effect of next year's census upon the apportionment of Representatives, and by consequence upon the number of Presidential electors, but some newspapers are now saying that such an apportionment cannot be made in time to affect the election of 1892. There is no reason, either in the nature of things or in the precedents, for this assertion. On the contrary, an apportionment bill was passed by the House at the session of Congress which followed the taking of the last census—in the winter of 1880–81—although it failed to get through the Senate. It will be entirely practicable for the Fifty-first Congress to pass a bill, and there

is no reason to doubt that it will do so, especially as the indications are that the Republicans, who will control both branches, will find a partisan advantage in having the expected changes in the division of the electoral vote go into effect in the next Presidential election.

As the New Hampshire Legislature does not meet until after the middle of June, while the term of Senator Chandler expires on the 4th of March, the Governor has the power of naming the man who shall fill the seat during that period, and he has appointed Gen. Gilman Marston, who has been a prominent figure in the State during a long career and has for many years aspired to the Senatorship. He is now in his seventy-eighth year, and cannot expect to continue in the office beyond this brief period, by reason of his age. The importance of his appointment lies in its bearing upon the action of the Legislature when it comes to make a choice, and this is distinctly unfavorable to "Bill" Chandler's ambition for another term. The naming of any other person than himself places an obstacle in his way, and for this reason he has been laboring to secure the appointment. It will not do, however, to feel much confidence that Chandler will fail. The melancholy feature of the case is that he appears to represent fairly New Hampshire Republicanism, and consequently to be entitled, on party grounds, to another term.

The appointment of a Senator from New Hampshire leaves the seat from West Virginia the only one falling vacant on the 4th of March which has not yet been disposed of. The tangle in that State appears to grow more involved every week, and a man needs to give up a large share of his time if he tries to keep track of the daily crop of rumors and intrigues. The balance of power in the Legislature appears to be held by a small contingent of labor men, who mean to get the highest possible terms for their influence. Senator Kenna is out of favor with them, and his chances of a reelection now seem very poor. Outside New Hampshire and West Virginia the almost universal disposition has been to reëlect incumbents, except where, as in Delaware and Virginia, the opposite party has come into power, or where, as in the case of Senator Palmer of Michigan, another term has been declined where it might have been had for the asking. Colorado and Minnesota are the only other States among the twenty-six which have Senatorships to fill that send new men.

"Shall Boodlers Dominate?" Such is the striking title of an exceedingly plain-spoken leading editorial article in the Boston *Journal*. The article is suggested by an expression used by Gen. William F. Draper of Hopedale, in declining to be considered a candidate for the Republican nomination for Governor in Massachusetts this year. After stating other reasons for his decision, Gen. Draper said: "I also do not care to enter into the style of campaign for the nomination which seems to be requisite of late for a candidate supposed to have money." Gen. Draper speaks from experience. He was a candidate for the Republican nomination last year, and he learned then what "the style of campaign" had come to be. The *Journal* says the methods which he refers to "are pushed by a small army of boodlers who seek first a man who will bleed freely, and then enlist for the campaign, not with a view of giving the State the best man that is attainable, but with the sole object of putting money into their own pockets and securing influence when he is elected." It says further that "a man of wealth need only be mentioned as a possible candidate, and the harpies will surround him, and from the day that his name is suggested till success or failure is decided at the polls, he is the victim of this cankerous system which should be stamped out." Proceeding from generalities to particulars, it asks: "Is it not a sad commentary upon this Commonwealth and the tone of its people to know that the cost of securing a nomination for Governor has been in recent years as high as $20,000, to say nothing of the expenses incidental to the election?" These latter expenses, it adds, are put at "thirty or forty thousand dollars," "with our present 'ways that are dark;'" although it believes that "with an honest system not one-quarter of this amount can be judiciously expended."

The *Tariff League Bulletin* publishes a letter from the President-elect which we fear is liable to be wrongly interpreted. The letter is as follows:

INDIANAPOLIS, Ind., January 21, 1889.
Edward H. Ammidown, Esq., New York city.
MY DEAR SIR: I have not been able sooner to acknowledge your telegram of the 18th, extending to me the congratulations of the American Protective Tariff League. Let me assure you that I appreciate very highly this cordial expression, and that it will be my sincere purpose to meet the just expectations of those who not only rejoice in the result of the late election, but whose contribution to that success was so earnest and so large.
With kind regards for you, sir, personally, I am, Very sincerely yours,
BENJ. HARRISON.

It is not customary for Presidents of the United States to publicly thank persons who have made "large" contributions to the success of the party in a political campaign, because it is like saying: "Gentlemen, your money was very useful in this fight. I don't know how we could have got on without it, having so many blocks-of-five to pay for. It will accordingly be my sincere purpose to meet your just expectations." But the word contribution may be interpreted in another way—that is, as a contribution of influence, of sympathy, and other non-material but effective support; and we prefer to believe that that is what Gen. Harrison meant when he described the contribution of the American Protective Tariff League as "so earnest and so large."

"A Merchant" comes to the defence of John Wanamaker in *Harper's Weekly*, and, after the usual accounts of Mr. Wanamaker's business success and liberality with his money, comes down to the question. The observations which his apology suggests are the following: Seeing that Mr. Wanamaker has a voucher for every disbursement of his committee, and that these disbursements are made the ground of attacks on him by which he and friends are annoyed, why does he not do what all good men do when they are attacked about their use of money—submit the accounts and vouchers to hostile or disinterested audit and publication? His friends have been boasting a good deal, ever since he was charged with burning his accounts, of the fact that he has every voucher in his possession, as if the burning of his accounts were the main charge against him. But the only use of vouchers is to protect the custodian of money against those who would say that it had been either paid to the wrong persons or for bad purposes, or had been converted to his own use. Unless vouchers are available for this purpose they have no value whatever. They might as well be lost or burned. To cry out about vouchers, "I have them, but you shan't see them," is very foolish. There is nothing indecent about vouchers. It is not usual to lock them up like bad books, lest the children and servants should get at them.

The charge against Mr. Wanamaker which the "Merchant" studiously ignores, is not that he spent the money he gave or raised for the canvass in "toys, or lust, or wine," or that he used it himself in bribery or corruption—the "Pharisees," as Judge Gresham calls them, hardly ever do that—but that he gave what he raised to a man whose character he knew to be bad, who was noted in Philadelphia as a corruptionist of the worst type, and who Mr. Wanamaker had every reason, except actual complicity in his past crimes, to believe would put it in the canvass to unlawful or immoral uses; and that, finally, Mr. Wanamaker tried, but happily failed, to raise in this city a sum of $350,000, in the last week of the campaign, when it was impossible that it could have been used for legitimate expenses.

There was a very lively time at the weekly meeting of the Central Labor Union on Sunday, chiefly because a member, named William Shakespeare, remarked that a "Walking Delegate was a delegate who always walks in the direction of whiskey." A resolution was prepared and adopted denouncing Shakespeare and calling upon him for an apology, but he refused to make it. There seemed to be a feeling at the meeting that there was sufficient truth in the remark to make it stick to all Walking Delegates for some time unless it was withdrawn; and any one who has observed the habits of Walking Delegates will admit that there is good reason for this belief. The fact that observations of this truthful kind are heard now at nearly every meeting of the Central Labor Union, shows that the light is breaking in what have hitherto been the darkest corners of the laboring men's minds.

Apropos of country roads, which a month from now people will begin to think about once more, a bill has been introduced in the New Jersey Legislature, which, if passed, will bring about a much-needed reform in that State, and probably show the way to it in others. It empowers the Boards of Freeholders to make maps of all the roads, and on such maps to mark off the roads which they adjudge to be county roads, and as such are to be maintained and kept in order by the county. The Boards are then to have power to have the county roads so set apart "graded, paved with telford, macadamized, or otherwise improved by means of stone for a width of at least twelve feet in the centre thereof," by contract on advertised bids. To provide money for this, they are to be authorized to levy a special tax of not more than a quarter of 1 per cent. on the assessed value of taxable property of the county, or, if necessary, to issue county bonds, with the permission of the Circuit Court on cause shown. One-third of the cost is to fall on the cities, towns, townships, or boroughs through which the roads pass. The Freeholders are further to be authorized—and this is very important—to employ a competent engineer at an annual salary to inspect the roads and order repairs on them. We sincerely trust the bill may become a law and that the movement may spread. We can think of nothing which would do more to revive the rapidly declining taste for living in the country.

There is, of course, a ludicrous side to the fight which William O'Brien carries on with his jailers over his prison clothes; but it is quite plain now, and, indeed, was plain from the beginning to anybody but a Tory, that O'Brien is going to have the best of the laugh, or, in other words, that the treatment inflicted on him is egregious political folly. The determination to treat the Irish political prisoners as ordinary felons, against all previous English usage, was formed by the Tory Government, with the half-hearted approval of the Liberal-Unionists, for two reasons. One was, that it would make the sentences of imprisonment inflicted without juries, by the magistrates, so formidable that the offences against which they were directed—that is, encouraging boycotters and discouraging persons from taking evicted farms —would promptly cease. The other was, that they would disgrace and degrade the prisoners in the eyes of the community. Neither expectation has been realized. The Irish members of Parliament continue to make the obnoxious speeches, and print the obnoxious articles, and go to jail in as great numbers as ever, and being in jail the rigor of their treatment makes martyrs of them, and is finally rousing the indignation of the phlegmatic English masses. The speeches for which they are sent to jail would be lawful if made in England or Scotland—a fact which shocks the English sense of justice; and finally, their whole action as Irish agitators is confessedly considered either innocent or praiseworthy by almost half the voters of England and by a majority of the voters of Scotland and Wales. This may be, from the Conservative point of view, a deplorable state of things, but to act as if it did not exist is surely political fatuity worthy of King Bomba or Prince Metternich. Tearing the clothes off a delicate man —fool though he be—whose sincerity and disinterestedness nobody doubts, in order to punish him for fanatical speeches, made on behalf of the poor, is a spectacle which no democracy in our day will long endure without a great increase of fierceness. We shall probably see after the next general election in England a more violent rush than ever in the Radical direction, and see the ruthlessness of the Radical temper greatly increased.

It is interesting to know the attitude of what may be called literary Paris towards Gen. Boulanger. It was naturally to be presumed unfavorable, but there have been until lately few facts in the possession of the public on which to base an opinion. But in the week before the election of January 27 the *Matin* newspaper sent out a circular addressed to 340 well-known men of letters, artists, bankers, merchants, and the like—all "notabilities"—asking whether in their opinion the interests and honor of the country demanded a vote for Gen. Boulanger. The circular was sent out to arrive on Wednesday: in its issue of Friday the *Matin* said that it had received 185 answers to its question, of which 100 were No, and 17 Yes, while 66 declared for abstention, and there were two votes scattering. Only the names of those who signed their ballots were printed. In the list of those who voted no we note the names of MM. Ernest Renan, Jules Simon, Beaussire, Charcot, Leconte de l'Isle, Levasseur, Meissonier, F. Passy, Verneuil, Wallon, all of the Institute; Profs. Rambaud of the College of France, and Müntz of the Beaux-Arts; F. Sarcey and J. J. Weiss. The only voters of yes who signed their ballots were MM. Arsène Houssaye, Xavier de Montépin, L. Bonaparte-Wyse, and Cucheval-Clarigny. M. Duruy of the Academy, and late Minister of Public Instruction, wrote: "I am not an elector in Paris; if I were, I should vote decidedly no." M. Gérôme of the Institute, in a somewhat high note, indicated his preference for M. Pasteur, who might, he thought, have some cure for political rabies. M. Georges Ohnet, with more gayety than he at all times displays, declared that he could not decide between the Boulanger pill and the Jacques draught, and advised the *Matin* to call in Dr. Rameau.

Spanish political affairs of the last twelvemonth present a singular example of the rapid oscillation of party fortune and prospects. The Liberal Ministry opened the year with an apparently consolidated party behind them, and with a good hope that a part at least of their programme might at last be carried out. Prime Minister Sagasta took every opportunity to get the reforms proposed by the Liberals before the country, and his resolute advocacy of a great extension of the suffrage, of thorough military reorganization, and of a reformed civil code, met with marks of popular favor. But the harmony of his party was rudely threatened as early as last April. The protectionist faction of the Liberals, headed by Gamazo, and using the new and powerful Agrarian League as a lever, began to insist upon the adoption of their plans by the party as a whole. This could not be done without the most disastrous results. Yet Sagasta made some important concessions to the protectionists, agreeing to a lowering of the land-tax and of railroad freight charges, and to a thorough readjustment of the revenue laws in regard to alcohol and petroleum. But this only inflamed the appetite of the group it was intended to placate, and their agitation went on as strongly as before. The Conservatives naturally found this water for their mill. Canovas del Castillo stumped the provinces on the protectionist issue, arousing a popular excitement which gave promise of his speedy return to power.

But the Liberals slowly recovered their prestige. In this they were greatly helped by the success of the Barcelona Exposition, opened last May. It was the greatest thing of the kind ever done in Spain, and could not but feed the national pride and reflect credit on the Administration under which it was undertaken. But more lucky for the Liberals was the dead set which Canovas made against universal suffrage, or anything approaching it. This was a great political blunder. It at once alienated those large bodies of non-voting workingmen whom his siren songs in praise of protection promised to rally to his standard. It brought him a vast amount of popular disfavor, violently displayed in his mobbing at the hands of the students of the University and by the populace of Madrid. And the Liberals were not slow in following up the mistakes of their opponents with the enactment of positive and popular measures. They effected a good part of their proposed military reforms, completed the new Civil Code, and reaffirmed their devotion to the extension of the suffrage. For a time things looked rosy for them, but soon the pendulum took another swing. It appears to have been largely personal questions that led to the retirement from the Cabinet of Ministers Moret, Puigcerver, and Martinez, but their action was a terrible blow to the Administration, which seemed to be surely about to go to pieces. But Sagasta's patience and skill conquered the situation, temporarily at least, and latterly things have been running much more smoothly. Even against the powerfully backed demand for an import duty on cereals, he has held a majority together according to late despatches. It ought to be added that the feeble attempts to use dynamite recently made in Madrid, once even in the palace, have no great political significance; the correspondent of the London *Times* rightly attributes them to the petty malice of gamblers and other lawbreakers whose business has been seriously interfered with by the police.

THE BYRNE REPORT.

We return to this document because as long as such methods of administration as are revealed in it are possible, we cannot have a respectable and efficient civil service. Self-respecting and honorable men will never remain in an occupation in which their characters are likely to be assailed and their livelihood put in peril in this way. We say nothing of this mode of attacking wholesale the reputation of a large number of the leading business men of the city, as this report has done, by giving official currency to accusations of fraud got up behind their backs by an illiterate detective, although this, too, is a serious matter. That Byrne is illiterate the English of his report shows, and that he is a man without much self-respect is proved by the extreme, almost Oriental, servility of his language—something very new in American political documents. He never speaks of the Secretary except as "the honorable Secretary." He does not wait for fresh instructions; he waits for "the esteemed commands of the honorable Secretary." He treats unwillingness to obey his orders, as the familiar of the Secretary, as disrespectful to "the honorable Secretary," and therefore little short of criminal.

He collected his evidence in two ways—first, as a detective does it, by going about through the offices and the streets, and picking up any information he could get about the accused persons or their affairs from any person he thought likely to know, and jotting down whatever they said that was of a damaging character; secondly, by examining the accused persons themselves under oath, on the assumption, in the French fashion, that they were guilty. The authority for this latter method is given to this ignorant man by Secretary Fairchild, in a letter for which we think no parallel can be found in the official literature of America or in that of England since 1688, and which we quote entire. That an American lawyer could have brought himself to write it is something amazing. It must be remembered that the persons to be examined were really persons whose reputation and livelihood were both put in peril by the proceeding; that the "special employee" who was examining them was both the prosecutor who accused them and the judge who was to pass on their guilt or innocence; that he was not, before he was employed in this business, in the public service at all; and that the most respectable of his previous and numerous callings was that of an unattached newspaper reporter; that he had no judicial or legal training whatever, and no previous practical acquaintance with the Custom-house business, or with the process of sugar-refining or testing.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
WASHINGTON, D. C., July 1, 1887.

To any Officer or Employee at the Appraiser's Store, New York:

Special Officer T. Aubrey Byrne is instructed to administer to you the following oath:

You do solemnly swear that the statements and answers you shall make relative to the investigation now pending shall be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, so help me God.

I direct, if you have any knowledge, direct or indirect, or information of any kind relating in any manner to any fraudulent or irregular practices in the method or manner of sampling, testing, and appraising sugars, or of any matters connected therewith, you will state it to Special Officer Byrne without reservation.

I desire further that nothing shall be said by you to any person about this examination or as to what you have testified, or the nature of the questions asked you, until permission has been given you by me.

I further desire that any officer or employee objecting or refusing to give the promise as above stated shall state his reasons therefor, and Special Officer Byrne is directed to write out said objections or refusal, which statements shall be signed by the officer or employee so objecting.

Special Officer Byrne is further directed, and is hereby authorized, to examine under oath Special Agent Hinds, Clerks Bauer, Rose, and Howard, and any other officer or employee connected with the Appraiser's store, New York, he may desire.

C. S. FAIRCHILD, Secretary.

Most if not all of those who were summoned under this letter, refused, as American citizens they were bound to do, to take this oath of secrecy, and were consequently treated by "the special officer" with great severity. Among these was Dr. Sherer, concerning whom Byrne had been doing active detective work. Anticipating his examination, Dr. Sherer put in the following very proper protest, dated July 1, 1887:

"The conviction forced upon me by facts within my knowledge that Mr. Byrne is not an unprejudiced investigator, justifies me in protecting myself against possible misrepresentation by all proper safeguards; and I ask that, should I comply with the Secretary's desire to take the oath of secrecy and testify, I be furnished, as soon as practicable, with a copy of my evidence, for use, if necessary, in my defence at the close of the inquiry."

He had previously (June 28) made the following most reasonable request, that—

"should I be called to testify under oath to Mr. Byrne, he be requested to have a stenographer to take down questions and answers. Should Mr. Byrne decline to accede to my request, I ask that my request be noted upon his record of examination. If he declines my request for a stenographer, I have further to ask that his questions be submitted to me in writing and I be permited to write the answers thereto, after being allowed due time for deliberation, and be permitted to read them all before answering any one of them."

The character of Byrne's mind as a judicial organ may be inferred from the following observations which he makes on these documents:

"As no charges had been preferred against Dr. Sherer by me, his great anxiety to defend himself implies evidence of guilt, and is an exhibition of arrogance and presumption to my mind unbecoming of a public officer.

"The action of Dr. Sherer, reviewed in the light of his testimony, presents a case worthy of the most careful consideration of the Department."

The report bristles with similar illustrations of Byrne's mental condition in conducting his inquiry, some very amusing.

We have been frequently asked, since this matter came up, what our theory of the affair is—whether we accuse Secretary Fairchild of deliberate unfairness for political or other illegitimate purposes. We do not. We believe him to have been imposed on by his subordinate, Assistant-Secretary Maynard, to whom he handed over at an early period the business of looking after the offices and things pertaining thereto. We believe that when the Byrne report was sent in, its flimsiness was fully recognized, and that there was no intention to make any use of it until Mr. Maynard decided that the time had come for him to take a more active part in the "politics" of the Presidential situation, and he then resorted to the report as a justification for what is called "a shake-up" in the New York Custom-house. He began it by ordering the dismissal of fifteen officers of the Appraiser's Department, eleven of whom, however, he subsequently restored or left undisturbed, in spite of their "frauds," some at the request of politicians. Even "Tim" Campbell was able to save one. When his action was assailed by us, and at our request investigated by the Hale Committee of the Senate, he was left in a position in which he needed help and support, which Secretary Fairchild has generously, but most rashly and injudiciously, given. We might use stronger epithets than these, because it has been given by fastening on several of his fellow-citizens in respectable standing in the community imputations from which no man should suffer in mind, body, or estate, except after judicial inquiry conducted by a proper tribunal. As long as Secretary Fairchild fails to support his allegations and insinuations against the Custom-house officers and merchants of New York, by such inquiry, he must expect to be the subject of severe criticism, however pure his motives may be.

TARDY CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

The removal by the President of Mr. Edgerton as a member of the Civil-Service Commission, and the discussion in the Senate over a proposition to increase the clerical force of the Commission, call attention to the present condition and the future prospects of the reform. The removal of Mr. Edgerton is one of those good acts which lose their chief value from being too long postponed. He abundantly deserves to be removed, but so he has deserved almost from the day of his appointment, three years ago last November. The late Chief-Justice Waite is credited with having recommended Mr. Edgerton in the most unqualified terms on the strength of a long acquaintance; but it did not take long to show that, however amiable he might be as an acquaintance in private life, he was about the last man in the country for a Civil-Service Commissioner. His entire unfitness could not be more clearly shown than by mentioning the fact that his career has been such as to earn the hearty praise of Gorman, who paid this warm tribute to him in the Senate the other day: "He is an old-fashioned Democrat and an old-fashioned thinker, and he is the only man who has been connected with the Commission who by public expression ever showed that he thought the people of this country had any rights outside of the Civil-Service Commission. He has my entire respect and confidence."

The hearty endorsement of Gorman would of itself be conclusive evidence of Mr. Edgerton's original disqualifications for the position, by reason of his being an old-fashioned spoils Democrat. But he proved even worse than his antecedents indicated. He has spent a large part of his time in open

ridicule of the whole idea of civil-service reform, and has been from the first as much out of place as a clergyman would be who received a salary as a representative of Christianity, and devoted his energies to praising some vanishing form of heathenism. His retention as a member of the Commission for more than three years has been an inexcusable blunder, which is not rectified by his late dismissal.

The Senate debate showed how strong is the opposition to the reform which still remains among members of both parties. It arose over an attempt by Gen. Hawley to strengthen the hands of the Commission by giving them two more clerks than the Appropriation Committee had allowed. Chairman Allison consented to one, but successfully opposed the granting of a second, and the discussion which followed covered the whole field of civil-service reform and of politics. Gen. Hawley clearly showed the necessity for the increased force by reason of the increased work imposed upon the Commission, and he vigorously defended the reform policy. In this attitude he was heartily sustained by Mr. Hoar; but no other Republican said anything to indicate an honest belief in reform, while Mr. Stewart, on that side of the chamber, and Senators Gorman and Daniel on the other, declared their opposition to the whole thing. The other speakers occupied the position of Mr. Plumb, who does "not believe in this precise kind of civil-service reform, and would not adopt it if I were to have my choice of the kind of civil-service reform that I would have practised," although, like him, they are "not prepared to abolish this."

There was a good deal of talk about the recent action of the Administration in putting the Railway Mail Service under the rules. The simple truth about this performance is that, like the removal of Mr. Edgerton, it is a good thing, which ought to have been done years ago. The Republican spoilsmen urged that it was an unfair attempt by the outgoing Democrats to "embarrass the Republican Administration," by "keeping in under some kind of arrangement a class of men who but for that would not be kept in at all;" and the Democratic spoilsmen retorted by showing that the Arthur Administration set the example by putting large classes of employees under the rules after Cleveland was elected in 1884. It was of course easy to show that the proposed change in the Railway Mail Service would not in the slightest degree impair the power of removal; and all that Mr. Plumb could say in answer was a confession that the only trouble about it would be that "we"—that is, the Republicans—would "have no control over the person to succeed" a man removed, and so could not be sure of getting in "their man."

Gen. Hawley and Mr. Hoar stood manfully by the doctrine laid down in the Republican national platform of 1888. The Connecticut Senator read the plank, "for the edification of those who believe the Republican party is right, and, it may be, for the amusement of those who look with incredulity upon this whole business, after an election at any rate"; and he declared that "these were not merely preëlection promises," but "an honest assertion," and that "the party, whatever party, which has the management of the Government had better so consider it." Mr. Hoar was equally emphatic. As to the Railway Mail Service, he said: "I am glad that the present Administration, whether late or early, has extended this system to another branch of the civil service. President Cleveland, or the department officer on whose advice he acted, does not secure the retention in office of any unworthy or unfit Democrat by so doing, unless the appointing power is to be administered hereafter by some unworthy or some unfit Republican. He simply provides for taking away the political motive for turning these men out. If they are unfit either in character, or attainments, or special capacity for the particular service, or if for any other reason that can be conceived of they should be removed, that power will remain as heretofore." Mr. Hoar recalled the disgraceful features of the old spoils system, which he said "became absolutely intolerable," and in reply to a question as to how far he would extend the merit system, said:

> "I would apply it, if I had my way, to every official in the country in an executive office whose duties were not of a political or a confidential nature, and whom it was not expedient to have in sympathy with the Administration when that Administration was carrying out its political theories and policies, in regard to which its opponents would be expected not to be in sympathy; and I would have it then apply to all the class of offices to which men of ordinary and average intelligence are competent."

Gen. Hawley made a valuable statement as to the enlargement of the scope of the reform, which he thought much greater than the Senate was aware of, and which is certainly much greater than the general public had any idea of. In 1883, when the Civil-Service Law went into operation, the classified civil service consisted of seven executive departments at Washington, eleven customs districts, and twenty-three post-offices, in each of which there were as many as fifty employees. The departments made 5,652 persons subject to examination, the customs districts 2,573, and the post-offices 5,699—in all not quite 14,000. Since then the system has been extended in the departments and applied to other post-offices which reached the fifty-employee limit, and now the numbers are as follows: In the departments nearly 9,000, in the eleven customs districts 2,298, in the forty post-offices about 11,000, and in the Railway Mail Service 5,320, in all 27,618, being an increase from 13,897 to 27,618, almost exactly doubling the number of persons subject to examination. Excluding the Postal Railway Service, the increase has been, in round numbers, from 14,000 to 22,000, which approaches nearly to one-fifth of the whole force of employees of all sorts in the Government service.

The most important feature about the reform is, that it never loses ground. Every step of advance is contested, and the spoilsmen are even yet going to try and defeat the application of the system to the Railway Mail Service before March 4 if they can through legislation, but nobody any longer seriously thinks of repealing the law, and its steady extension is seen to be inevitable, simply because public opinion favors it.

ANOTHER PROHIBITION EXPERIMENT.

We gave an account recently of the successful operation of a prohibitory liquor law in the city of Cambridge, Mass. We showed that the law had been enforced there because intelligent public sentiment was not only earnest in its support, but was sufficiently aroused to organize itself formally against all violations of the law. The Mayor of the city coöperated with the Citizens' Association, and the two together gave such a constant moral support to the police that the latter pursued all persons attempting to sell liquor with such vigor as to drive them completely out of the city. Undoubtedly, as we pointed out, the enforcement of the law was aided by the fact that Cambridge is separated from Boston only by the width of the Charles River, and its inhabitants can easily obtain all the liquor they desire by a short journey. Still, the success of the experiment showed, first, that a prohibitory law could be successfully enforced in a community in which public sentiment was sufficiently strong and earnest in its behalf to combine, without regard to political distinctions, against all violations; second, that, being enforced, the gain to the moral and material welfare of the poorer classes of the community was instantaneous and great.

We now ask our readers' attention to another prohibition experiment, on a larger scale, and with quite opposite results. The prohibitory law of Rhode Island has been in force for more than two years. It was adopted at a State election in April, 1886, by a vote of 15,113 in favor, to 9,230 against, which was about the average full vote of the State. One might judge from the majority in its favor that public sentiment would compel its enforcement. As a matter of fact, however, it never has been enforced. We have before us the latest report of the officer in charge of its execution, the Chief of the State Police, and in it little pretence is made that the law has had any effect in even restricting the liquor traffic. Nothing is more striking in the report than the frankness with which the subordinate officials in the various cities and towns admit that the law is not enforced, and that the traffic is going on about as usual.

In some of the rural portions of the State the local officials report that there has been a decrease in the number of places in which liquor is known to be sold; but in all the larger places, there is either a report of increase in a greater or less degree, or a confession of ignorance on the subject, which amounts to the same thing. The largest city in the State is Providence, and from this the official report on violations of the law is: "Increased greatly on account of larger number of tenement-houses." From Newport the official report is: "A slight increase, owing to the inability to convict after apprehension." From Pawtucket, the second city

in size and a great manufacturing centre, the official report is: "I don't know." From New Shoreham, the official report is: "Increased; reason, no one takes any measures to stop the same." From Johnston: "Increased; reason, kitchen bar-rooms."

The tone of the various reports is almost invariably the same—one of entire indifference as to the failure of the law. This is the first and most striking characteristic of them, and we may add also that it is the leading characteristic of the Chief of State Police's report as well. The second point to be noted is the revelation made of the localities in which the increase of violations is most marked. The Providence official says it is in the "tenement-houses." The Johnston official says in "kitchen bar-rooms." This confirms a recent statement of the Providence *Journal*, that the "law is having absolutely no effect on the liquor traffic save to drive it into places from which it had hitherto been excluded, and into the hands of irresponsible persons of the most dangerous sort. The business has now penetrated into the tenement-houses of the cities and factory villages, thus bringing a terribly demoralizing influence to the homes of that class of people who can least withstand it." There can be no doubt of the truth of this statement, for the official reports admit it, and it is confirmed by the last annual report of the Newport Charity Organization Society. A sadder effect of any law could scarcely be imagined, and it seems incredible that a knowledge of it should not merely prevail in Rhode Island, but should be stated in official documents without a word of excuse or protest.

What are the reasons for this failure in Rhode Island, as compared with the success in Cambridge? The first and greatest reason is that, Rhode Island being a State, the influence of politics has been brought to bear on the question. In Cambridge good citizens of all parties united in demanding and sustaining the enforcement of the law. In Rhode Island nothing of the kind has been done. In fact, from the outset the Republicans, who made a party question of the adoption of the law, have used it and the machinery for its operation solely for the benefit of politics. They selected for their first Chief of State Police their ex-Boss Brayton, who, as Postmaster of Providence, had been a Government defaulter for $30,000. He at once showed his party the possibilities for gain that there were in the law. He did nothing to secure its enforcement, but he was quick to make it a basis for campaign assessments upon the liquor-dealers of the State. It is notorious now that nearly or quite every liquor-dealer pays to the Republican fund an assessment as a condition of continuing his business without molestation.

It is this political aspect of prohibition which we wish to dwell upon most earnestly, for it is an aspect which we have reason to believe has profoundly impressed these latter-day leaders of the Republican party, the Quays, Dudleys, and Platts. In the first place, the adoption of a prohibitory law takes away the excuse for a separate Prohibition party, and thus brings back into the Republican ranks thousands of votes which are greatly needed in all the close States. In the second place, a prohibitory law, once it is on the statute-books, can be used as a sure means for assessment upon every liquor-dealer in the land. If he won't "come down" at a threat of being closed up, he will certainly "come down," and all his fellows with him, at a threat to repeal the law. Thus, instead of paying to the support of the cost of government through license fees, the liquor traffic would pay only to the support of the Republican party. Herein we catch a glimpse of the reason for Boss Quay's sudden zeal for a prohibitory amendment in Pennsylvania, and of the Republican zeal for a similar amendment in Massachusetts. With the "fat" of the protected manufacturers on the one hand, and the tribute from the liquor interests on the other, the Republican party would have abundant sources from which to draw its campaign funds for many years to come.

RECENT STEAMSHIP DEVELOPMENT.

THE depression in railroad business under which we are now suffering has not extended to the world's carrying trade as a whole. Least of all is it felt in the ocean steam marine, which has fully recovered from the losses of 1885. The ship-building of 1888 is larger than that of any year since 1883, the figures of English shipyards being as follows:

	Tons.
1882	1,200,000
1883	1,250,000
1884	750,000
1885	540,420
1886	473,675
1887	578,668
1888	903,687

In some respects the 900,000 tons of 1888 is substantially equal to the 1,200,000 of 1882 or 1883. More than nine-tenths of the new tonnage is now steam, and by far the larger part of it constructed with steel instead of iron. Different types have been developed so as to produce superior efficiency in carrying cargo, while the average speed has been decidedly increased.

In the ocean carrying trade we are in the midst of a series of experiments of which it is as yet impossible to foresee the end. It can only be said in a general way that the present marine development is like that which was seen in our railroad systems ten years ago. A larger and more varied traffic is being handled by new methods. The history of the ocean carrying trade divides itself naturally into three periods, the first ending with the crisis of 1857, the second with that of 1873. In the first of these periods ocean steamships were developed with political rather than commercial objects in view; and a subsidy, or at least a profitable mail contract, was thought necessary for their successful operation. It was under these conditions that the Peninsular and Oriental, the Cunard Line, and the Royal Mail to South America were developed in England; while the brilliant but short-lived experiment with the Collins Line was the most marked result of the same policy in the United States. In the second period it was found that steamship traffic could be developed in such a way as to be profitable, independently of subsidies. The freedom from the restrictions which such a subsidy necessarily involved was often found to balance the loss of the money itself. Under these conditions steamship lines multiplied and did an increasing business; but it was not a diversified one. Vessels differed from one another in their size, their speed, or their coal consumption, but they ran for the most part in regular lines, and relied on passenger and freight traffic alike. Improvements came but slowly. The fastest passages from New York to Queenstown took about seven days and a half. Some advances had been made in the matter of fuel economy, but the results did not compare with those which have been subsequently realized.

With the crisis of 1873, steamship construction came to an almost complete standstill. Just at the time when the development of new railroad methods was most active, in spite of a commercial crisis, steamship builders were doing little or nothing. The improvement began about 1880. It was the result of a complicated set of causes which it is as yet impossible to analyze fully. The first conspicuous fact was the sudden development of the ocean "tramp." This term is applied to boats which do not run on any regular line, but go wherever they can get a cargo. Such boats were constructed cheaply, and consumed little coal. Wherever a cargo offered, they were able to handle it cheaply. In going from one port to another in search of cargo they used water ballast; that is, they pumped water into the hold of the ship until it lay low enough for the successful operation of the screw, and, on reaching their destination, pumped the water out and took their cargo instead.

For a time the tramps had everything their own way. Unlike their namesakes on land, they did so much work and did it so cheaply as to threaten the regular liners with a loss of employment. There was the same craze for cheap steamboats that there had been for narrow-gauge railroads ten years previous. But a reaction soon set in. It was found that under stress of weather the water-ballast would gradually shift until it got so far to one side as to carry the boat to the bottom. It was also found that the single-deck Mediterranean steamers which were rigged up for this use, were not able to stand the Atlantic storms without serious danger of foundering. Insurance rates soon ran so high as to interfere with the profit of the business. The reaction for a time was ruinous to the owners of such steamers. The tramp is now coming again into favor—but not the old-fashioned, badly constructed tramp; the most successful boats of this kind are those in which economy has been sought, not in the original investment, but in means of operation. Ships like the new freight boats of the White Star Line belong to this class, constructed with the utmost regard to safety, but seeking and securing the greatest economy in their daily operation.

Meantime the attention of the regular lines had been turned towards the improvement of their efficiency. With steamships as with

railroads, this furnished the soundest chance for business development. A steamship, like a railroad, by increasing the solidity of its works and the power of its engines, could increase carrying capacity much faster than it increased fuel consumption or wages paid. A system of construction was then found profitable which at first sight seemed like ruinous waste of capital. The substitution of steel for iron, although not furnishing the main occasion for improvement on the water as it did on the land, was yet an important incident in the change. The subsequent development of triple-expansion engines was of equal service. Beginning with the year 1880, new boats followed one another in rapid succession, each boat in some respects an improvement on its predecessor. The *Alaska* and *Arizona*, the *City of Rome*, the *Servia* and *Aurania*, the *Oregon*, and finally the *Etruria* and *Umbria*, showed an almost uninterrupted increase in size and a still more conspicuous increase in power, the last-named vessels having a horse-power of 14,000, or nearly three times that which was considered available a few years previous. Meantime the German and French lines had come into possession of a set of vessels scarcely inferior in speed to the best English boats, and vastly more economical. The fastest boats of the Continental lines are now distinctly superior in speed to any English boats except the *Etruria* and *Umbria*, while their fuel consumption is hardly more than a third of that of the last-named vessels, and is less than that of many of the slower boats of ten or twelve years ago.

Nor has the development of size and power by any means reached its limit. The use of twin screws, which has for some time been well established in war vessels, is now being applied on a large scale for mercantile purposes. The *City of New York* is the only first-class boat of this kind in the ocean mercantile service; but a companion ship belonging to the same line is practically completed, while the Hamburg Line has four under construction—two of them nearly ready for use. The White Star Line has also two, which it expects to use before the end of the season, that are vastly superior in power to anything hitherto seen. These twin-screw boats have a displacement of upwards of 10,000 tons in every case, and their horse-power varies from 12,000 to 20,000 each.

It is too early to tell what will be the commercial success of enterprises of this kind. The conditions under which they will operate must remain largely a matter of speculation. Under present rates of freight, large and well-constructed steamships, of whatever character, are highly profitable. It seems impossible that this state of things should continue long. A depression in steamship property is apt to be very severe. It should be remembered, however, that the present steamship development is in line with that which has proved permanently successful in other departments of industry. The economy of being able to handle a large business has caused unheard-of reductions in manufacturing prices and in railroad rates. A scale of charges which would have seemed impossible twenty years ago has now become practicable in almost every line of business. It is to be hoped that the new methods of steamship construction, affording a chance of doing larger business with fewer hands, and of keeping the invested capital in more rapid and constant use, may be a means of economy to shippers and shipowners alike.

LONDON'S CHINESE PUZZLE.

LONDON, January 25.

A WEEK has now passed since the County Council election was held in London. Its result has been already telegraphed to America; but this last week has been by far the most interesting in the short history of the Local-Government Bill. The development of popular feeling and public opinion on the subject since the election is indeed more noteworthy than the election itself. The excitement which now prevails is almost more extraordinary than the general indifference which continued from the passing of the act until within a few days of the election. Of course, while the bill was still before the House there was excitement enough in certain quarters, notably, as will be remembered, among brewers and saloon-keepers when the question of license and compensation was discussed. In the City, too, there was some little stir when the very existence of the Corporation seemed in danger; and there were rumors abroad that a good deal of the City money was being spent in self-defence. But people whose personal or immediate interests were not threatened, looked on at what was really a revolution in the government with most unaccountable apathy. In the country, instead of realizing the new power put into their hands, the few who have voted have returned to their County Councils the lords of the manor, the country squires, the justices of the peace—in fact, the very men against whose *tyranny*, the Radicals hoped, the act was specially directed. In London this apathy has been scarcely less. It was the boast of one daily that it was the only paper in the metropolis which, for a couple of months before the election, kept its readers informed as to the doings and progress of the candidates. The election returns showed how many of the electors in certain districts looked upon the matter as not worth the trouble of going to the polls. The election-day passed as quietly as if it did not mark a new epoch in the history of the English people.

But, since the election, all this has been changed. Now the excitement is at fever heat. In the newspapers, which may fairly be thought to reflect the public feeling, columns are given to the new County Councillors, even if to find space the reports of the Parnell Commission are crowded into one small corner. Radical papers are, figuratively speaking, at each other's throats, and calling each other worse names than were ever found for Tory rivals, because of a difference in the policy they propose to the new municipal government; the County Council even figures in big letters on their flaring posters at street corners. Before last week it was agreed on all sides that, with the Council, party politics had nothing whatever to do; now that Liberals have gained an unexpected majority, to them the result of the election is a sign of the times, and how to turn it to best advantage has become a burning question of the day. The extreme Radicals exult over the victory of the people and the triumph of Democracy. One paper goes so far as to speak of the "Commune of London."

To most men, remembering Paris, the very word Commune means, at its worst, a reign of terror and disorder which cannot be said to have begun in London, since the metropolis is more orderly than it was a year ago; at its best, the word suggests a rule of inexperience and fanaticism, and in this sense, it may be, the enthusiastic editor used it with more truth than he intended. Certainly, in looking over the list of County Councillors, one is struck with the number of names of which one has never before heard. It may safely be said that the majority of the men who are to govern London for the next three years are without experience to guide them in their new duties. The best-known names are those of men who, like Augustus Harris, for instance, won their notoriety in other than political fields of action, and to whom a seat in the Council is desirable for very much the same reasons that at home the Postmaster-Generalship is said to seem a prize worth money to John Wanamaker, or else of men who, like Lord Rosebery, were elected chiefly because of their name and title, and not because—at least according to American ideals—they really represent the district from which they have been returned; for what Lord Rosebery, a Scotchman, has to do with the affairs of the very heart of the English capital, only an Englishman could explain. Or again, as in many cases, the most familiar names on the list are those of men who have become notorious through their almost fanatical devotion to one idea or principle. The new Council will have its members who will seek to work out all reforms by teetotalism; its philanthropist who will not understand any scheme of progress which does not begin and end in the East of London; its Socialist—and a famous one, too, John Burns—whose one aim will be to make London what it has just been called, a Commune; and, moreover, it may have its two women who believe in the salvation of the world through the establishment of the political rights of women.

But the principal reason for the excitement is the discovery that this brand-new bill is at best a sort of Chinese puzzle to which Parliament has not supplied the key. Now that the time has come for carrying it into effect, he is a wise man who can tell exactly what it means in all its clauses. The most omniscient editors are not sure they have found the rightful interpretation; the new Councillors themselves are at their wits' ends. There is only too often a humorous vagueness about English laws. No one who heard or read it can forget the discussion—worthy of Gilbert and Sullivan's heroes—over the dynamite explosion on London Bridge a few years ago, when the question arose as to whose duty it was to look into the matter; for if the bomb exploded in the water, then the Thames Conservancy were responsible; if on the bridge, then it came under the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan police; but if in the air, then whose business was it? Or again, what would seem more impossible in a well regulated country than the position of the West-End shopkeepers two years ago, when the mob broke their windows, and for compensation they were referred to an official who had existed but in name for the last two centuries? In such cases, it may be said, there is vagueness either because the law is obsolete or because certain contingencies were not foreseen. With the Local-Government Act, however, there is no excuse of this kind; it was an absolutely new measure of reform, introduced to do away with recognized evils due to the then existing form of local government, or, rather, to the want of it throughout England and Wales. Perhaps the very vagueness of the bill may be considered an excellent example of the result of the present English method of making local

laws, and proof of the urgent need for far more radical measures of home rule than those for which the Irish have so long been fighting. The bill was drawn up by one man, Mr. Ritchie, who has now become famous enough, but who before his name was associated with the Local-Government Act, was unknown, it may safely be said, to the English world at large. It was then tinkered at and argued over for long months by Irishmen and Scotchmen, as well as by Englishmen and Welsh, though only the latter were to be affected by it. Finally, after all this tinkering by people who had but a general interest in it, the bill was passed and became the law of the land, only to be proved the biggest problem the people of England and Wales have ever had to work out for themselves.

The first difficulty arises from the fact that upon very many important points the act makes no clear statement, but refers—with modifications that further complicate matters—to the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882. On turning to this act, it is found that even here there is no intelligent explanation, but instead another reference to an earlier bill, say of 1854, and even from this you are referred to a still more remote act, until, as one of the new Councillors said to me the other day, by the time you get to the fountain-head of all your references you have entirely forgotten what was the exact subject of inquiry that started you on your search. But this is as nothing compared to the greater difficulty that envelops the question of the election of Aldermen. In this connection a trouble arises which threatens to exhaust the Councillors even before they have begun their active work. It will be sufficient here to speak of the difficulty in London alone, where, after all, the new experiment in municipal government is of paramount interest, since for the first time all the many parishes, villages, and districts into which London has hitherto been divided are consolidated into one great whole. Here nineteen Aldermen are to be elected by the County Councillors; so far the act is clear. But how they are to be selected is a point upon which it is no less vague than if this election had been as unforeseen as the explosion of the bomb on London Bridge. A man who is qualified to be a Councillor is qualified to be an Alderman, it says; and, in a parenthesis, as it were, I might add that to make out the exact qualifications of a Councillor means a ramble of some length through more than one Blue Book. This, of course, the Councillors are supposed to know, but their knowledge is little help to them, for they have at once to decide if they are to select the Aldermen from outside or inside the Council. If they choose the latter alternative, in nineteen constituencies the arduous work of canvassing must recommence, another election must be gone through, and, more important still, there is the risk of several seats being lost by the Liberals, who are not anxious to sacrifice the majority they have just gained. It may be said that the elections have tested the Liberal strength of these constituencies, and that therefore no risk is run. But the Liberals cannot afford to be too sure. In many districts the number of voters was small, though it is not in every case possible to tell whether this smallness was due to actual indifference or to the unreliability of the registration list. In Stepney, for example, the names of 1,000 people no longer living there were still on the list, so that the votes seemed fewer than they really were. But, however this may be, there is no doubt that throughout London interest has only just been aroused in the Council, and consequently a new victory would not be won on such easy terms. Already many of the Councillors have declined to be nominated for Aldermen, because they knew their constituencies would seriously object to it.

On the other hand, there is a widespread feeling that these very important positions should not be given to men who have not, by a direct appeal through the ballot-box, proved that they possess the confidence of the people, or who, by failure in the late election, have shown conclusively that they do not possess it. The election, indeed, has been a very good test, since almost all those Londoners who would be willing to accept the position of Alderman have already figured among the candidates for the County Council. This question is exceedingly difficult to answer; but even here the difficulty does not cease. Of the Aldermen who are now elected, ten will remain in office for six years; nine for three years; but, until the nineteen have been duly elected, votes cannot be given for those who are to enjoy the long term. The consequence is that many busy men who might otherwise consent to be at least nominated, now refuse because of this uncertainty; they must be sure beforehand of the exact conditions of time of the work they are now undertaking. That the Councillors, who have anything but an easy task before them, should have been placed in such a dilemma at the very outset, is simply unpardonable. In the country the matter has been decided in many different ways; in some counties all the Aldermen have been taken from outside, in others from inside the Council; in a few a compromise has been made, and this is probably what will be done in London. The chances are that nine Councillors and ten men from outside their body will be chosen. The report of the election may reach New York before this letter, but its full significance cannot be realized unless something is known of the difficulties which preceded it.

The next complication has been caused by the election of the two women. Here also the act is vague. As far as the average man can find out, it says nothing to prove positively that women are not qualified to be Councillors; but, again, it says nothing to prove that they are. Because of this vagueness, an admirable opportunity seemed to present itself at the late elections to test woman's political rights. Very much to the perplexity of their electors and political supporters, Miss Cobden and Lady Sandhurst were returned. The one merit upon which they both stood was their sex; beyond this, their only recommendations were, in Miss Cobden's case, her father's name and a very striking face; in Lady's Sandhurst's, the friendship of Mrs. Gladstone and the power of healing by the laying on of hands. But their competency was not for a moment considered. Already Mr. Beresford-Hope, a defeated candidate in Brixton, the district which returned Lady Sandhurst, has declared his intention of lodging an objection against her eligibility. If he gains his suit, another delicate question will have to be answered by Miss Cobden and her friends, even if her right to a seat in the Council is not directly contested. Should she, after her splendid victory, resign, or should she remain in the Council, liable as she would be by a provision of the act—if Lady Sandhurst's case proves that a woman is not qualified to be a Councillor—to a fine of £50 every time she voted? It is not likely that the most enthusiastic Woman's League or Association would accept the responsibility of such an expensive triumph; and, while I know nothing of Miss Cobden's private means, I am quite certain that the wealthiest would find £50 a vote a very heavy tax.

There is another point which is being disputed by the Councillors, though the public has heard comparatively little about it, and which will probably, like the woman question, have to be carried into the courts. From the wording of the ingenious bill it cannot be decided whether the County Councillors for London are to elect a chairman who need not be a Councillor and who is to be paid, a Vice-Chairman who must be a Councillor and is not to be paid, and in addition to these two officers, a Deputy-Chairman who is to be paid—Councillors and Aldermen, of course, are not to receive pay; in a word, no one in London can tell you to how many chairmen the County Council is entitled. Neither can any one yet say where the new Councillors are to meet; they are at present as much adrift as the poor Socialists who wander about with their red flag from one open space to another.

That all these difficulties have to be surmounted, all these questions satisfactorily and legally answered before any other work can be undertaken, is a serious drawback to a body of men from whom much is expected. The worst of it is, that when these preliminary matters are found to be in such a muddle, one cannot but look for a new crop of difficulties and questions to spring up as soon as the Council meets in April. Instead of the much-hoped-for immediate improvement in the Board of Works, there will be for an interval but confusion and dissensions in the new municipal government. Before order and peace have been restored on the surface there will have been time for many to discover, as the *Spectator* at least has already discovered, what a city London is to plunder! The old Board of Works was so rotten that even the City Corporation would have nothing to do with it; the honesty of the new Council has yet to be proved. One thing seems certain: the Councillors who are for plunder all inclined, will find the opportunities made to their hand, for the modern Englishman, despite the scandals in the Board of Works, in the Admiralty, in the War Office, has a firm belief that the politician can do no wrong. Altogether, some of our American wire-pullers and "bosses" who are out of work at home, might do worse than to look in on the London County Council. In three years, with another election, they might even have a chance to pull the wires from the inside, for if Scotchmen can be elected, why not Americans? And probably before it could be decided whether they had a right to be there, with their usual smartness they could have made off with a goodly share of the plunder. Certainly Buffalo Bill, with his big hat, or Mr. Blaine, with his peculiar record, would have a fair chance in Belgravia or Bayswater, for there is nothing which rouses the Englishman's enthusiasm so much as notoriety, especially if it be of American origin and doubtful quality. At all events, now is the moment for the Irish-American to come back to the mother country and claim his own and take somebody else's.

Correspondence.

GOVERNMENT AND RAILROADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Two pieces of reading coming together have furnished me with a new text for the eternal lesson which I am trying to enforce. One is a pamphlet published, in reply to the inquiries of numerous alarmed stockholders, by John M. Forbes, who has been identified with the management of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad from the start, and C. E. Perkins, the actual President of that road. I believe there is no road in the country more

skilfully, and I am sure there is none more honestly, managed than the C., B. and Q. The taste and temper of the pamphlet leave nothing to be desired, but I am at present concerned with only one feature of it. Mr. Forbes says: "The chief danger of railroads to-day (an artificial and unnecessary one) is from unwise and artificial legislation by Congress and State Governments"; and Mr. Perkins, after setting forth the difficulties which railroads have to contend with, says in plain terms that one of the greatest is the unwise and impractical character of the Inter-State Commerce Law.

I place this pamphlet alongside of the wonderful book of Mr. James Bryce, which I am tempted to say is the most valuable political work published in this country in this century. In analyzing successively the Federal, State, and municipal governments he shows that they are all conducted on the same plan, with entire absence of executive leadership and responsibility—or indeed of any kind—all power being in the hands of numerous committees, secret, irresponsible, jarring, and constantly dissolving and reforming anew, upon every kind of consideration except the public interest. And after each description comes the same refrain: "A European is led to ask, How can such a government be made to work at all?" And then he goes into a somewhat elaborate statement of reasons why it does work better than might be expected. The fact is, it does not work at all. The condition of our legislation and, therefore, in an increasing degree, of administration, may be described as anarchy tempered by local self-government and the conservatism and law-abiding habits of the people.

While this anarchy is undermining many interests, in none are its effects more potent and glaring than the railroad system. If the great railroads do not wish to be carried down by this anarchy into utter chaos, this is the point to which they will have to direct their efforts. If the Union Pacific wishes to get a settlement of its debt relation to the Government, if the Northern Pacific wishes to get its land grant on a stable basis, if all the railroads wish to get a basis of combination by which, like men walking on slippery ice, they can stand by holding each other up, they have got to give up lobbying with committees as a broken reed and a hopeless resource, and set themselves to procuring the establishment of some efficient and responsible authority to which they can appeal. The case might be definitely stated thus:

"What we require is an agent known to be impartial, and occupying a position of commanding influence, who will examine into and formulate our wants in a shape consistent with the public interest; an agent who shall prepare and bring forward at the opening of the next session of Congress a measure embodying these wants, not to be thrust at once into a committee, to take its chance with some thousands of other measures in forty other committees, but to be taken up and discussed by Congress as a body, and back of that by the press of the country; an agent who, by the full weight of official and personal influence, shall hold the discussion to that particular measure, and exert himself, with the aid of independent supporters, to force it through, and who, existing by virtue of his office (as it was said, "The King of France never dies"), would be always ready to carry it on to amendment and greater perfection."

Such an agent is ready to their hands in the Secretary of the Interior, and the mode of operation is fully indicated in the report of February 4, 1887, signed by eight Senators of both parties. Of one thing the railroads can be certain, that if anything can save them, this will; and if this will not save them, nothing can.

G. B.

Boston, February 11, 1889.

THE FARMERS AND THE PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Jessup's comments in the *Nation* of January 31, on Mr. Whittlesey's suggestions as to ways of reaching the farming population, underestimate the difficulty of influencing them—in Michigan at least. So far as its circulation goes, all the tariff-reform articles that could be written would not do away with the pernicious hypocrisy of the New York *Independent*. No ignorant Catholic ever accepted more seriously the teaching of his priest than very many moral and religious people accept and believe the sophistry of the "amusing old moralist" of the *Independent*. The *Advance* of Chicago is but little if any better. So much for the religious press.

As to the secular press, about every local Republican paper in the State is under a protectionist censorship, that renders it next to impossible to procure the insertion of an article that in any degree argues against the most extreme idea of protection. So long as Alger, Blodgett, McMillan, and Stockbridge control the Republican party in Michigan, any hope of teaching our farmers correct tariff ideas through the medium of local Republican papers is idle. There are, of course, many of our local papers that I do not see, but I know of but one Republican paper in the State, the Coldwater *Republican*, that will tolerate in its columns any editorial or correspondence that advocates any concession whatever from the most ultra theory of protection. Serious boycotts are not infrequent against papers in small towns that show the least tendency favoring a lowering of tariff rates. Perhaps a fair idea of the ignorance and intolerance of the Republican farmers of Eaton County may be obtained when we consider that, so far as they understand it, they *en masse* approve of the tariff bill recently passed by the Senate.—Respectfully yours,

H. J. Martin.

Vermontville, Mich., February 4, 1889.

NEWSPAPER INACCURACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Newspapers, by seizing, as they often do, with uncritical and unscholarly avidity, upon anything that will answer for copy to fill out a page or a column, are the great disseminators of error. Hitherto, so far as I am aware, no one has undertaken to gauge this inaccuracy, and to show just what percentage of error we may expect the average newspaper item to contain. A few days ago, however, Prof. William Hoover, of the Ohio University, found, in the Cincinnati *Times-Star* for January 18, a series of items under the caption "Friday for Luck," that seemed especially amenable to a test. Dates were assigned to a number of notable events that were said to have taken place on Friday. Not willing to believe and take for granted, Dr. Hoover examined and carefully verified the dates. He found that out of nineteen of these events, one fell on Sunday, three on Monday, four on Tuesday, two on Wednesday, one on Thursday, and only six on Friday. In reference to the main statement, that the events fell on Friday, there was thus less than 32 per cent. of accuracy, while, as two of these events were assigned to the wrong month and day of the month, the percentage of accuracy should really be put down to very nearly 21 per cent. From this computation alone it would appear that of what we see in newspapers we might believe one-fifth, if we only knew beforehand which was the credible fifth.

Since many of our teachers, both secular and religious, and even some widely quoted bookmakers like Samuel Smiles and William Mathews, depend upon such sources for their facts, it is of the utmost importance to eliminate these errors by exposing them and putting people on their guard against them. The average man, on whom we depend for the future success of our democratic institutions, will never think correctly, and hence never make a good citizen, until he knows something of the truth, until he has some correct data on which to base his reasoning.

In this matter of the day of the week, however—a matter so easily verified by simply allowing for the difference between old and new style—it is only fair to add that newspapers are not the only culprits. No less a person than our own Washington Irving says that it was Sunday, the 25th of September, 1492, on which arose that marvellous swelling of the sea, without wind, which Columbus records as a special interposition of Providence "to allay the rising clamors of his crew." But unfortunately for Irving's accuracy, the 25th of September fell on Wednesday. Errors like this are trifles in the case of such a literary artist, though trifles make or mar perfection; in the case of the newspaper, however, they are the straws that show the direction of the current.

Edward P. Anderson.

Ohio University, February 4, 1889.

EXCESSIVE CHARGES FOR TRANSPORTATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a late number you maintain strongly that it is the duty of persons suffering from overcharges, insolence, and other forms of oppression to "kick." You urge that the oppressor argues from our American charity, "bearing all things" with silent fortitude, that we, the people, rather like it; and you insist that a part of our debt to society is invariably, systematically, quickly, continuously, and powerfully "to kick."

I bought from a prominent New York house a roll of floor matting for $10. The Southern Express Company charged me $4.15 to carry it to Pensacola, or nearly 6 cents a pound. When I complained, the company said that was their usual charge.

I bought in Rochester, N. Y., twenty-six ounces of tobacco. The same company charged me 65 cents to carry it to Pensacola, or 2½ cents an ounce.

I had a box of books weighing 150 pounds sent from Springfield, Mo. Charge to Pensacola $11.20, or 7¼ cents a pound.

A railroad is a highway, therefore robbery on a railroad is highway robbery. Blackstone defines robbery to be a taking from the person by violence or putting in fear. The money came from my pocket, and I am afraid. I am so badly scared that hereafter my ounces will come by mail and my pounds by freight. If people will generally avoid giving business to the express company combination, they will find that the cost of transportation will fall.

Φ Φ

St. Andrew's Bay, Fla., January 31, 1889.

PHILOSOPHICAL ACUMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of November 22, 1888, a correspondent gave a striking illustration of

the "want of philosophical acumen" on the part of Lord Lytton in his 'Last Days of Pompeii' (Book ii, chap. 4) with regard to Italy's "blind policy" of unification; and he referred at the same time to the quotation by another correspondent in the *Nation* of May 24, 1888, of a passage in a speech by Lord Macaulay in 1845, which contained a prophecy that the black population of Brazil would be freed before that of the United States.

It is refreshing to find occasionally an instance of genuine "philosophical acumen" in writers neither "novelists nor historians," and far removed from the world of practical politics.

In Jacob Grimm's 'Kleinere Schriften' (vol. i, Berlin, 1864), in a lecture delivered before the Berlin Academie der Wissenschaften, December 5, 1844, "Italienische und Scandinavische Eindrücke," he says, page 78, of Italy:

"Was auch kommender Zeiten Schoss in sich berge, die Macht, deren Flamme wir noch aufflackern sehn, wird nicht ewig über ihm lasten; und wenn Friede und Heil des ganzen Welttheils auf Deutschlands Starke und Freiheit beruhen, so muss sogar diese durch eine in den Knoten der Politik noch nicht abzusehende, aber dennoch mögliche Wiederherstellung Italiens bedingt erscheinen."

J. H. Senger.

University of California, January 26, 1889.

THE SPURIOUS SHELLEY LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Such, as you are aware, is the designation generally given to a collection of twenty-five letters published, in 1852, by Mr. Robert Browning, with an "Introductory Essay" which assumes their genuineness. Having no access to anything that has been written on the subject of those letters, I am, however, quite uninformed as to what portion of them, if any, abjudicated from Shelley, has been traced to its real author or authors. It may be, therefore, that I have been forestalled in what I am about to show, and it would, indeed, be somewhat strange if the case were otherwise. Should you know that I am retelling an old tale, what I now write is, of course, to be considered as unwritten.

Letter iv., occupying pp. 59–63, is, with the exception of its postscript, to be found in vol. xlviii., pp. 491, 492, of the *Monthly Magazine* (1819). In pp. 59 and 61, parts of the magazine article are omitted.

In Letter xiv., all from the first paragraph in p. 104 to the end of p. 106 is taken from the same periodical, vol. xlvi., p. 112 (1818).

The end of Letter xvii., from "It would be" to "political expedience," pp. 127, 128, is also abstracted from vol. xlvi , p. 214.

All the plagiarized passages mentioned above are transcribed literally from the 'Physico-moral and Political Illustrations and Apophthegms; written in the year 1797,' by John Lawrence. Quite possibly a close examination of these Illustrations and Apophthegms, of which I may not have seen the whole, would lead to discoveries additional to those which have been indicated.

Of John Lawrence, an intrepid logician and vigorous writer, some account was furnished by himself, in 1818, as a prefatory note to his speculations contributed to the *Monthly Magazine*. From that account, mainly, I take what here follows.

The time of his birth, which he does not specify, must have been not long before the middle of the last century; since he states that his first literary efforts, poetical, were made between 1767 and 1770. We are not informed whether he put in print any of what he calls his "heroics and madrigals." He goes on to say: "During the years 1774 and 1775, I was so situated as to have access to a very extensive American correspondence; and I afterwards wrote, occasionally, on that unfortunate international dispute which, nevertheless, ended fortunately for both nations." Between 1784 and 1795 he published, without his name, various tracts and treatises, political and miscellaneous. Veterinary science and agriculture subsequently engaged his attention, as five octavo volumes and one quarto, besides sundry pamphlets, bear ample witness. Then followed two anonymous volumes which he does not characterize. Of his contributions to the periodical press he speaks as if they may have been of considerable extent.

The work by which Lawrence is best known is his quarto on the horse, which came out in 1809.

In 1818, and several years later, he was living in Somers Town, a quarter of London. Further particulars about him I have no present means of ascertaining.

As regards his very unconventional opinions, theological and political, there are few of them in which Shelley would not have heartily acquiesced.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, January 26, 1889.

Notes.

Prof. J. J. Rein's 'Industries of Japan,' a work inspired and supported by the Prussian Government, has been translated with the author's coöperation, and will shortly be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son. The work has regard to the agriculture, mining, forestry, arts, and commerce of Japan.

'Home Gymnastics for the Well and the Sick,' from the German of Angerstein and Eckler; 'A Quaker Girl of Nantucket,' by Mary Catherine Lea; 'The Immanent God, and Other Sermons,' by the Rev. A. W. Jackson; and 'The American Book of Church Services,' by the Rev. Edward Hungerford, are the newest announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The same firm will at an early date publish in four volumes the works of the late Rowland G. Hazard of Providence, edited by his granddaughter, Miss Caroline Hazard.

Brentano will shortly issue 'The Romance of an Alter Ego,' by Gen. Lloyd Brice; 'Frederick Struther's Romance,' by Albert Ulmann; 'The Seldens in Chicago: a Domestic Tale'; and 'Where the Trout Hide,' by Kit Clarke.

'Gertrude's Marriage,' from the German of W. Heimburg, is in the press of Worthington Co.

Dr. Georg Brandes was invited two winters ago to give a course of lectures in French at St. Petersburg and Moscow. On his return, he published a volume of 'Impressions' of life and literature in Russia. With the author's approval and personal supervision, Mr. Samuel C. Eastman of Concord, N. H., has translated this volume into English, and it will be published shortly by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Mr. Ivan Panin, Wellesley, Mass., will print his lectures on Russian Literature delivered before the Lowell Institute, Boston, in a style uniform with his translations from Pushkin, as soon as he procures enough subscribers at $2 per volume. Names should be sent to the above address before April 1.

Bromfield & Co. will henceforth be the publishers of the Family Biography of Henry Ward Beecher, and will undertake to complete his 'Life of Christ.'

Cupples & Hurd, Boston, announce as in preparation six Adirondack tales in as many volumes, emulating Cooper's Leatherstocking series, by W. H. H. Murray.

Peter Paul & Bro., Buffalo, publish immediately 'The Champions of Agrarian Socialism, and their Teaching,' from the German of the Rev. V. Cathrein, S. J.

There is no good reason for the existence of 'The Story of Thomas Carlyle,' by A. S. Arnold (Scribner & Welford). In his preface the author says: "Intense sympathy and admiration is my excuse for my presumption in dealing with so great a hero." We fear his "grim" hero would have been the last to accept such an excuse for such a book, not one-third of which justifies its title. The leading events of Carlyle's life are told fairly enough, though with a sad lack of order and perspective. But two-thirds of the 371 pages are made up of undiscriminating panegyric, much tiresome moralizing, and much futile literary criticism. The style is of the exclamatory, or the interrogative-exclamatory, order, and the English is neither elegant nor accurate.

'In Pursuit of a Shadow' is the attractive title of a small volume in which a "lady astronomer" describes the experiences of herself and a friend during their trip from England to Russia to observe the solar eclipse of 1887. There is nothing distinctively astronomical in their journey from Hull to Christiania, thence to Stockholm, St. Petersburg, and Moscow; but in spite of rather long sentences and a style slightly involved, the story is pleasantly told, with an agreeable touch of humor now and then. At Pogost the party awaited the eclipse, enshrouded to them, as it was to most of the other expectant observers, in clouds and disappointment. The closing chapter, chiefly upon Nizhni-Novgorod and Smolensk, brings them safely back to English soil at Dover. The volume is published in London by Trübner & Co.

'Cram's Standard American Atlas of the World' for 1889 comes to us from Wm. M. Goldthwaite, 19 Park Place. It is of a class of business atlases which do not recommend themselves by cartographical excellence, but which attain their end if (in the case of the United States), with a reasonable regard for geographic accuracy, they display clearly the greatest number of towns and railroad stations, the railroads themselves, the respective express lines, the county divisions, etc. For ready reference, a State index exhibits for each town the location on the map, population, railway, number of banks, and postal and money-order offices. This Atlas seems to us as good as any that we have examined.

A monograph upon the 'Fragments of Heraclitus,' by Dr. G. T. W. Patrick, published under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, is a fresh illustration of the encouragement which that institution gives to scholarly work.

Last year we were struck at first glance with the quality of 'Longmans' School Grammar,' by David Salmon, as being superior to any work of the kind we had ever met with. Since then this text-book has found its way into practical use in our schools, and has proved to be what we suspected on the face of it. We are glad to receive now from the Messrs. Longman a 'Junior Grammar' by the same author, in pursuit of the same scheme, and serving as an introduction to the larger work. We commend it heartily to the attention of teachers. Think of the old-style grammar beginning with a solemn definition of Grammar, and then judge of Mr. Salmon's method from his opening words: "(Nouns.) In the following sentences pick out all names of persons."

Shakspere's "Cymbeline," Jeremy Taylor's

'Holy Living,' more of Plutarch's Lives, Dryden's Discourses on Satire and on Epic Poetry, and 'The Amber Witch,' are the latest of the little volumes, richly freighted, which compose "Cassell's National Library."

We have had for some time on our table the first volume of the Final Report of the State Geologist of New Jersey. The survey of the State was ordered in 1864, and at the end of a quarter of a century the work is done. The great Atlas of New Jersey is the first achievement of its kind in the history of the republic—a splendid product of Federal and State collaboration. Two maps based upon it accompany the present volume—one civil and one topographical. The topics treated are Topography, Magnetism, and Climate, and a very large part of the text is readable and extremely interesting. Historical and antiquarian research has been so freely employed that the classification of the Report in any library or catalogue should be at least two-fold. We cannot give any adequate idea of the exhaustive contents under the above headings. It appears that boundary disputes between New Jersey and two of her neighbors, Delaware and New York, still exist. The copious illustrations of the climate for two and a half centuries do not show a secular change such as is often alleged. The geologic conditions appear to affect the magnetic declination. They have a direct and important influence upon vegetation and cultivation and population, as well as upon temperature—though the Report records in silence Peter Kalm's observations in the middle of the last century concerning the connection between cold nights in spring and summer and the occurrence of limestone. More than 600,000 inhabitants of New Jersey live within eighteen miles of the New York City Hall.

The Bureau of Education has added to its series of circulars edited by Dr. Herbert B. Adams—of which No. 1 dealt with the College of William and Mary, the second with Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia (and also with the other leading colleges of the same State)—a 'History of Education in North Carolina,' by Charles Lee Smith. Like the foregoing, it is fully illustrated. This series is well calculated to stimulate the South to renewed efforts in behalf of education, and to inspire the North with respect for the institutions already established.

The second issue of the *University Studies* of the University of Nebraska will most attract the ordinary reader by reason of Mr. L. A. Sherman's "Observations upon the Sentence-length in English Prose," an essay towards the discovery of the relation between mathematics and rhetoric, with a view to determining the laws of the latter. "Three hundred sentences," says Mr. Sherman, "will generally reveal the sentence-rhythm of any writer who has achieved a style."

Under the title, 'Fra Monache e Letterati: Contributo alla Storia dei Plagi,' Corrado Ricci tells in a diverting way of an unblushing appropriation of his labors among the archives of Ravenna by a Frenchman, one H. Gagnière (suggestive name), in his 'Confessions d'une abbesse du XIVe siècle.' The exposure is complete and crushing, but we can do no more than put the offender's name in the pillory as a pretender and a thief.

The catalogue of the Codici Palatini in the National Central Library of Florence has just completed its first volume. An index of authors and popularizers needs still another fascicule to complete it and to provide a preface for the volume.

Among the "Indici e Cataloghi" issuing from the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction is an 'Indice del Mare Magnum di Francesco Marucelli,' by Prof. Guido Biagi, librarian of the Florentine Marucelliana. Who this founder of a library dedicated "publicæ, maximæ pauperum, utilitati" was, Biagi tells in a few words, which were needed, seeing how little fame has done for the generous scholar, littérateur, and bibliographer, and how much he himself did to obliterate well-deserved praises. He died in Rome in 1703, at the age of seventy-eight, bequeathing his collection of books to Florence. His 'Mare Magnum' was a great scholarly commonplace book, with exact reference to the works in which each topic is discussed or illustrated. In its present shape it fills 111 volumes, and Prof. Biagi explains the obstacles to its being printed by Marucelli's heirs, in accordance with their intention. The present key to it takes it up volume by volume, printing the class heading and the topics in alphabetical order, and summing up the whole in one index. Biagi promises great and curious instruction to those who make use of it to explore the original work.

The last supplemental number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains the first part of Dr. Junker's account of his explorations in Central Africa. This treats of the hydrography, orography, and ethnography of the Welle-Makua region. It is accompanied by the southern portions of the large map, made on a scale of 1:750,000, by Dr. B. Hassenstein after Dr. Junker's observations. The southeastern part includes the western portion of Emin Pasha's province, showing the region—left mostly in blank, however—through which Stanley in all probability passed. The parts which show Dr. Junker's journeyings are a striking testimony to the extent and importance of his discoveries.

Turner demands fresh consideration, in one branch of his art, in Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse's twelfth paper on the "Early English Water-Color Painters" in the December *Portfolio* (Macmillan). The copy of his sepia sketch of a pilot-boat would dispense with any text; and there is given, besides, his view of Rome from Monte Mario, and his Newcastle-on-Tyne. In the January number Laurens's Mounet-Sully as *Hamlet* is etched effectively by Mlle. Poynot. Mr. Hamerton bestows what seems to us the artist's full meed of praise on M. Habert-Dys, whose decorative work abounds in *L'Art*, his patron. Mr. Hamerton praises the latter journal for its early perception of the talent of M. Renouard, now so familiar both in England and here.

Reviews of illustrated books, or what it calls "Notre Bibliothèque," agreeably diversify the closing numbers of *L'Art* (Macmillan) for 1888, and the first number of the new year (Nos. 588-591). M. Habert-Dys is seen at his best in the ornamental border in No. 589. A noticeable *eau-forte* by Mlle. Teyssonnières translates one of Julien Dupré's canvases, "The Gleaner." Striking, too, is the drawing of the front of the Duomo of Orvieto, by Lucien Hirtz. Among the leading articles we can mention only that on Liotard, the Swiss pastellist and miniaturist of the latter part of the eighteenth century, an amusing adventurer in many lands. His "Pretty Chocolate Girl," of the Dresden Museum, has done more for his immortality than all his portraits of greater celebrities. M. Henry de Chennevières writes very entertainingly about him.

The People's Cause, a journal of tariff reform, ballot reform, and civil-service reform, has just begun to be issued monthly at 330 Pearl St., with Mr. R. R. Bowker for its directing spirit. From the same establishment it is announced that 'The Cleveland Album: a Memorial of Four Years' Democratic Administration,' will be issued, with photo-engraved likenesses of President and Mrs. Cleveland, heads of departments, Speaker Carlisle, and other prominent supporters of the Government now on the verge of dissolution.

We are asked to announce that the following meetings will be held in Paris in connection with the great exposition during the coming summer, viz.: (1) Congress of Geography etc., August 5–12; (2) Association Française, 8–15; (3) Congrès d'Anthropologie, 19–26.

—The lawless and irrational character of English orthography has given rise not only to the spelling-reform movement, which is aimed at the root of the trouble, but also to more than one attempt at reform in the methods of introducing children to the art of reading and spelling under the existing orthographic régime. One well-known method, which finds great favor among some at least of the leading authorities in pedagogy, consists in teaching the child to recognize a word as a whole, without reference to its component letters. In the February number of *Babyhood* Mr. Louis Heilprin proposes "A Reformed Primer," the idea of which is the exact opposite of the method just described. He thinks that by careful selection of such words as are spelt phonetically, the pupil might easily learn the art of reading, in its essential character; and he shows that even with our unfortunate orthography we have a large stock of words suitable for this purpose. He would begin with words in which the successive enunciation of the names of the letters is almost equivalent to the pronunciation of the word; such words as *fox*, *find*. He would then introduce words which do not enjoy this advantage, but which are, nevertheless, phonetically written; and afterwards, step by step, introduce the more regular and systematic variations from phonetic representation. The idea is worked out in considerable detail; the acute remarks and well-chosen illustrations make the discussion of a subject which one would expect to find tedious, decidedly interesting. We think Mr. Heilprin has gone far towards making out a case for the advantages of the scheme he proposes, and that his article is well worth the attention of those interested in this branch of pedagogy.

—The number of pamphlets on railroad matters is large. One of the most practical among them is a description of the English railway clearing-house, by Edward McDermott, F.S.S., originally published by the *Railway News* of London, and reprinted by H. V. & H. W. Poor. This organization, which has been described in the *Evening Post* through a letter from Mr. McDermott himself, is a wonderful product of English administrative skill. Originating on a small scale at the beginning of 1842, it gradually extended itself over the whole country, and has proved most useful in every respect. It gives shippers of goods and parcels a responsible authority with which to deal, instead of allowing their complaints to be shifted from one company to the other, as is too often the case here. To the railroads themselves it furnishes a means of economy, by allowing settlements through balances and book accounts instead of direct cash payments. As a means of maintaining rates its importance is perhaps exaggerated. During a large part of the time when the clearing-house was in active and successful operation, rate wars were by no means unknown, and when they were finally stopped it was by consolidation or pooling rather than by the action of the clearing-house itself. We also note that Mr. McDermott is in error in some of his more general statements not directly connected with the operation of the clearing-

house—for instance, where he says that it may be assumed approximately that the average distance travelled by each passenger on the railways of the United Kingdom is seventeen miles. This figure is much too large, although, in the absence of detailed statistics, it is impossible to say exactly what it ought to be.

—Most of the other pamphlets deal with the reasons for the unsatisfactory financial condition of American railroads to-day. Mr. Henry Wood of Boston, author of 'Natural Law in the Business World,' gives a plea for the "Long-Suffering Shareholder," against the abuses of Directors on the one hand and Commissioners on the other. The same general subject is treated by Daniel S. Remsen, in an able paper read before the State Bar Association, on "The Security of Railway Investments." The chief merit of Mr. Remsen's paper is its clear recognition of the fact that abuses must be met by prevention rather than by direct remedy. The railroad laws of most States are of such a character as to give every opportunity for abuses. It is by change in the laws which shall give greater safeguards to the investor that we must seek reformation, rather than by directing our attacks against the directors themselves. Mr. Charles Blair is so impressed by the inadequacy of State laws that he goes one step further, and offers a series of suggestions for the incorporation of railroads under the direct authority of the United States rather than by State charters. On the other hand, Joseph Nimmo, jr., long at the head of the Bureau of Statistics of the Interior Department, in a paper on "Cost of Transportation and Freight Charges," pleads strongly for less interference instead of more; his underlying thought being that the rate-maker has no power arbitrarily to determine rates, but is dealing with forces beyond his control. The proper function of the Inter-State Commerce Commission is to see that, in the exercise of this limited authority, he does not make unjust discriminations. We fear, however, that the tendency of the times is towards more legislation rather than less.

—In the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* for December, C. F. Müller publishes the memorial presented by him in 1886 to the Prussian Minister of Instruction, embodying a plan for the preparation of a general catalogue of all the *Programm-abhandlungen* issued by the higher schools of Germany. The Minister seems to have been of the opinion that were such a work desirable it might very well be undertaken by some publishing firm without Government aid, but no publisher has yet been found willing to take the risk. The author of the plan now submits it to the criticism of those interested, in the hope of receiving their support in getting it carried out. It appears that from 1824 to 1875 it was required by law in Prussia, and in most of the German States as well, that the annual school programme should be accompanied by a scientific or learned dissertation; and though since 1875 this supplement is no longer obligatory, it is still customary. The annual cost of these *Programm-abhandlungen* in Prussia alone is estimated to be at the present time about thirty-six thousand dollars. This mass of material, thus issued at so great an expense—the number of these programmes published since 1824 cannot be less than thirty thousand—lies buried and forgotten in the recesses of great libraries. Practically, it is inaccessible to ordinary students, for though several catalogues exist of the programmes issued during particular periods, or in certain States, these catalogues are not only incomplete and inaccurate, but for the most part have themselves been published only in the form of *Programm-abhandlungen*, and have shared the fate of their kind. To catalogue properly even the current issues of these programmes is a burdensome task to libraries which receive them, for probably no other class of works offers so many difficulties to the cataloguer, while the time spent upon them is, in most cases, out of all proportion to their literary or scientific value. Certainly most American librarians would consider themselves fully justified were they to deal with them as Mr. Dewey does with his pamphlets—that is, mark each one with a class number denoting its subject, pile them away on the shelves with the books on similar subjects, and allow them to be their own catalogue. At any rate, it is doubtful whether, for the sake of the few grains of wheat possibly hidden in bushels of chaff, it be worth while to drag from their dusty restingplaces, classify, and catalogue this host of perfunctory productions. Dr. Müller, however, thinks otherwise, and proposes a coöperative plan according to which each institution shall be required to prepare and send to the Minister of Instruction a complete catalogue of all its programmes; these separate catalogues are then to be combined by a competent editor in a general classified catalogue. To carry out such a plan it is evident that Government aid and influence are necessary; whether they will be forthcoming seems doubtful.

—The articles in the January number of the *Centralblatt* have mainly an antiquarian interest. Thus we are given the first instalment of an elaborate paper on the manuscripts and editions of the pseudo-Aristotelian treatise "Secretum secretorum"; an enumeration of the early editions of the Psalter which contain a German version; a full collation of a German codex now in the Salzburg library; and a brief statement of facts concerning the lost "Memoria" of Velasquez, which Adolf de Castro asserts that he discovered in printed form in 1871, with reasons for doubting Castro's discovery. In the department of library news a large space is given to recent reports of American libraries.

—A week or two before the late election in Paris, there appeared all of a sudden in the streets a great number of hawkers, offering for sale at five centimes a white-covered pamphlet entitled 'Le Brav' Général Barbenzingue.' This proved to be not, as one would naturally think, an attack on Boulanger. It was Freycinet whose caricature embellished the cover of the pamphlet, and he was surrounded by MM. Floquet, Jules Ferry, Clémenceau, and other anti-Boulangists. It soon became known that the opponents of the "brav' général" had been forestalled. They had invented the nickname Barbenzingue, and arranged with the publishing house of A. Lévy & Cie. for the publication once a week of a set of comic tableaus of Boulanger's daily life under the title that we have given above. By some indiscretion their plan was disclosed, and the Boulangists, under the direction of M. Paul Deroulède, took the wind out of their sails by stealing their title and getting out a pamphlet in the opposite sense under it. This has not, however, prevented the publication of the tableaus as proposed. They appear under the title of 'Le Vrai Général Barbenzingue,' and consist of mildly amusing dialogue, with clever illustrations in outline. It is reported that A. Lévy & Cie. will bring a suit against M. Deroulède.

—Those who are curious about the 'Rig-Veda' are now enabled to read the whole of it in English. On the penultimate volume of the translation of it mainly executed by the late Professor H. H. Wilson, of Oxford, we reported briefly in No. 1198 of the *Nation*. The greater part of that volume was the work of its editors, Professor E. B. Cowell and Mr. W. F. Webster. Of the sixth and last volume, published, like the two preceding it, by Trübner & Co., of London, Mr. Webster has had the sole editorial charge. Otherwise than was the case with the fifth volume, the rough version prepared by Professor Wilson was here left complete. This its editor has given as he found it, with the exception of correcting its obvious misrenderings, and of conforming it, by occasional indispensable alterations, to the interpretation of the commentator Sâyana, whom the Professor avowedly aimed to follow, and, so far as he understood his guide, did follow. Welcome as is his translation, something different is required, however, and, in time, doubtless will be forthcoming, towards a right appreciation of the ancient original. Simplicity of style was, of course, to be expected; and we have instead a stateliness of diction, not to say stiltedness, such as might have been looked for in a representment of Homer by Gibbon or Dr. Johnson. Moreover, modern criticism is often competent to convict Sâyana of misprision; somewhat as, at the present day, scholars are in a position to demonstrate that Spenser and his Elizabethan contemporaries in some instances misapprehended Chaucer. Yet, even from the 'Rig-Veda' as we already have it in our mother tongue, one can, no question, form a substantially accurate notion of the fancies entertained by the early Hindus touching matters supramundane. To fathom those fancies has long been to many a subject of profound interest. As we near this consummation, however, the interest which was formerly so eager, is rapidly abating. The conclusion which, on exploring the oldest of the Indian scriptures, impartial investigators have arrived at may be summed up in a very few words. It seems to be little more than that the theology, including both Brahmanism and Buddhism, of the Indo-Aryans and countless of their neighbors, took its rise from a fatuity of childishness trenching close on the inconceivable, and only slightly less absurd than the dreams of ordinary barbarians.

BANCROFT'S CALIFORNIA.—I.

California. Vol. VI. (1848–1859). [History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vol. XVIII.] San Francisco: The History Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. xii, 787.

THIS sixth volume of Bancroft's History of California is concerned with the most important portion of the whole subject, the story of the young commonwealth from the moment of the discovery of gold to the death of Senator Broderick in 1859. The scale on which the book is written changes with the times. We have no longer the exhaustive minuteness of detail found in the earlier volumes, since the very complexity of the life of the gold period forbade the writers engaged upon these years to hope for completeness. The result has in fact been that they have contented themselves with a comparatively limited selection from the vast wealth of material at their disposal. No general reader, and possibly no subscriber to Mr. Bancroft's series, will lament this condensation; and doubtless many would have been glad of the same thing in earlier volumes. But at any rate plenty of room is left for future local historians. As to one of the most noteworthy matters in the whole history, the development of popular justice in the mines and in the great cities, this volume is especially

brief, the fuller account of the subject having been recently given in the two bulky volumes of the same series on 'Popular Tribunals'—volumes which we may notice hereafter. The present volume discusses in particular the early history of mining, from Marshall's discovery down, the growth of the cities and towns, the organization of the State Government, the character of society in the first few years, the struggles over the settlement of land titles, and the history of party warfare until the fatal duel between Terry and Broderick.

In beginning our comments, our memory naturally recurs to the earlier volumes of the series, and especially to the immediately previous one, containing the story of the conquest. This is, as we still feel, by far the strongest of Mr. Bancroft's series relating to California; and, as readers of our review of that volume may remember, we mentioned the tolerably strong case which Mr. Bancroft there makes out against the legend that England was on the very point of seizing California in 1846, when our naval force interposed to save for us the golden land. Since writing our review, a wholly new piece of evidence bearing on the subject has come into our hands, and we know of no better place than this for putting it on record, especially as it confirms Mr. Bancroft's view in quite an unexpected way. The turning-point of the whole story is this: In the early part of 1846 the beginning of the Mexican war was plainly very near. Commodore Sloat, in command of our fleet on the west coast, was lying in the harbor at Mazatlan with his flagship, the *Savannah*, waiting for news of the outbreak of hostilities. On May 17 he heard the first news of hostilities on the Rio Grande, and on May 31 wrote to the Secretary of the Navy that he was ready to sail immediately to take possession of the ports of California, in accordance with his well-known instructions of June 24, 1845. On further thought Sloat, with unpardonable timidity, resolved to wait for still more news before sailing, and actually, even after hearing of the capture of Matamoras, wrote to the Secretary on June 6 that he doubted his own authority to take the ports until a formal declaration of war should be certain. Not until the next day, June 7, did he make up his mind to leave, having received news of the blockade of Vera Cruz (see Bancroft, vol. v, pp. 206, 207). Shortly before these dates Admiral Seymour, with the British flagship *Collingwood*, had been lying in the same harbor, apparently waiting for news. Not far from the time when Sloat set out for Monterey, Seymour sailed also. Of the date of Seymour's departure no record has hitherto appeared, but on the 16th of July Seymour reached Monterey, about a week after the American occupation had been proclaimed. The British and American ships exchanged courtesies, and then the *Collingwood* sailed for the Hawaiian Islands. These are the only known facts which form the basis for the legend that Seymour had long been under orders to seize California as soon as hostilities should break out between ourselves and Mexico, that he set sail upon hearing the news of Taylor's battles, that he raced with Sloat to Monterey, and that only the superior promptness, astuteness, and seamanship of our great hero, Sloat, combined with Capt. Frémont's courage on land, saved California from British occupation.

Mr. Bancroft's arguments, as given in vol. v, are doubtless sufficient to show the improbability of the legendary portion of this story. Our new piece of evidence, very slight, but very conclusive, relates to a little matter that has heretofore always been obscure, viz., the actual movements of the *Collingwood* at this time. "In reality," says Mr. Bancroft, vol. v, page 213, "little is known of the *Collingwood's* trip, except the date of her arrival at Monterey. Lieut. Fred Walpole of that vessel wrote 'Four Years in the Pacific'; but he pays little or no attention to politics, or to details of the vessel's movements." Anxious to discover further evidence, if any should be accessible, as to the cruise of the *Collingwood* upon this occasion, we were led some time since to inquire of Mr. Clements Markham, the well-known English author, who, as we chanced to learn, was in 1846 serving as a young midshipman on board Admiral Seymour's flagship. Mr. Markham was unable from memory to throw any new light upon the matter, but he was kind enough to communicate for us with Admiral Lord Alcester, who, as Lieut. Beauchamp Seymour, was flag-lieutenant to his own uncle, Admiral Seymour, at the time in question. Lord Alcester's statement, which he courteously sent to us through Mr. Markham, and which he consented to have published, speaks for itself. It is under date of May, 1887:

"I know for certain that Sir George Seymour never had orders to hoist the English flag in California, or to assume the protectorate of that dependency of Mexico in 1846, or at any other time. Neither was there a race between him and Commodore Sloat as to who would reach Monterey first. If we had wanted to precede the *Savannah* there, we should not have begun by going in an opposite direction for several days; for I see by my journal that we left Mazatlan (where the *Savannah* was) on the 24th of May, 1846, arrived at San Blas, which is to the southward, on the 27th, did not leave San Blas until June 13, and arrived in Monterey on July 16. Sir George Seymour treated me with confidence on public matters, and I was completely *au fait* of all questions with which he had to deal, and of the orders he received. He went to California to protect English commerce and interests."

Lord Alcester adds in substance that the immediate reason for going was the receipt of fresh news of the unsettled condition of the country in the north. That the *Collingwood* was at San Blas at the critical moment has been asserted in one or two versions of the story, but that she went there as late as May 24, and stayed until June 13, is quite new to history.

Legends have a fashion of dying hard, and doubtless this English episode in the story of the conquest will often hereafter be repeated and enjoyed. But if records are worth more than wild surmises, and if Lord Alcester's journal outweighs the bad memories of other men, then not only is Mr. Bancroft's view of this matter irrefutably established, but the "race" between Sloat and Seymour appears in a very amusing light. Instead of "outwitting" Seymour, and getting the start of him, Sloat stayed at Mazatlan two weeks after Seymour had left. Instead of going to Monterey at once, Seymour went to San Blas. In short, while the American hero of the great "race" was lying at anchor, his English competitor in the race was sailing the other way. The whole mass of tradition about the matter, from 1848 downwards, thus becomes another interesting example of the fallibility of memory and of the vitality of delusion.

We return to the volume immediately before us. On the whole, of course, in view of the great amount of research represented, we have here the best treatment extant of the years 1848-59 in their entirety for California. As to matters of detail, the elaborate description (pp. 168-190) of the new San Francisco of 1849, the chapter on the early cities of California (ch. xviii, pp. 446-480), and the very scholarly chapter on the Mexican Land Titles (ch. xx, pp. 529-581), are the most important treasures of information in the volume. The last-named chapter, probably from the same hand which is responsible for the clean work and sound results of vol. v, gives, so far as we know, the first accessible and fairly popular summary of all the main facts of that land litigation which for a quarter of a century meant so much evil to California. The most noteworthy cases are summarized in fine print, and in alphabetical order. The conflicting interests concerned are stated with impartiality, and the conclusions are cautiously drawn. As to more attractive topics, the chapters on the gold discovery, on the Constitutional Convention of 1849, on the mining life, and on the filibustering expeditions of Raousset and Walker, are examples of the best. These more popular chapters are decidedly unequal. That one among Mr. Bancroft's collaborators who may best be known as the Rhetorician, is occasionally allowed a freedom which he has not heretofore enjoyed during the progress of this History of California. Elsewhere in the series, as in portions of the history of the northwest coast, this unfortunate person has played altogether too large a part, and one hates to have to meet him in a region which he has usually spared. Apart from his presence, however, one feels, even where one is most in doubt about agreeing with Mr. Bancroft, the great authority which the wide use of many sources of information gives the book.

Criticism occurs to us, however, with respect to the accuracy of the use of some of this material. Where many collaborators are responsible, inconsistencies must creep in; and the less critical workers may cite as authority what their betters elsewhere expressly declare to be worthless. A remarkable case is furnished by a booklet which, as this volume now stands, takes rather too dignified a place among the authorities bearing on the first summer of gold-mining. 1848 is, in comparison to later years, a poor year for sources of information. There were very few immigrants that year by way of the Plains; the gold excitement suspended for some time newspaper publication, as well as other ordinary means of recording events; and most people in California were too busy to write coherently. Mason's and Larkin's reports, Colton's diary, and a very few other sketches, tell us all that we know of what happened among the miners that summer and autumn. In view of this fact, the little pamphlet of thirty pages entitled 'Three Weeks in the Gold Mines,' purporting to be written by "Henry I. Simpson of the New York Volunteers," and published under date of 1848, by Joyce & Co. of New York, would seem to be a very useful addition to the slender material. Yet this work has lately been more than once declared a worthless fraud, written by a man who had never seen California. In particular, Mr. Bancroft's pioneer list, in vol. iv, under the name Simpson, curtly says that nothing besides the name can be discovered as bearing upon this person, and that probably the work was a forgery, concocted in New York. Yet, in the present volume, Simpson is several times cited as authority, *e. g.*, page 410, and, on page 97, a lengthy note gives a characterization of the pamphlet, in which it is taken in perfect good faith. Its pretentiousness is sharply criticised, as are also its entirely unauthentic illustrations, "but," says our author, "Mr. Simpson is not the only one who has attempted to enlighten the world respecting this region after a ten or twenty days' ride through it." The note closes with saying of Simpson that, notwithstanding all, "he printed a book on California gold in the year of its discovery, and

this atones for many defects. Had all done as well as this soldier-adventurer, we should not lack material for the history of California."

Lest some collector should be led by this remark of Mr. Bancroft's to regard this pamphlet as a treasure, and lest some student should cite it as characterizing correctly the glories of that first golden summer, let us call attention to pages 1 and 6 of Simpson's truthful tale. Page 1 relates how, on setting out from San Francisco for the mines, Simpson's party first passed through "flower-decked prairies" until they reached San José. Page 6, in describing the country more scientifically, says that "the valley of the Sacramento is connected with the head of the Bay of San Francisco by a delta some thirty miles in breadth, through the flowery meads of which, as I have already described, the first part of our pleasant journey lay. This delta is part of the fertile valley of San José." And so, as one sees, the Sacramento River empties into the Bay of San Francisco through a delta which lies between the towns of San Francisco and San José, and which, as page 1 tells us, is filled in August with murmuring and meandering streams, with flowers of every hue, and with several other objects well known to old-fashioned poetry. All this Simpson wrote within a few weeks from the time when, if he told the truth, he had actually ridden through the August dust and drought around the long Bay, and had found the Sacramento "delta" sixty or seventy miles distant from San José, and far to the northeast of San Francisco, while he had left San José fifty miles to the south of San Francisco. Just such geographical nonsense would be, of course, very easy if one was writing with the aid of a few books and a bad map in a far distant land. In short, Simpson, if that was his name, was a liar, and the truth was not in him, and he was probably in New York. And if he had ever seen California, he had forgotten it most thoroughly. What makes his book attractive, however, is its ingeniously circumstantial manner of narrating the wholly fictitious adventures of its heroes during their wanderings from Monterey to "Shastl Peak," as well as the artificial literary form, which throughout shows the trained and decidedly clever hack-writer. It is to be hoped that Simpson himself took the gold fever that his book was meant to produce, and, going to California, was hanged in due time under the shadow of "Shastl Peak," or elsewhere. Meanwhile he should not be quoted as authority for the life of the summer of 1848.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Man Story. By E. W. Howe. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Graysons: A Story of Illinois. By Edward Eggleston. With illustrations by Allegra Eggleston. The Century Co.

From Moor Isles. By Jessie Fothergill. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Our Phil, and Other Stories. By Katharine Floyd Dana. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

Behind Closed Doors. By Anna Katharine Green. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

The Son of a Star: A Romance of the Second Century. By Benjamin Ward Richardson. Longmans, Green & Co.

Mr. E. W. Howe is best known as the author of 'The Story of a Country Town,' which has won high praise from two critics who have not derived their knowledge of Western life solely from books and newspapers. When Mr. Howells and Mark Twain both certify that they have been struck by such a picture, we may be sure at least that it is worth looking at, especially when there is more agreement than we are wont to expect from critics as to what the features of the picture are. "Amid the prevailing harshness and *aridity*," says one of them, "there are episodes of tenderness and self-devotion that are like springs of water out of the ground." "Your pictures of the *arid* village life," says the other, "and the insides and outsides of its people, are vivid, and, what is more, true. I know, for I have seen it all, and lived it all." The aridity, it should be noticed, is inherent in the life described, and not in the author. What epithet would best mark the literary peculiarities of such a novel or sketch as 'A Man Story,' it is not easy to say. It is distinctly American, and it is distinctly queer. There is an atmosphere of pathos and humor combined with eccentricity which recalls Dickens—as, for instance, in the character of Joe Tack, so singularly occupied in writing spirit letters to himself from his departed wife—and again in the whole tone of the narrative, which is that of a boy relating the story of the older people with whom he lives. The plot deals with love, and is such a bewilderingly improbable story, redeemed by affecting touches, that the whole produces a sort of unearthly impression. Uncle Tom's obstinate repudiation of his wife is so wholly stupid and unnecessary that the reader wonders at times at his own interest in the story; yet we doubt if any one who reads half the book can refrain from finishing it.

The scene is laid in the very heart of the great Western divorce country—that is, somewhere where divorce is regarded as a natural consequence of any ill-assorted marriage, and where at the same time this does not interfere with a high development of fidelity and affection between those fortunately constituted mates who are designed for each other by nature. Combined with a good deal of literary cleverness, there is what an artist would complain of as a total lack of background. We feel that we are in a new place, in a society without any past, without any associations, in which (apart from the eternal passion which keeps the world going) there is nothing left of all that has made life interesting and attractive except railroads as a means of locomotion and "dry goods" as its object. The very language of the story is not the English of literature, but a curious mixture, in which a literary flavor contends with a strong disposition towards bad grammar. Altogether, is this a new species of literature, or is it merely a poor and outlandish species? Heaven forbid that we should find any fault with it as being Western. But what is it?

Mr. Eggleston's pictures of Western life are always worth reading. In 'The Graysons' he has introduced as one of his characters Abraham Lincoln—the main incident of the story being the acquittal of the hero of a charge of murder through Lincoln's dramatic exposure, on the trial, of the perjury of the principal witness for the prosecution. The plot of the story is simple enough, and is made the means of introducing us to Illinois life of a generation ago or more. The dialect is carefully given, and most of the characters drawn with distinct individuality and interest. The Graysons themselves, Tom, Barbara, and the old mother, are very well portrayed, and the attempts to lynch Tom furnish lively reading. Mr. Eggleston would probably disclaim all intention to idealize, nevertheless he contrives to infuse a dash of romance into early Western life which possibly is not true to nature, yet is not on that account necessarily reprehensible.

In 'From Moor Isles' there are two plots which ramble along side by side with a very loose bond of connection. The hero is the lover of a wicked but weak girl who, while secretly engaging herself to another, lures the devoted Brian Holgate to his ruin. This is effected by teaching him how to play poker, a game at which he is unmercifully "bluffed" by his astute rival, Dicky Law. He loses all he has in the world, including his paternal estate, Moor Isles, and at the same moment is made aware of the perfidy of the deceitful Lucy, and driven forth naked into the world. He is loved by the excellent Alice Ormerod, who has only one failing—that of unwittingly letting too many people into the secret of her love; and Alice saves him, gets him a position as secretary or assistant to a musical genius who is going to make the tour of the United States, and in the end he comes back to tell Alice of his changed fortunes and of his marriage to another—for Alice is one of those foredoomed to self-sacrifice and disappointment. The story terminates in a very pretty and pathetic scene between the two. Lucy has been killed, so that the ending of the book is generally satisfactory. Miss Fothergill has a good heart; she desires the welfare of the good and the punishment of the evil-doer, especially if the evil-doer be of her own sex; she understands, like every true woman, how to measure out justice to her own sex rather than to the other; and if there is one virtue for which she has a failing, it is that of self-sacrifice. Her men are consequently less well drawn than her women.

The art of telling stories of negro life is a rare gift, and only to be acquired by much experience and sympathy. The author of 'Our Phil' had it to a high degree. Phil himself, Aunt Rosy, and Marty are all real characters, thorough negroes; and the simple story of their lives is full of a peculiar charm. We regret to learn from the preface that the author, who published them in the *Atlantic Monthly* some fifteen years ago under the name of Olive A. Wadsworth, is no longer living. They have been republished in the belief—quite justified by the volume itself—"that they possess merit which will not only make the book a joy to her wide circle of warmly attached friends, but a pleasure to the reading public."

'Behind Closed Doors' is a story which does great credit to the author's ingenuity. Not in Gaboriau, not in Boisgobey, not even in Wilkie Collins, is a plot so laboriously involved to be found. The only difficulty with Mrs. Green's books is that she puts too great a strain on her readers' attention. It is not within the powers of the ordinary mind to retain control of the contradictory and conflicting incidents which mask the central mystery of the plot; and before we have gone very far we find ourselves rather confused than puzzled, while at the end we are not quite sure whether everything is satisfactorily explained or not. In other words, a sense of oppression is produced, which shows the construction of the story to be faulty. With a little more simplicity, 'Behind Closed Doors' would be more satisfactory and at the same time quite as lurid and blood-curdling.

"Come, my reader, come, and for a few short hours dream with me," is the not too tempting invitation with which Dr. Richardson's phantasy opens. As a matter of fact, a few short hours will not at all suffice for the mazes of a dream so ponderous and complicated. Fact and fancy, history and miracle disport themselves with a diverting interchangeability which becomes somewhat bewildering in the course of nearly five hundred closely printed pages. Beginning while the Emperor Hadrian is in Britain in the year 120, Simeon, the Son

of a Star, refusing to do him homage, is turned into a "living torch" for the amusement of the great audience collected in the circus. Enveloped in sackcloth soaked in bitumen, he is set on fire, but, escaping from the arena, and running far into the country, he puts himself out, as it were, in a pool of water. Being entirely unhurt, and finding attractive companions at hand, he journeys with them to the western coast, from which a craft having the agreeable power of travelling under water at will conveys him to a land (Ireland, presumably) called Juverna. In this abode of peace and beauty, social equality, lack of ambition, and continual summer form a state of beatitude more monotonous than the homesick heaven of modern fiction. From Juverna the reader finds himself back in Britain, then hurried off to Rome, but soon reaches Joppa, where the down-trodden Jews become his companions. Here, all varieties of excitement prevail. Plotting and counter-plotting, battles and bombshells, hold high carnival, in the midst of which Simeon arrives to lead the Jewish revolt. He is hailed as the promised Messiah and crowned king. Largely occupied in striking coins in honor of himself, he is successful for a time, until Julius Severus is sent from Britain to quell the uprising. Then, his people losing battles and faith in him together, he barely escapes alive. The mysterious craft *Leviathan* takes him back to Juverna, where, despite sovereignty, his heart has been ever with the fair Erine.

A book requiring the patient collection of so much material ought to have been great, but it is not. Simeon fails to arouse enthusiasm in the reader. Leon the philosopher, Akiba the scholar, Huldah the prophetess, with the necessarily picturesque setting of the age and time, might, in the hands of a master, have been truly memorable figures. Also, there are elements of unusual power in Elkanah, who, crucified and left for dead, yet lives for years thereafter overshadowed by the horror of that experience, and dies at last with arms outstretched as if upon a cross.

The literary style of the book is objectionable, chiefly because it is pretentious and unnatural—often bombastic; and the use of the present tense throughout is extremely wearisome. The attempted impressiveness of language strangely accords with the occasional slang and lapses in grammar now and then. Altogether, while the book is full of possibilities, the end is an unmistakable relief, when the author allows us to awaken from his dream —or nightmare.

RICHARDSON'S AMERICAN LITERATURE.

American Literature, 1607–1885. By Charles F. Richardson. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

THE general quality of Mr. Richardson's second volume is not inferior to that of his first, which appeared less than a year ago. The division of his volumes is not chronological. Each covers his whole period, 1607-1885; the first being devoted to "The Development of Thought," the second to "Poetry and Fiction." The title of the first volume was not well chosen. There was much in it that had little or no relation to the development of thought. Everything was swept into it that was not poetry or fiction, and the material was so cumbersome that the treatment was often scanty and the proportions of different values were not always well observed. The last objection holds in a less degree of the second volume, implying scantiness of treatment here and there; but the material handled is much more homogeneous, and is precisely what its title indicates.

The manner of division, which has both advantages and disadvantages, involves frequent returns upon authors considered in the first volume. Emerson is the only author who had a whole chapter to himself in the first volume who has another here. Poe was there regarded as a critic only; here his prose and verse are grouped together in one chapter, and the same method is pursued with Longfellow, though an attempt is made in general to treat poetry in the first part of the volume and fiction in the last. Cooper and Hawthorne have each liberal treatment in a separate chapter. These allotments of space indicate Mr. Richardson's impressions of relative value: Emerson first, nearest to him Hawthorne, Cooper, Longfellow, and Poe. He said in the first volume: "The three 'problematic characters' in American literature, the men whose personal qualities and whose literary work demand the most patient study and the most earnest attempt towards a just critical estimate, are Emerson, Hawthorne, and Poe."

The promise of Mr. Richardson's work in his introductory chapter was a criticism of analysis and not of exposition. To this he has not been altogether true. Leave out the expository matter, and his volumes would be very sensibly reduced. Another promise was that the laws of literary perspective should be observed; that authors should be judged in a cosmopolitan and not merely in an American spirit, their values in comparison with European authors of the highest rank determined as nearly as possible. This promise has been faithfully kept. But many difficulties arise, as with Mr. Gosse's attempt to answer the question whether any of our dead poets are entitled to be ranked with the thirteen English poets of "unassailed renown." In the course of the controversy their renown in several instances has been assailed. Mr. Richardson himself perceives that the function of the critic is something more and better than setting authors in a numerical order. This game has its attractions for critics of the highest rank. Mr. Arnold liked to play it—witness notably the criticism of Wordsworth in his just published 'Essays in Criticism.' But he did better when he endeavored to show us what was really admirable in this or that writer, and why it was so. With Mr. Richardson it is not otherwise. While in a general way his attempt to view our literature without provincial bias is to be commended, and adds much to the value of his work, his best service is not here, but in his showing of what is the peculiar strength and weakness in the poetry and fiction of American writers. Incidentally he expresses many preferences for which he assigns no reasons, and at which his readers will sometimes demur. He is not by any means disposed to regard the judgment of foreign critics on our literary productions as final, or to forget that abroad, as here, there are critics and critics, and that the praises of Poe and Miller and Whitman, if they represent a wide, do not represent a universal suffrage.

Mr. Richardson's epithets are not always fortunate. "Pious" is not a good adjective for Wordsworth; "twaddle" is not the proper word for Longfellow's inferior verse; "a later Franklin" does not suggest Dr. Holmes; nor can we find in Longfellow's 'Hyperion' anything of "*Wilhelm Meister* wholly restated and fitted for a Saxon audience." Mr. Richardson has a habit of definition by negation, as where for half a page he goes on telling us that Longfellow's lyrics are not this, that, or the other thing, which no one ever imagined that they were. In such passages the pride of knowledge seems to get the better of the critic's art. At other times we have a looseness of expression which suggests a lack of definite meaning in the writer's mind. For example, the 'Scarlet Letter' "is the best book Hawthorne ever wrote, though comparison between it and some of his other writings is neither easy nor valuable in its results." Elsewhere we are told that "the very titles" of Edward Eggleston's tales "illuminate the scenes and characters described," and 'Roxy' is among the titles named. A more serious defect is a certain verbal prettiness, a rhetoric which we associate with "sweet girl graduates" of local seminaries rather than with the professor's chair in a New England college. Thus we have "soulful" more than once; Bryant's imagination "does not soar and sing in distant and ultimate skies"; Dante "forth fared six centuries ago"; "he forgot not"; and the alliterative title "Tones and Tendencies of American Verse." We also have considerable rhetorical fuss about one matter or another by which our apprehension is not helped at all.

But these limitations, which, perhaps, should have been waived, do not prevent Mr. Richardson's second volume from being an interesting and valuable body of criticism upon American poetry and fiction. In his introductory chapter on "Early Verse-making in America," there is no attempt to prove that any of the geese of the colonial times were swans, or to claim for Dwight and Barlow and Freneau any but the faintest praise. Hardly more is claimed for Drake and Halleck in the second chapter, on "The Dawn of the Imagination." Bryant is also treated under this head as "a poet relatively, though not absolutely of the first rank" —whatever this may mean. "Not a poet of the first rank," Mr. Richardson says further on. But in the first rank he puts Shakspere alone, and in the second Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Virgil, Dante, Milton, Goethe. No one would think of classing Bryant with these, but, apparently, Mr. Richardson considers him inferior to Emerson, Longfellow, Poe, Lowell, and Holmes. We say "apparently," because his gradations are not clearly marked. They vary with the point of view, as they must do. "Bryant resembles Emerson," he says, "in the characteristic of uniformity "—of un-uniformity would be truer. Both ranged through widely differing degrees of excellence. The treatment of Longfellow is extremely sympathetic, and leaves little to desire. "All in all, Longfellow has been the nation's poet," though he has less philosophic depth and insight than Emerson, less music than Poe, less energy than Whittier and Lowell, and of humor next to none. In his sympathetic quality is found his rarest gift. As for his hexameters, the wonder is they are so good. Poe has for Mr. Richardson a remarkable fascination. Beyond the liberal space allotted to him, the references to him are numerous; but the final judgment is not too favorable. It is not more favorable than Mr. Woodberry's in his admirable life of Poe, or than Mr. Stedman's in his 'Poets of America.' The chapter on Emerson is appreciative of his lyrical perfection, too seldom sought or found, his felicity of phrase, and his penetrative thought.

Under the heading, "Poets of Freedom and Culture," we have a consideration of Whittier, Lowell, and Holmes. The reader will expect Whittier and Lowell to be the poets of freedom, Lowell and Holmes the poets of culture. But Mr. Richardson would have us regard Holmes also as a poet of freedom. A patriotic poet he has surely been, but he never sang one anti-slavery line in the anti-slavery conflict, and he sang the praise of Daniel Webster after

his miserable fall. The chapter on "Tones and Tendencies of American Verse" covers a multitude of names and still lacks completeness. There are less known poets than any mentioned here that are of equal if not greater worth.

The beginnings of American fiction are divided between Irving and Charles Brockden Brown. The chapter on Cooper is very much upon the lines of Mr. Lounsbury's admirable Life. The criticism of Hawthorne is in a tone of cordial admiration. The denial to Hawthorne of any morbid quality is overdone. The closing chapters, on "The Lesser Novelist" and "Later Movements in American Fiction," are much crowded, but the necessity for condensation is always helpful to Mr. Richardson's force and style. A good many of the judgments have in them too much of the personal equation. Of these are the judgment that 'Nathaniel Hawthorne and his Wife' is the best biography written in America, and the general opinion of Mr. Julian Hawthorne's work; another is that Mr. Howells's 'Modern Instance' is his strongest work in his later manner. On page 435 we are told that 'Roderick Hudson' and 'The Portrait of a Lady' are Mr. James's best novels, and on page 438 that 'The Bostonians' is his masterpiece. Mr. Richardson's admiration for Mr. James is of the qualified sort.

A book like this profits us by the antagonisms it excites as well as by the things that we accept. There are books which treat of parts of Mr. Richardson's subject much more justly and delicately than he can do within his narrower scope, or could if he had freest range. Mr. Moses Coit Tyler's 'History of American Literature' is incomparably richer than Mr. Richardson's early chapters; Mr. Stedman's criticism of the poets has much more of nice discrimination; the lives of Emerson and Irving and Poe and Cooper, in the "American Men of Letters" series, are far more satisfactory than the chapters here, and Mr. James's 'Hawthorne,' with all its faults, has merits to which Mr. Richardson cannot attain. Moreover, there are separate essays, such as Mr. Morley's upon Emerson and Mr. Hutton's upon Hawthorne, that make Mr. Richardson's work seem poor indeed. But even for those who have these things at hand, Mr. Richardson's volumes will be valuable on account of their extended scope, their suggestion of many fading reputations, their challenge of opinion so frankly given all along. The poets, the novelists, and the critics will take little pleasure in them, but a multitude of the general public will find them stimulating and instructive, and will gird themselves to follow up some of the less frequented roads on which Mr. Richardson has travelled with a jocund mind.

A History of Charles the Great (Charlemagne). By J. I. Mombert, D.D., author of 'Handbook of the English Versions,' etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 564.

Dr. Mombert has made too big a book of his 'Charles the Great'—not too big for the subject or the materials, but for his treatment of the subject and use of the materials. His treatment is wholly popular and essentially narrative; but the present generation is too busy and too abundantly supplied with reading matter to care for a narrative, on the scale of this book, of the events even of so important a life as that of Charles the Great. Such a treatment, limited in its scope and incomplete in the view which it presents, would be well enough for a moderate-sized volume, such as we find in the various series of biographies with which the market abounds; but a volume of the bulk of the one before us can only justify itself by a scholarly and approximately complete study of its subject.

When we speak of the view as incomplete, we do not mean in the ground that it covers, but in the treatment. It is a book of detail, not of generalization. The author has faithfully and industriously collected all the materials that bear upon his subject, and has, of course, grouped these materials into chapters under their several heads. But in the treatment of any given subject, the items of information are, as it were, strung along, with little attempt to combine them in their larger relations, or to give them their due emphasis. The very construction of the paragraphs is after this fashion. They are of the vicious style so much affected by the French, often consisting of single sentences, so that a page may contain six or eight short paragraphs. This may be very effective in connection with a brilliant, epigrammatic style, but it is fatal to the dignity and consecutiveness required by a work of this kind. These are not true paragraphs, for a paragraph should have an independence and structural completeness which are missed by this method of composition.

This defect is well illustrated by Book iii, chapter i, "The Diet and the Capitularies." This chapter afforded an opportunity of analyzing and classifying the legislation of Charles the Great, and placing it before the reader in an intelligible and instructive summary. But the method pursued is that of enumeration rather than generalization. Many interesting and important facts are told, some capitularies are given in abstract—and this work is well and skilfully done; but at the end the reader has failed, after all, to get an idea of what Charles aimed to accomplish, or what he actually did accomplish. For example, we do not remember that any distinct mention is made of that feature of policy which shows perhaps more clearly than any other the true greatness of Charles, and stamps him as an enlightened statesman—his steady effort to protect the common freemen, the better class of the peasantry, against the exactions and encroachments of power. The effort was of course unsuccessful in the long run: economic and political forces were working against him too strongly for even his gigantic powers; but it was something to hold these forces in check for a season, and maintain partially and temporarily the existence of that class upon which national well-being must in large part rest. This settled policy of Charles the Great gives the key to many legislative acts which, taken by themselves, appear only as curious bits of antiquarianism.

This policy, for example, explains the reorganization of the military system, as worked out in the capitularies of 806 and 807. This is totally misconceived by Dr. Mombert, who, curiously enough, brings in the account of this legislation in connection with the Saxon wars, some twenty years before it was effected, and gives it a wholly misleading interpretation. His words are (p. 103): "He devised the plan of combining the old military constitution of the Franks with the feudal system, in virtue of which not only his vassals and their liege-men, but also all freemen possessed of independent freehold property, were bound to march against the enemy." Now, in the first place there was at this time no feudal system, but only some germs of feudal institutions, partially developed. The military system was that here described, the *heerbann*, or "universal obligation to military service" resting on all freemen, not those alone of "independent freehold property." The legislation in question, coming at the very close of Charles's reign, was not designed to combine this universal obligation of service with feudalism (as was the object of the Assize of Arms of Henry II.), but, in view of the increasing power of the lords, and the diminishing resources of the peasants, to commute this universal service in the way described in the text. So far, therefore, from his military institutions being "the most onerous and least popular of his government," they were among those which exhibited most clearly his wise and humane statesmanship.

The whole subject of institutions is indeed treated very inadequately, as could not but be the case with an author who cites no modern writer in relation to them later than Hallam and Guizot. We find (p. 66) the astonishing statement "that the terms 'duke' and 'count' were simply official designations, unconnected with the geographical and political division of the country"—a statement which is true for modern times, but exactly the opposite of the truth for the time in question, when counts and dukes were simply appointed governors of administrative districts. On the next page we have a passage of some length from Montesquieu, describing the military system of the Franks. Now, Montesquieu is a writer full of wisdom and abounding in instructive suggestions; but the scholarship of his age did not make it possible to understand in detail the forms and institutions of the Frank period. We find, in relation to these institutions, no citations from Waitz, Roth, Sohm, Brunner, or Fustel de Coulanges, and, in regard to economic history, none from Von Maurer, Inama-Sternegg, or Lamprecht. But the political and economical conditions of these times cannot be comprehended without the study of these writers and others of their class.

These are the defects of the book. As a narration we have already said that it has many merits, although always suffering from the method of composing by detail rather than by grouping and combining. The judgments are generally sound and often sagacious. The original authorities have been carefully studied—and here in the best editions—and generally well combined. The remarks on the coronation of Charles (p. 364) are shrewd, and contain what is to us a new explanation of Charles's ostensible indignation—that he had intended, as in the case of his son's coronation, to place the crown upon his head with his own hands, and that Leo's act excited his indignation as being unauthorized and unexpected. There are a good genealogical table, map, and index. In the note to page 45, *Gravidus* should read *Gradivus*.

Portfolio Papers. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Mr. Hamerton's latest book shows all the qualities of his former work. The placid good sense, the absence of exaggeration, the clearness and precision of statement, and the capacity for saying simple things, that have made him the first of English-speaking critics of art, are all as marked as ever. The last of these qualities seems to us the rarest of all. Mr. Hamerton never takes anything for granted, never assumes a knowledge in his reader which he may not possess. He has a wonderful gift of understanding ignorance, and, at the risk of seeming tedious or superfluous to the initiated, explains clearly and simply, in language to be understood of all, things that most artists and critics have known so long that they have half forgotten them, or have, at least, forgotten that all the world is not as wise as they. This is the

essence of all teaching, and when combined, as it is here, with a wide practical and theoretical knowledge of the subject to be taught, and with a clear brain and an unbiassed judgment, it gives us the ideal teacher. It would hardly be too much to say that Mr. Hamerton has done more for the education in sound ideas of art of the English-speaking public than all other critics together.

The present volume is not as important as some that have preceded it, being, as the title indicates, a collection of miscellaneous papers from the *Portfolio*. It is divided into four parts—Notices of Artists, Notes on Æsthetics, Essays, and Conversations. The Notices of Artists are five in number, and deal with Constable, Etty, Chintreuil, Guignet, and Goya. That on Constable contains, as a matter of course, the old anecdote about Sir George Beaumont's "brown tree," and Constable's remark that he did not find it difficult to determine where to place it, as he "never put such a thing into a picture." After looking at his pictures now in the Metropolitan Museum, one wonders whether they were painted before this conversation, or whether the story is apocryphal. Or is it that our standard of brownness has changed, and that these trees were green in comparison with those of Sir George? Possibly the color is much changed with age.

The paper on Goya is the most interesting of the five, but here Mr. Hamerton shows that if he is the best of British critics, he is still British, and not quite exempt from insularity. His Anglo-Saxon moral sense is aroused by the not very savory personal character of the Spanish artist, and he is as nearly savage in his denunciation of man and work as is possible to his nature. Indeed, Macaulay himself could hardly use stronger language than is contained in this notice. Mr. Hamerton maintains that "the celebrity of the artist is in great part political, and not artistic in its origin," and protests that "the qualities of artist and politician are in themselves distinct, and they ought to be kept so." We cannot avoid thinking, however, that he has himself been guilty of a similar confusion of ideas, and has been led by his reprobation of Goya's moral character to undervalue his art. He certainly lays himself open to such a charge when he says, "Such coloring as I have seen of his is foul and filthy to the last degree; and I have a difficulty in understanding how a man so restless, so irritable, and so degraded by mental and physical vice could at any time color tenderly, delicately, and purely. I have believed hitherto that the power of fair coloring was reserved for serene and elevated natures." This is an artistic heresy of the kind with which Ruskin has familiarized us, and is astonishing from a man of Mr. Hamerton's usual good sense and knowledge of the history of art. Fortunately, such slips are rare, and even here the saving clause is added—"but there may be exceptions to the rule, if it is a rule."

Something like racial bias crops out again in the notes on Æsthetics, in discussing idiosyncrasy, where he says, "In the fine arts we owe to idiosyncrasy that charm of infinite variety which so vastly increases the interest of our exhibitions. This variety has been greater in England than elsewhere, because our artists *have been less moulded by a common system of authoritative education* than the artists of the Continent, and also because Englishmen have a natural turn for the development of individual peculiarities." And again, "The moral of all this is, that we can hardly be too careful to preserve so precious a thing as the inborn quality of a person." Of course this is perfectly true, and of course Mr. Hamerton is not indifferent to the value of education; yet one receives somehow an impression that he has little sympathy with the classical ideal of an impersonal art, perfect in itself, which is at the foundation of academical training and which has so generally prevailed among the Latin races. There is a slight, a very slight, trace of the same natural bias in favor of the individual rather than the impersonal, later in the volume, in the sound and admirable essay on "Style." It would be strange indeed if a critic were absolutely without any of the prejudices of his race and country, and these slight instances are only rendered conspicuous by our author's habitual breadth of view.

One of the most novel and interesting of the Notes on Æsthetics is No. 8: "Right and left not indifferent in Art." The writer states his conclusions on this subject in the form of two rules, which we will quote:

"(1.) Whenever there is an issue from the picture along which the imagination of the spectator will be enticed to travel, as, for instance, an opening to the distance in a landscape, it ought to be, if possible, to the spectator's right.

"(2.) Whenever there is a large mass that blocks up the composition, it ought to be, if possible, on the spectator's left. It follows from this, that when there are two masses, one on each side, as often happens in the side scenes of a theatre, and in pictures arranged on the same principle, it is the larger and more important of these that should be placed on the left."

We have not space for the discussion of this curious discovery, or of the probable reasons in the physiology of the brain and in the European method of writing, etc., for this principle of æsthetics; but we feel sure that many artists, their attention once called to the matter, will be surprised to find how generally they have instinctively obeyed Mr. Hamerton's rules.

The volume contains, besides that on "Style" already mentioned, short essays on "Soul and Matter in the Fine Arts," on "The Nature of the Fine Arts," and on the question, "Can Science help Art?" and concludes with some imaginary "Conversations" between an artist, a critic, a poet, and a scientist, on the subject of book illustration. These, while they contain a great deal of truth, are perhaps the least valuable part of the book.

There is only a very meagre table of contents, and the proof-reading has been poor, and printer's errors are rather abundant.

Jonathan and His Continent. (Rambles through American Society.) By Max O'Rell and Jack Allyn. Translated by Madame Paul Blouët. Cassell & Co.

"Max O'Rell" has a genuine gift for social observation, or he could never have written 'John Bull and His Island.' So much we knew before, and now no candid American reader will deny that in this study of the manners and customs of the United States he has made a decided hit. It is not that the book is very deep or very wise, or contains much that is new and important; but it is the work of an observer of a certain originality of style, who has occasionally the gift of insight, and who has the art of telling disagreeable truths without giving offence. This is the art which the English observer of American institutions and manners finds it so hard to acquire. He forms judgments which when expressed leave a sting behind, partly because they are produced as judgments, and not as impressions, and partly because they are produced with an air of authority only to be explained by the assumption that the observer is, by the fact of his nationality, placed above those he criticises. Mrs. Trollope and Dickens told the truth about the America of their day, as any one will see who takes the trouble to look into their books—and very amusing reading they are, by the way—but they lashed the provincialism of the country into a fury. Max O'Rell is full of things displeasing to our vanity, and it is by no means simply because we are grown too large and powerful to care that we are not irritated by them. It is also because what he says neither expresses nor implies superiority—he does not seek to establish that galling relation of critic and victim which sets at naught the rights of man and the Declaration of Independence, and tramples under foot the axiom that one man is as good as another.

Max O'Rell would not for a moment deny that American civilization is as high as any in the world (though he thinks that the French are perhaps a little happier), but he notes here and there little peculiarities, more or less important, such as lack of manners, devotion to money-making, laxity of the marriage tie, bad cooking, etc., etc., which are features of American life—all with a pleasant, cheery, sympathetic smile which disarms antagonism. We all have our weaknesses, he seems to say; in examining and reporting upon what they are we are engaged in an improving occupation, which may make us wiser, and need not leave us any sadder than we were before. It is not necessary to be profound, nor even painfully accurate. Max O'Rell is often decidedly inaccurate. For instance, though the cost of living is undoubtedly far higher here than in England or France, it is rather a figure of speech to say that in the United States "you get for your dollar but the worth of a shilling in English money or a franc in French." When a comparison is made between a hotel bedroom in France at five francs a day and the same apartment in America at five dollars, M. O'Rell seems to forget that the latter includes meals. It is true that the cab which costs you eighteen pence in England will cost you a dollar and a-half in New York, but it is not true that "the proportion is always kept" (p. 307). If it were, it would cost exactly four times as much to live in New York as in London. In the same way, we are told that receipts are enormous, too: "a newspaper article for which would be paid in France from 100 to 250 francs (and no French paper except the *Figaro* pays so much for articles) is paid for in America from $100 to $250." He does not mention what paper rewards its staff in this way. Little errors of this sort in the work of an English critic would attract much hostile attention, but in our good friend Max O'Rell we pass them smiling by.

It is difficult to make extracts; but one or two good points we must notice, on account of the pleasure they have given us. Every one is familiar with that pest of railroad travel in the United States, the man who appears from time to time, now with books, now with prize-candy packages, now with pop-corn balls—and with his habit of depositing his wares upon the lap of the unfortunate passengers. Of the patience with which this abuse is tolerated Max O'Rell says: "The Americans have the patience of angels. I have seen them for five or six hours refuse, with the politest signs of the head, the different articles of these ambulant bazaars. They seem to say, That creature is very annoying, a terrible nuisance; *but I suppose we must all get a living somehow.*" Is not this correct, and shrewd, too? The best part of this criticism, however, is the sequel. The author became so much interested in this "ambulant bazaar" that he tracked him to his lair, his depot of supplies in the baggage-car, where he found him at his toilet. The stranger watched him with interest. "When his toilet was com-

pleted he turned round, and, seeing that I was looking at him, he threw me a patronizing glance, eying me from head to foot. I thought he was about to say, 'What is it you want?' 'Well, business is looking up, eh?' I hazarded. 'Mind your own d——d business,' he replied; turning on his heels, he departed."

Again, every one will recognize the force of an observation which is particularly true of the West—that the genuine American is unwilling to admit being *bored*. To illustrate this, we are given an account of a conversation on the subject of a railroad journey the greater part of which lay through a dreary forest. When asked what he thought of that part of the country, the author suggested that it was a little uninteresting. But he found, to his surprise, that the American view of the subject was that it was "immense—like everything else in the country, immense." Whatever opinion we may hold about this particular journey, we believe it is strictly true that one of the striking features of American civilization (as distinguished from English) is the unwillingness to admit that you are "bored," and the correlative determination (also noticed by Max O'Rell) to insist that you have had a "good time," no matter how untrue to the facts it may be. Is this part of a real universal happiness, which such an observer as Mr. Bryce finds here (but of which Max O'Rell seems doubtful), or is it assumed with an eye to business, in the belief that people who are easily bored and not interested are not those who get most orders and the largest trade?

Everybody who observes men and cities has a theory about them, more or less preconceived, into which facts must be made to fit. De Tocqueville explained everything he saw as an effect of democracy and equality. These were the efficient causes of all the phenomena of American life. Max O'Rell's cause is what the late John Stuart Mill, in his scorn, called "dollar-hunting." It is as a dollar-hunting animal that he studies the American. When he notices anything novel or peculiar, the first question he asks himself is, "How is this trait connected with the pursuit of money?" Of course, pushed to an extreme, this method of analysis would reduce everything to an absurdity; but part of the author's cleverness consists in not pushing anything to an extreme. We feel the influence of his theory without being shocked by it. We do not arise in our wrath and exclaim: "What! would you attribute to this young and vigorous democracy, glowing with hope and manly pride, a single motive—and that the lowest of all? Do you really think that money and money-making furnish the universal standards of life in the United States?" On the contrary, we smile and reflect that, after all, there is a good deal to be said for the theory now, as a generation ago our fathers thought there was a good deal to be said for De Tocqueville's.

Logic; or, The Morphology of Knowledge. By Bernard Bosanquet, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1888. 8vo, 2 vols. xvii., 398, viii., 240.

Mr. Bosanquet is a high priest of Neo-Hegelianism, and his 'Logic' may be considered as an *ex-cathedra* statement, especially if contrasted with that somewhat heretical book, Mr. Bradley's 'Principles of Logic,' which called out our author's criticism a few years ago. If Mr. Bosanquet writes with one eye upon the authors of such all-round works as Wundt's and Lotze's, he certainly writes with the other upon Mr. Bradley alone. But his work is a complete treatise, more so than Bradley's own snapping denunciation of "the diffident admirers of the phenomenal world." He has left no important phase of his subject without a thorough discussion; but, on the other hand, his volumes lack the interest which Mr. Bradley's highly charged style gives to 'The Principles of Logic.'

The author's πού στῶ is at the centre of reality. The judgment is our continued construction of this reality. The great assumption of all thought is the *systematic* character of this reality, and so the only canon of our thinking is the internal coherence of the system we construct. The articulation of means and ends, either in a real teleology or in the *de facto* teleology in which we assume that nature works, is the guiding principle of our analogical inference, and the unity of the complete system, when reached, the guide of our deductive inference. Inference, which will be found in all judgment, is the passage through the universal from one of its differences to another, and the judgment itself is but the continued construction of this universal. This is a very bare, and therefore a probably rather unintelligible, account of the line along which Mr. Bosanquet discusses the problems of logic.

He parts company with Mr. Bradley at the very outset; for Mr. Bradley finds no subject *in* the proposition, but considers that the entire ideal content of the proposition is asserted of a reality which is outside the proposition. Mr. Bosanquet does not deny the ideal unity of the judgment, but finds it to be the unity of reality itself. Since we are constructing this reality in judgment, the relations of the judgment can be the relations of the reality, and there can then be predication within the judgment. This is the fundamental difference between Mr. Bradley and Mr. Bosanquet. The others follow naturally, Mr. Bradley's standpoint being not at the centre of reality but outside it.

Unfortunately, Mr. Bosanquet is most obscure here where he should be most luminous. But in his treatment of the abstractions of space, time, and number, he has given one of the clearest expositions that can be found, and almost as much can be said of his treatment of inference. This part of his work is so admirably done that one deplores the more the frequent lapses into obscurity. Mr. Bosanquet has sometimes the habit of thinking aloud in condensed and complicated sentences, that would require the labor of hours to unravel. Being sure of his field, he flies over it, heedless whether the reader is with him or not. In a word, his book is written esoterically, or for the intellectual aristocracy in the universities. The writer has not brought himself down to the level of those readers whom Mill addressed, and who study Spencer, Huxley, and Bain today. An author has perhaps the right to choose his audience; but when we remember how much the public needs to be educated away from the crude logical dualism of a dead matter of knowledge entirely divorced from the living mind which knows it, we cannot but feel that writers of Mr. Bosanquet's power and freedom from superstition have a mission to the people as well as to the aristocracy.

It is the belief in the objectivity of reason which is the animus of all this high thinking; and, clothed in the right forms of statement, this belief is just as appreciable by the ordinary mind as the phenomenalism of the "advanced thinkers," besides having a spiritualizing power which the latter kind of thought has not. We have yet to be taught that under each perception lies a mass of unanalyzed relations; that our crude reflections have no claim to finality; that we cannot approach nature at any point without finding the existence of thought and ideals. The men who should teach us all this are Mr. Bosanquet and his fellows. It is matter for deep regret that their indifference to popularity in style should deprive them of so large a sphere of effectiveness.

A Manual of Decorative Composition for Designers, Decorators, Architects, and Industrial Artists. By Henri Mayeux, Architect to the French Government and Professor of Decorative Art in the Municipal Schools of Paris. Translated by J. Gonino. Illustrated by nearly 300 engravings. D. Appleton & Co. 1888. Pp. ix, 310.

The reader of this book is often puzzled by the vagueness of its phraseology. Statements and principles are made in such language that the reader finds that even a second reading fails to fix in the mind any positive meaning: the words, indeed, mean something and the sentence can be parsed, but what is it that the writer has intended to say? For example, on page 89, at the beginning of a paragraph, and with nothing going before to explain what is coming, we find: "Bands are introduced on vessels in order to avoid undue redundancy of form, and to invest them at the same time with an appearance of solidity. This important principle was never absent from the Greek or Etruscan artist's mind, and is also well remembered in most work of our own days. It need hardly be said that their application on retreating forms would be most incongruous." A cut, three pages further on, bears the legend "Horizontal Bands applied to form," but nowhere does the text allude to it. What is meant one can only guess. But reference to the French original, page 95, tells us in a moment what Mr. Mayeux meant; he is speaking of the employment of decorative bands at certain parts of a piece which has a surface of revolution (such as most vases have, a shape that might be turned in a lathe), especially at those parts which approach a cylindrical form; he refers to his Cut 78, and goes on as follows: "The necessity of maintaining and hooping (*cercler*) the form, as a belt or a band of leather or metal would do, seems to be the reason for this; if placed on the receding (*fuyantes*) parts of the surface, these bands would seem about to slip, and would be incomprehensible." That is perfectly clear, and it is a fairly satisfactory statement of a principle in design which, however, should be discussed at greater length to be of any value to a beginner. But the English book misses it altogether.

It is generally the case, throughout the book, that the so-called translator has used the original text merely as notes for his guidance in writing a fresh text of his own. It is often very difficult and sometimes impossible to find in the one book even the paragraph which corresponds with a given paragraph of the other. In the sweep of his ready writing, the author of the English version often fails to allude, even, to the cuts incrusted in his text. Moreover, it appears, as would be expected of such careless work, that the translator is not particular about his technical terms and names of objects, materials, and processes, but takes them as they stand in the French, untranslated, or translates them at haphazard. This is aggravated by the giving of legends to many cuts which have none in the original; and in these, where he has no support, the translator is free to blunder. There are several notable instances of such blundering, but the reader of the English version may take Cut 219, on page 228, and see whether he can make sense of the legend; and may then try to make sense of what is said

on this and the following pages about the process which Cut 219 is supposed to represent. In the French text a rare but perfectly well-known process is briefly described.

The question whether a book upon the principles of design can be of any great use to students is a very difficult one, perhaps to be answered only by long experience of the attempted employment of such a one as a sort of text-book for the pupils of an atelier or a school of art. Principles of artistic and decorative design may indeed be explained in words, but only by a sympathetic speaker to an attentive audience. Every assertion must be given so carefully, so suggestively, with such large allowance for exceptions, for contradictory or seemingly contradictory truths, and for difference in situation, materials, and conditions, that the lecturer must have a quick eye for his hearers' comprehension, or he is lost. Whether any clearness of statement and feeling for his readers' needs will enable a writer so to address the readers of his printed thoughts, is doubtful. The subtlety of those general truths in art the application of which to special cases constitutes what we call *design*, may be too great for a handbook to contain. In Mr. Mayeux's book there are assuredly a great number of sound maxims and a great deal of just appreciation.

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Bullen, A. H. The Works of Dr. Thomas Campion. London: The Chiswick Press.

Burnett, Mrs. Frances Hodgson. Theo: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 21, 1889.

The Week.

THE Senate Tariff Bill seems destined to expire for want of friends, either in the House or in the country. The coldness with which it has been received by those who should have been its supporters, leads to the belief that it was never intended or desired by the Senate Finance Committee that it should become a law, but, on the contrary, that the present tariff—the tariff of 1883—should stand undisturbed. The large protected interests, and especially the protected Trusts, are satisfied with things as they are. They want no change at all. Therefore a bill of the "cranky" kind, as, for example, one increasing the duty on carpet wool 60 per cent., and on tin plate 100 per cent.—a bill carrying plenty of explosive material to blow itself up with—would suit all the monopolies perfectly. Such a measure is the Senate Tariff Bill It has met its predestined fate in the report of the Ways and Means Committee. The resolution which accompanies the report, however, challenging the right of the Senate under the Constitution to bring in an entirely new measure, is not by any means conclusive. Of course it is contrary to the spirit of the Constitution, but if the Senate may "propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills," there is no limit to the number of amendments. These may relate to every section and line of the bill. They may be introduced separately or in a lump. That the spirit of the Constitution is violated seems clear, but it was more distinctly violated in 1883, when the Senate took a House bill relating solely to internal revenue, and grafted on it a new tariff bill complete in all its parts, which tariff was finally juggled through a conference committee and became law.

The refusal of the Senate to confirm Hugh S. Thompson as Civil-Service Commissioner in the place of Judge Edgerton is perhaps as justifiable as anything of the kind it has ever done. It was very discreditable to leave Judge Edgerton in office till the last moment, considering that the old fellow had for years made no secret of his bad faith in holding the office. The only way of accounting for his retention is the supposition that in this, as in the general management of the offices in Indiana, the President was acting on what we have called the local-option theory—that is, that States which liked the spoils system were entitled to have the spoils system, and States which liked the merit system were entitled to have the merit system. But to put Mr. Thompson in his place would not have mended matters, even if he had been put in sooner, for Mr. Thompson is not a genuine civil-service reformer. His name appears attached to one of the orders (April 21, 1888) addressed to Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, compelling him to restore to the service, in a fraudulent manner, the examiner, McElwee, dismissed for drunkenness and insubordination. Anybody who was voluntarily mixed up in this transaction cannot be considered a fit person to be charged with the execution of the Civil-Service Act, for this was an attempt to evade or override the law in one of its most salutary provisions, by extorting from a subordinate a false representation, and procuring from the examining board a fraudulent certificate.

Mr. Edgerton has been giving the public another taste of his quality by writing a letter to the President in the Junius style, "scarifying" him for turning him out. He taunts him for relying so much on Mugwump support, and also, with more justice, for not removing him (Edgerton) sooner, as he had long made no concealment of his views. The Judge is evidently an old-fashioned blatherskite as well as an old-fashioned Democrat, and his invective is very poor stuff; it is these very things which make the letter somewhat damaging to the President. That he should ever have put a man capable of writing it in any place of trust, and kept him there, must be a subject of painful reflection. The only approach to an explanation of Edgerton we have ever heard was that he was recommended by the late Chief-Justice Waite; but the Chief Justice was probably an old friend, and men of his generation were apt to consider an elderly man who wore a blue coat with brass buttons fit for any office he could get—which, by the by, was George the Third's view.

Senator Hoar, we are glad to see, has called for the production of the evidence on which Byrne's report was based, and we learn that Mr. Fairchild is preparing another "statement" about "the frauds," which will be ready in a few days. This one, when it appears, will be the fourth. His first was in a letter to Mr. George William Curtis, the second to a reporter of the *Times*, the third to a reporter of the *Evening Post;* this last being illumined by the suggestion that the *Evening Post* was fighting the Government on behalf of "moneyed interests in New York." Not one of these statements tells what the frauds were, or who committed them, or why the persons who committed them were not brought to justice. We trust this forthcoming one will be more satisfactory. Mr. Fairchild must know by this time who the importers were who procured the frauds and profited by them; on what entries, on what days, the frauds occurred; the extent of the undervaluations, and the loss the Government sustained by them; and the names and addresses of the examiners and brokers who perpetrated them. Knowing these facts, he must know also that it is, under the United States Law (Rev. Stat., sec. 5444), his duty to procure the indictment and conviction of the officers guilty of committing or conniving at the fraud or frauds. It is not optional with him whether he will prosecute them or content himself with their dismissal. He is bound to prosecute as well as to dismiss them. The persons concerned in the "frauds" exposed by Byrne are all at large. Not one of them has been arrested or committed for trial. Not one, as far as we have heard, has run away. And yet the horror excited by the frauds seems to grow steadily in certain official and journalistic circles.

The latest rumors about the Harrison Cabinet give it a very Blaineish aspect. One of the most interesting of them pertains to an alleged cipher despatch from Mr. Windom (who went to Indianapolis presumably to accept the Secretaryship of the Treasury), to "Steve" Elkins. It is said to have been sent immediately after Mr. Windom's interview with Gen. Harrison, and is taken as evidence that Elkins is directing the construction of the Cabinet. If this be a correct inference, it will be interesting to note the effect of the information upon "Boss" Quay. Aside from Mr. Wanamaker, Quay does not appear now to have succeeded in getting any especial protégé of his into the Cabinet, and Wanamaker was a good Blaine man before he became a Harrison man, as any one would have said without asking for information on the point. But Quay was not a Blaine man, and is not believed to be one now. If it shall prove true that Elkins has supplanted him as manager of the new Administration, it will only be fresh evidence that the Blaine managers have got a mortgage upon Gen. Harrison and are foreclosing it without mercy. We will add that Mr. Windom's brief career as Secretary of the Treasury under President Garfield was successful and creditable. He accomplished the refunding of the 5:20 bonds into 3 and 3½ per cents by the use of a hand stamp. This was done, according to stories current at the time, in spite of the vigorous opposition of Mr. Blaine, who had his own ideas about funding and wanted to dominate every department of the Administration. Since his retirement from office, Mr. Windom has been identified with the Broadway Arcade Railroad project in this city.

The Ohio *State Journal* insists that "the only *objection against* John Wanamaker" is that he gave a considerable sum of money to the Republican campaign fund, and raised another considerable sum from other contributors. This is considered by the *State Journal* to be a "a hypocritical objection." But our Ohio contemporary overlooks the most essential part of the case. What the hypocrites are saying is, that the only thing *in favor of* Wanamaker as a candidate for a Cabinet position is that he gave and raised the money aforesaid. We will for the moment pass over the possible or prob-

able use made of the money, "the blocks-of-five," and that sort of thing, and repeat the question in its least offensive form. Has Mr. Wanamaker ever done anything entitling him to a Cabinet position except to raise money for campaign purposes? Was he ever prominent in politics before? Do his claims bear any other color than that of money? Would he ever have been thought of for a place in the Cabinet if he had not contributed or raised this money? Shall it be established for a precedent that a certain amount of cash entitles the giver or the financier to the position of Secretary of the Navy or Postmaster-General? If so, there will never be a campaign hereafter without a boodle candidate for a Cabinet position. We say a boodle candidate because that phrase describes the terms of his reward, whether the money was used for good purposes or bad. It is the purchase of a Cabinet position outright, and no other phrase defines the transaction. We say further that if Wanamaker is appointed, it will be the first time in the history of the Republic that such a thing has been done. The appointment of A. T. Stewart by President Grant is no parallel case. Mr. Stewart was not appointed because he had given or raised money for the campaign. The appointment was the whim of an inexperienced man. Nobody thought of Stewart's campaign contribution when his name was sent in. Everybody thinks of Wanamaker's. Nobody thinks of anything else when his name is mentioned. Even the Ohio *State Journal* thinks of that and nothing else, as the whole drift of its article about "a hypocritical objection" shows.

It is not possible to ascertain with accuracy the degree of protection granted Republican chiefs of division under this Administration by a mere comparison of blue-books. It is true, for instance, that in the offices of the First and Second Comptrollers of the Treasury no one can now be found at the head of a division who was there in March, 1885, but simple justice demands that the facts should be clearly brought out that Mr. Garrison, one of the chiefs in the First Comptroller's office, was, on account of his experience and efficiency, promoted by Mr. Cleveland to be Deputy Comptroller, which position he continues to hold to this day, and that a Republican clerk was made chief in his place. In that office there are but four chiefships. One of these is filled to-day by a young man who came into the service by means of a competitive examination, and who attended to his duties with such diligence as to deserve the chiefship which became vacant by the death of the incumbent, who, by the way, was an old Democrat, appointed by Howell Cobb, Secretary of the Treasury before the war. The successor of Mr. Garrison died shortly after his appointment, and his place was filled by a Democrat. In the Second Comptroller's office an able and industrious clerk, though known to be a Republican, was taken from the ranks and placed at the head of the Naval Division. In the whole Treasury Department there have been retained, according to our information, eighteen out of the seventy-five chiefs of division. In the State Department, with the exception of three or four high and confidential places, not a post has been filled except through the Civil-Service Commission, and the clerks selected by that means do not number half-a-dozen. Mr. Bancroft, the librarian, was chosen without any consultation with politicians. Mr. More, the Third Assistant Secretary, was raised from a clerkship, which he had obtained by reason of his own merits as disclosed by the examination papers forwarded from the Civil-Service Commission. Mr. Adee was found a Third Assistant Secretary, and, after Mr. Hunter's death, was advanced a step, notwithstanding his Republican politics. The old chiefs are now on hand; the clerks who rallied around Mr. Blaine in 1881 are there with ranks almost unbroken to welcome him again, and among them one who, though he was known to be Mr. Blaine's especial favorite, and his private secretary during the campaign of 1884, has been treated by Mr. Bayard and his associates with uniform consideration.

Mr. Cabot Lodge made a most extraordinary speech in the House of Representatives on Wednesday week. According to the report published in the Boston *Journal*, he said that "he had heard the denunciation of United States bayonets and United States Supervisors interfering with elections in the States. He was perfectly willing that there should be a United States Supervisor, *and, if necessary, a file of United States soldiers, at every polling-place in his district.* He was not afraid to have them overlook his election, and see how the people of his district voted; and what was fair for one was fair for all." The *Congressional Record* of Thursday did not contain the speech, stating that Mr. Lodge "withholds his remarks for revision." The explanation is to be found in a Washington despatch of Wednesday evening to the Springfield *Republican*, which says: "The declaration of Mr. Lodge to-day that he would be willing to have a file of United States soldiers at every polling-place in his district, is causing a deal of comment to-night. Mr. Lodge has been advised to strike the passage out of the *Record*. If he attempts this, attention will undoubtedly be called to the change by some Democratic member, and the insertion of a correct copy of the reporter's notes will be demanded. Members of the Massachusetts delegation express great surprise that he was betrayed into such an utterance, and some of the Southern Republican Representatives say that they advocate no such doctrine, and that the Republican party can make no progress in the South if it does advocate it." A more pitiable exhibition of "the scholar in politics" has perhaps never been presented than this defence of the use of troops at the polls by a man who should be presumed to know something not only about the history of the long struggle to free civil elections from military interference, but also about the historical attitude of Massachusetts towards this question, as last illustrated in the imposing mass-meeting in Faneuil Hall, Boston, January 15, 1875, "to utter a solemn protest against military interference with the Legislature of our sister State of Louisiana."

The Iowa *State Register* publishes a very refreshing article addressed to the spoliation sentiment of that State on the subject of the attack by the Railroad Commissioners and the Legislature on railroad property. Such an attack, it says, would not be possible if any considerable part of the railroads of Iowa were owned by citizens of the State. The property is virtually taken out of the hands of the owners because the owners are not Iowans. The people of the State are simply helping themselves to other people's money because the other people are non-residents. This is a bold saying for an Iowa newspaper, but it is a true one, and the *Register* says that no tide of popular clamor shall deter it from proclaiming the truth on all fitting occasions. It warns the people of Iowa that they are taking a short-sighted view of their own interests in this matter, since it is quite certain that capital will be deterred from coming into the State, either for railroads or for other purposes, by such proceedings as are now witnessed. The repudiating States have been severely let alone by capitalists, and the confiscating States will meet the same fate. The *Register* goes one step further, and acknowledges that in its zeal for liquor prohibition it has wrongfully overlooked the rights of property invested in breweries and other fixed capital, for which recompense ought to have been made when the property was destroyed by law.

There are encouraging signs of a popular uprising in Rhode Island which will put an end to the prohibition folly which has done the State such serious harm during the past few years. The first step towards the change was taken on Wednesday week, when the lower house of the Legislature, by a vote of 45 to 25, rejected a proposal to engraft the injunction clause of the Kansas Prohibitory Law upon the statute-books. This proposal has been urged by the Prohibitionists with great zeal, and as the agitation has advanced it has been recognized by both sides that the failure of the proposal would involve the safety of the present prohibitory law. During Wednesday's debate a petition, signed by 625 names, and representing millions of dollars of taxable property, was presented, asking for a resubmission of the prohibition question to a vote of the people. It is thought by the best judges of the situation that the Legislature will vote to resubmit the question, and that the ultimate result will be the repeal of the present law.

A bill has been introduced and passed to a second reading in the Pennsylvania Legislature to grant a bounty for the killing of foxes, minks, and skunks in that State. A

correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger*, who says that he has been a furrier all his life, and is familiar with the prices which such skins sell for, declares that there has never been a time when the price obtained for their hides has not been a sufficient inducement to catch them. Foxes to-day, he says, are worth from $1 to $2.50; skunks, 50 cents to $1.50; minks, 50 cents to $1.50, while peculiarly valuable ones sometimes sell as high as $10. He, therefore, thinks that the bill should be called an "act to donate about $100,000 per annum to the hunters and farmers' boys of this State." Granted; but why should not the Pennsylvania Legislature pass such an act. The Federal Legislature passes tariff laws of which Senator Plumb says that "the manufacturers get practically the sole benefit." It is time for the hunters and farmers' boys to "have a whack" at the public treasury.

The cable forwarded last week another of those ridiculous despatches which reach us and all the newspapers from time to time, announcing the inheritance by "the Russian branch of the Leslie family" of a fortune of $50,000,000 in England, payment of which is made conditional on their becoming English subjects. The object of the despatch is, doubtless, to prepare the minds of American heirs for similar windfalls, such as are every now and then announced by the numerous swindling claim-agents who live on their credulity. In all or nearly all these swindles, the payment of the legacy is made dependent on absolutely arbitrary conditions, with which the transmission of property is not saddled in any civilized country. The Queen or the Lord Chancellor is holding on to it, or the Peers will not pass an act authorizing its payment without getting a "divvy." If American heirs will bear in mind that England is, like this, a country governed by known laws, that legacies are protected and transmitted there precisely as they are here, under existing acts of Parliament and the decisions of the courts, and that "the Crown" has no more right to impose conditions on a lawful heir than the President has, they will be saved many a ten-dollar bill. Whenever they are told of some difficulty in getting their inheritance in England which does not exist here, they may be sure that the "confidence man" is after them.

The testimony of Pigott, who supplied the London *Times* with the Parnell letters, would probably of itself have done little to establish their authenticity. That question will be settled in the judges' minds mainly by internal evidence—that is, the handwriting of the letters and the comparison of the signatures with others of Parnell's. But his testimony may do a good deal to damage the case of the *Times* generally, owing to his recklessness. For instance, it was plainly a great mistake to draw from him the assertion that Labouchere of *Truth* had offered him £1,000 to admit that he forged them. Of course Labouchere will deny this, and he will deny it with overwhelming force, because he is noted for his shrewdness and worldly wisdom. The most malignant of his enemies would not accuse him of simplicity or indiscretion in dealing with sharpers, or charlatans, or blackmailers of any description. His experience of this class has been very great, and they have no more deadly enemy in the press or police court. He is much more likely to have extracted an offer from Pigott to swear they were forged for £1,000, than to have made him an offer if he would do it. It is now no secret that Pigott offered to sell the letters to Labouchere before he took them to the *Times*, of course with the expectation that it would be worth that sum to the Home-Rulers and the Irish party to get them out of the way. Whether Labouchere has any proof of this beyond his own word remains to be seen. But the mere fact that the letters were hawked about for sale, and that the *Times* finally paid a great price for them, must give their authenticity a deadly blow in the public mind. The law of demand and supply governs forged letters as well as other things. As soon as it appears plain that there is a market for documents which will damage a man, they are apt to be produced in sufficient quantities. In this matter Pigott has shown more sagacity than in other transactions of his life, because he appears to be a broken-down and generally despised old fellow.

The eviction of tenants on Mr. Gladstone's, or rather his son's, estate at Hawarden, for non-payment of rent, is giving great satisfaction to the Unionists, and they are making merry over it. Mr. Herbert Gladstone, we learn by the cable, has been making some sort of defence of it. We do not know what the special circumstances of the case are, but there is one general defence which any English landlord who happens to be a Home-Ruler, can always make for evictions in England, based on the central fact of the whole Irish agitation about land. That is, that in England the landlord erects and keeps in order all the farm buildings, and fences, and does all the draining—in fact, plays the part that the landlord of a city house does. In Ireland as a general rule, to which there are but few exceptions, the improvements which now exist in the island are the result of the unprotected labor of the tenants, who have been charged increasing rents on the additions made by their own industry to the value of the farms—additions which, in a vast number of cases, have consisted in the absolute reclamation of the farm from a state of undrained bog or moor. It is not uncommon for Unionist speakers to point out the large number of evictions which take place annually in New York city without resistance or remark, as an illustration of the unreasonableness of the Irish in objecting to evictions at home; but this argument, of course, owes whatever value it has to ignoring the Irish tenant's share in creating the property from which he is evicted, and the difference between buildings on coveted spots in a great city and farms in remote regions, which owe all their value to the industry of the occupier.

The resignation of M. Floquet without warning to the Chamber, after defeat on the mere question of adjourning the debate on the revision of the Constitution, seems to show that he was tired out, and was only waiting for a decent excuse for retiring. Any other explanation would impute to him unpardonable levity. The probabilities are that he was completely demoralized by the result of the Paris election, and despaired of making further head against the Boulangist tide. President Carnot will try for a few days to form a new Ministry, but is very unlikely to find a man willing to form one at the present juncture, in a Parliament which is already discredited in the popular eyes, and will be more discredited than ever through Floquet's hasty resignation. After some futile efforts, he will doubtless have to resort to dissolution, for which everybody is now looking; and if the country sends up a Boulangist majority, which will provide for the revision of the Constitution under Boulanger's direction, we may bid good-by to the republic. Boulanger will become first President, then dictator—the sorriest that has ever appeared in a great nation—and after that nobody knows what will happen. He cannot become a President of the American type. He will be simply a shabby Cæsar, without either talents or character, and France will be in a deeper slough of despond than she has ever been. He will be helped rather than hindered by the near approach of the Exposition. That is, the Parisians will want to have the crisis over before the Exposition opens, and they will hardly care how it ends, provided it ends in time for that. They will doubtless be pleased, too, to have a President who looks showy on horseback to conduct the ceremonies and receive the foreigners, even if he is a charlatan. A great people making an idol of an arrant humbug and impostor is a new spectacle, but one which the new age will probably furnish now and then. It is perhaps in that direction more than any other that democracy will make its mistakes.

The Tribunal of Commerce, before which an application was made to declare the Panama Canal Company bankrupt on the ground that it is a commercial company, has decided that it is a commercial company, thus upsetting the Panama Canal Company's plea, based on the recent decision of the Tribunal of the Seine, that it is a civil concern, and that the Tribunal of Commerce had therefore no jurisdiction in the matter. If this decision be maintained, it will put an end to all efforts to turn the Panama Company over to any new syndicate or combination, to issue new loans and exploit the remains "for all it is worth." The decision means that any creditor or any security-holder of the company can force it into bankruptcy and sell its assets (if any) under the hammer.

SIGNS OF PROGRESS.

Republican politicians and Republican organs are filled with disgust at the shameless conduct of the Democratic Administration in trying to fill offices with Democrats, notwithstanding the election of a Republican President last November. During the last three months, scores of offices have fallen vacant by reason of the expiration of the terms of the incumbents, and Mr. Cleveland is roundly censured for his temerity in nominating successors. In some cases vacancies have occurred through death, and the President has provoked the censure of his opponents by naming Democrats to fill the vacancies. In at least one instance he has removed a Democratic incumbent of an office, Civil-Service Commissioner Edgerton, in order to put another Democrat, Mr. Thompson, in the place, apparently from personal rather than public considerations.

Much of this talk is simply amusing for its impudence. Republicans complain that the Democrats are "greedy" because Democrats are named for offices at the expiration of terms, in face of the two facts, that these offices fall vacant now because a Republican President appointed men to them four years ago, after the election of a Democrat in 1884, and that the Republicans whom Mr. Arthur thus installed after Mr. Cleveland's election have been allowed to hold their offices throughout a Democratic Administration. To inveigh against the office-grabbing propensity of Democrats under such circumstances represents a climax of audacity which only such unselfish patriots as "Bill" Chandler can maintain with a sober face.

So, too, it requires a good deal of brass for Republicans to complain when Mr. Cleveland names a man of his own party to succeed another Democrat upon the latter's death, as in the nomination of Assistant Postmaster-General Stevenson to take the place of the late Judge Merrick of the District of Columbia Supreme Court. A number of Republican office-holders died during the four months between Mr. Cleveland's election and inauguration, but in not a single instance did Mr. Arthur fail to nominate other Republicans to succeed them. Nobody then presumed to suggest that, as the Democrats were coming into power, it would be indecorous to saddle Republican office-holders upon the new Administration.

In like manner it seems somewhat inconsistent for Republicans to complain of a Democratic President for attempting official changes like the recent one in the Civil-Service Commission in order to oblige a personal friend, when one recalls the shamelessness with which Mr. Arthur, Mr. Hayes, and Gen. Grant used the public service to pay off obligations to political supporters and to secure good places for friends and relatives. Nothing that has been charged against Mr. Cleveland in this respect begins to approach the notorious and admitted facts in the record of his Republican predecessors.

At the same time, all civil-service reformers will welcome every indication, of whatever sort, that the use of the civil service for purely personal and partisan purposes is coming more and more under the ban. If Mr. Arthur had made such an appointment as that of Mr. Stevenson to the District of Columbia bench four years ago, it would have been almost universally accepted as the natural thing; and it is a good sign that public sentiment now so generally resents the nomination of the Illinois politician on the ground that he does not possess the special qualifications demanded. The attempted substitution of Mr. Thompson for Mr. Edgerton as Civil-Service Commissioner does not begin to compare in impropriety with Mr. Arthur's gift of a paymastership to a near relative who would shortly go upon the retired list with a pension by reason of age; but the latter passed almost without protest, while the former is severely condemned.

We have heard a great deal, and very justifiably, about the disgraceful extent to which the Democrats have carried politics in the postal service, but really nothing has been brought to light which is worse than the evils that prevailed under Republican rule and are now forgotten, so short is the public memory. Senator Plumb of Kansas recently presented a letter from the business manager of the Kansas City (Mo.) *Journal*, a Republican organ, complaining of "the present demoralized condition of the Western mail service." A few days later Senator Vest of Missouri produced from the files letters from the very same man written in 1882, bringing equally and even more severe complaints against the mail service under Arthur. An editorial article in the *Journal* of September 12, 1882, said: "From every source in Kansas where the Missouri Pacific extends, there come bitter complaints of the mails. Late, late, always late, from one to twenty-four hours. We have hitherto borne this annoyance and positive loss—for it is a serious loss to the Kansas City morning papers—without public complaint; but when our patrons take up the cry and charge the fault at our doors, we must state the facts in self-defence, if nothing more. The one thing which would make our hearts glad and our patrons happy would be a regular mail service along the line on this road, which could be run on time for thirty consecutive days."

The explanation of these gross delinquencies under the Arthur Administration is very simple, and was thus given by Mr. Vest:

"I had occasion once before to state a single fact which came to the knowledge of my colleague and myself in regard to the appointment of railway postal clerks under the Administration of the late President Arthur. It came within our personal knowledge that the patronage of the State of Missouri as to railway postal clerks was divided—one-half of it, the eastern half, going to Chauncey I. Filley, and the western half to Col. R. T. Van Horn. There was a factional fight in the Republican party within the State, and in order to bring about that placid and ecstatic condition of political feeling that was necessary to the success of the party, there was a line drawn through the middle of the State from the Iowa to the Arkansas line, and one-half of the patronage was given to Mr. Filley and one-half was given to Col. Van Horn, and that instruction from the Postmaster-General to the appointing clerk of the Post-office Department was put in writing. The result was that men were put in office utterly incompetent, and there were thirty-four of them in office when Cleveland's Administration came into existence, many of them from other States, of whom we had never heard in the State of Missouri; but the exigencies of political warfare demanded their appointment and their retention."

The hopeful feature of the situation is that public sentiment would not permit Gen. Harrison, should he be so disposed—which there is no warrant for charging—to make such a division of the patronage of a State as was made under Mr. Arthur, and not only made, but then accepted as natural and reasonable. The revelation of the bargain half-a-dozen years ago would not have created a great sensation, whereas now such a disclosure would do irreparable harm to an Administration. Civil-service reformers, therefore, while not concealing their amused contempt for the hypocrisy of Republican talk about Democratic greed, may well feel encouraged at the multiplying signs that the public sentiment to which both Republicans and Democrats must bow grows more pronounced every day against the spoils system. The people will not stand now what they accepted, almost without grumbling, only a few years ago. Voters have expected more of Mr. Cleveland than they did of Mr. Arthur. They will expect more of Gen. Harrison than of Mr. Cleveland, and they will condemn more unsparingly abuses under Gen. Harrison than they did under Mr. Cleveland. The irresistible tide of enlightened public opinion sets more and more strongly against the spoils system.

THE McELWEE EPISODE.

The careless reader of the newspapers, on seeing the above heading, will probably ask, "Who is McElwee?" McElwee is an examiner at the Custom-house, and "the McElwee episode" is a luminous illustration of what civil-service reform ought *not* to be. The first appearance of McElwee in history was in May of last year, before the Hale Investigating Committee. It was there testified by Mr. McMullen that McElwee's removal had been recommended to the Secretary of the Treasury for "drunkenness and insubordination," and he was accordingly removed in or about August, 1887. He remained out of the service until March, 1888, when Mr. McMullen received a communication removing several of his subordinates, but "suggesting that he (McElwee) be recommended by you for reinstatement." There was no explanation, no expression of opinion about the man. The letter did not say, "I think the charge of drunkenness and insubordination on which you obtained his removal was unfounded," or, "I am satisfied that he is now a seasoned teetotaler, who can be safely trusted with responsible duties." It simply said: "It is suggested that he be recommended by you for reinstatement"—that is, reinstated in spite of Mr. McMullen's knowledge that he was "drunken and insubordinate."

Mr. McMullen testified that he had no choice but to obey; that he looked on the Secretary's "suggestion" as a command, and he accordingly recommended the reinstate-

ment of this man whom he knew to be drunken and insubordinate, thus conniving at a fraud on the Government and on the American people. On the receipt at Washington of this false and fraudulent "recommendation," McElwee was restored to the service as an examiner by an order of Secretary Fairchild nominally, but really of Assistant-Secretary Maynard, dated March 26, 1888.

A day or two later it was discovered that this summary mode of reinstating a drunken insubordinate would not do—that he must get back again by the civil-service gates; and the order of March 26 was accordingly revoked on the 21st of April, and poor Mr. McMullen was requested to "make a requisition on the Board of Civil-Service Examiners for a certificate for the reinstatement of McElwee." The reason of this was, that the Civil-Service Commissioners at Washington, having heard of McElwee's summary restoration, had warned the Secretary of the Treasury that it was illegal; that McElwee, having been removed for "delinquency and misconduct," could not be restored to the eligible list in the manner proposed, or at all within a year. This was an awkward situation. The escape from it was effected by altering or overriding the rules by an ingenious device. The Civil-Service Commission at Washington was induced to rule that the request of a department for the recertification of an employee removed for misconduct, was prima-facie evidence that he had not been removed for misconduct, and was mandatory on the Board of Examiners—in other words, that the Department could certify to a falsehood, and make the falsehood serve the purpose of truth. Accordingly, McElwee was restored over McMullen's head on the 5th of May, 1888, and in the teeth of evidence of the clearest kind that he had been drunken and insubordinate, and in the absence of all evidence that any change had taken place in his morals or manners.

What did this interest in McElwee mean? Why did the Secretary connive at these dishonest and demoralizing practices in behalf of a person of McElwee's description? It was impossible to answer this question satisfactorily until the Byrne report appeared. That contains the explanation. Byrne began his operations in New York by detective work—that is, by going about, "concealing his identity," to use his own words, towards the end of 1886. He describes himself as visiting any person who would be likely to know anything about the employees in the Appraiser's Department, and trying, through gossip or otherwise, to hear of something to the personal discredit of any of them, and particularly of Dr. Sherer. In this way he learned from one man that Sherer was the Turkish Consul, but that "the Turks were disgusted with him."

These operations of course were heard of in the Custom-house long before he entered on his judicial functions in the summer of 1887, and naturally filled the officers of the Appraiser's Department with prejudice against him and hostility to him. A magistrate who mounts the bench to administer justice in the double character of judge and prosecutor, after having himself collected some of the evidence in the humble rôle of a "shadow," naturally finds the poor prisoners considerably incensed against him. They all, in the most impudent and insubordinate manner, according to Byrne, denied to him, when put on oath, all knowledge of frauds or undervaluations in the sugar department, except one, and this was McElwee. Now McElwee was then, and had probably been for some time, under an alcoholic cloud, so to speak. In plainer English, his prospects were dimmed and his standing discredited by his fondness for liquor. Removal at the hands of the wicked McMullen appeared clearly among the possibilities of a not very remote future. To him, therefore, Byrne appeared as a sail on the horizon to a shipwrecked mariner afloat in an open boat. He hailed Byrne promptly, and offered to tell all he knew if he would take him aboard. We consequently soon find in the report eulogies of McElwee. He "testified honestly and fearlessly," and for this the wicked McMullen suspended him. Indeed, when McMullen heard of McElwee's testimony, "his rage," Byrne says, "could not be kept within bounds," and the old gentleman "exhibited his rage in a most unbecoming manner." The dislike of McElwee felt by his brother officers finally "crystallized into a charge of intemperance," which, of course, was all slander, or, anyhow, "exceedingly ancient." In a final burst of praise, Byrne says:

> "I would call attention to the reports made by this officer on 'Violations of the Regulations,' annexed to this testimony (Exhibit 101), and made at my request, evidencing the ability of that officer, and his worthy desire to place before the Honorable Secretary of the Treasury all facts in his possession as to irregularities in the treatment of imported sugar for duty, with a view towards the impartial enforcement of existing Treasury regulations."

The dénouement of the comedy is exactly what it ought to be. As soon as McElwee was restored, his old enemy appears to have again assailed him. In other words, his feeling of satisfaction and security "crystallized," as Byrne says, into intemperance. He appears, from the testimony taken on his trial here, to have begun drinking again as early as June last, and we suppose has been taking "a little something" at intervals ever since. Finally, about three weeks ago, it became too bad to go longer unnoticed, and he was once more put on trial for being drunk on duty and making a mess of his official memoranda. The result is still unknown. His case has been reported to Washington, and is there under deep deliberation. We have tried to get photographs of the latest official writings of this eminent public servant for publication, but the Government was too sharp for us, and they are buried in the official archives. If ever the full history of the "sugar frauds" is written, they will doubtless be laid before a long-suffering people. But we venture to predict that McElwee will be neither acquitted nor convicted. His case will remain under deliberation until the 4th of March, and then float down the stream of time as "unfinished business." It is a funny but disgraceful episode.

THE LARMON TAX BILL.

A BILL has been introduced into the Assembly of this State, by Mr. Larmon of Washington County, which might justly be entitled "An Act to Increase the Burden of Taxation upon the Consciences of the Taxpayers." With a few verbal alterations, it is the same measure that was last year presented by Mr. Brundage. Its aim is to equalize the taxation of realty and personalty. To holders of mortgaged estates it offers most generous and substantial relief. Until the expiration of the contracts under which they gave these mortgages, it would enable them to deduct from the interest pledged to their creditors the amount of the taxes levied upon the assessment of the mortgages. In so far as these creditors are individuals resident within the State, their protestations would probably enlist but little sympathy, since the proposed act would merely insure the collection of taxes which are already in name imposed upon them. But in the case of mortgages held by savings-banks and mutual-insurance companies, the situation is different. By law as well as in fact, such mortgages have been exempt from taxation. When the money for them was loaned, it was not loaned at the entire value of its usufruct, but at the value which would remain to the borrower after he had paid the claims of the State. A tax-law, therefore, which should a second time deduct the amount of these State claims from the interest received by the creditor, would be the enforcement of double taxation against institutions which it has heretofore been deemed public policy to favor. Where the holders of the mortgages are residents in other States, a still further complication arises. The case becomes almost identical with that of the State tax on foreign-held bonds, which was decided unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States (R. R. v. Pennsylvania, 15 Wall, 323).

It is not, however, our present purpose to protest against this provision affecting the obligation of contracts. The remainder of the bill deserves, perhaps, even stronger condemnation. The Larmon bill is the last and perhaps the most perfect of the measures which have been presented in nearly every State to force upon the holders of personal property the alternative of taxation or perjury. It requires every taxable inhabitant to return a list of all his property liable to taxation, "no matter where situated," including all moneys loaned, invested, or deposited, and all credits owing him by any solvent person or persons, body corporate or body politic (except stock in corporations otherwise taxed), "with an averment that he has not invested or transferred any portion of his personal property, or entered into any agreement or incurred any obligation or liability for the purpose of avoiding taxation." Deduction is permitted for "debts owing in good faith," but only in so far as such debts are "in excess of all non-taxable securities" owned by the taxpayers.

That such an act would result in demoralizing the public conscience without materially increasing the burdens resting up-

on personal property, does not need to be redemonstrated. Yet the fact that this bill, after being defeated in one Legislature, should be introduced into the next, and that similar measures, increasing in the strenuousness of their provisions, are being presented in nearly every State in the Union, does demand public attention. It makes clear the truth that the taxation of personal property is not soon to be abandoned, and therefore, since it cannot be abolished, it must be reformed.

Thus far the attitude of the cities towards reforms in State taxation has been chiefly that of obstruction. Some of the arguments which are now being urged against the Larmon bill are as demonstrably absurd as is the attempt of that measure to reach personal property beyond the borders of the State. Particularly is this true of the position taken by the single-tax advocates, who, perceiving that perhaps three-quarters of the taxation imposed upon real estate rests upon land, are enthusiastically urging that the taxation of personal property be abandoned. The most influential newspaper that has espoused this cause, puts forth the claim that were all taxation levied upon land alone, its burden would be justly distributed among the whole people. This is equivalent to saying that were a 6 per cent. blanket mortgage placed upon all the farms in the State, their owners could advance the prices of grain sufficiently to remain as prosperous as now. The rental value of land depends entirely upon the advantages which it affords above those of other land yielding less rent or no rent. The value of these advantages is in no way increased or diminished by greater or less taxation. Taxes upon land rest precisely where they are put.

Yet the single-tax men who recognize the truth, are persistently maintaining, that were all taxes levied upon land alone, it would be the cities and not the country which would pay more than now. Last month Mr. Thomas G. Shearman urged this point before the Legislature of Ohio. For the keenness with which he presented statistics bearing remotely upon the question at issue, his address was admirable. Unfortunately, however, Mr. Shearman failed to make use of some statistics bearing directly upon the question, which were prepared by the State Board of Equalization in 1880. The report of that body contains the assessed value of all the real estate in the commonwealth—land and buildings being listed separately. We have compiled the returns there given for the various counties, and find that, in the cities, towns, and villages of the State, land constituted 54 per cent. of the value of the realty, while on the farms it constituted 86 per cent. Less than half of the population of Ohio is agricultural, yet the value of its farm land is more than 70 per cent. of the total value of the land of the State.

If Mr. Shearman had gone further, and studied the returns of any typical county in Ohio, he would have understood why the average legislator insists upon the taxation of personal property. In the county of Greene, for instance, where the town and country population are approximately equal, the ten incorporated towns returned for taxation 9 per cent. of land of the county, 18 per cent. of the real estate, and 38 per cent. of the personal property. In the face of facts like these, a common sense of justice demands that the rural legislator shall insist upon the taxation of personalty, but it does not demand that he shall insist upon the taxation of property situated beyond the borders of the State, nor upon the intangible evidences of property situated within the State. Such attempts are as unjust and unwise as they are impracticable. The theory of the property tax demands that each piece of property be taxed once and only once, and that the taxation be levied where the property actually exists, and not where the owner happens to spend the income derived from it. In Connecticut, the State in which the taxation of personal property has been carried out most successfully, the attempts to tax fugitive property have failed ignominiously. The Special Tax Commission of 1887 reported that the proportion of intangible securities to other taxable property was dwindling from year to year. "In 1855 it was nearly 10 per cent. of the whole, in 1865 about 7½ per cent., in 1875 a little over 5 per cent., and in 1885 about 3¾ per cent." In the interests of honesty and justice the Commission urged the abandonment of the hopeless attempt to tax such securities. Yet in this same State the tangible personalty returned by individuals amounts in value to one-third as much as the real estate, and the taxes imposed upon the railroads and other corporations amount to a 1 per cent. levy upon an assessment of $115,000,000, while the farm lands of the State are assessed at but $59,000,000.

COLLEGE DISCIPLINE.

THE action of the Harvard College Overseers in adopting a minute providing for a certain modification of the policy pursued by the President and Faculty for some years past, is one of those interferences by outsiders with college management which must always, on general principles, be more or less regretted. For the Overseers are, to all intents and purposes, outsiders—the representatives of alumni who live all over the country—and are intended to be what their name indicates, viz., a sort of council to keep an eye on the doings of Faculty and students. They are, for the most part, men who live in or near Cambridge, and are generally men of high standing in their own callings, and an excellent body of advisers on any subject to which they give their full attention. Moreover, it is not easy to find fault with some portions of their direction in the present instance. The expediency of a rule "that every undergraduate be requested to report in person early every morning, with a moderate and fixed allowance for occasional absences," which they adopt, will hardly be questioned by anybody who knows anything of the capacity of some Harvard undergraduates for lying late in the morning. Many of them, since the abolition of compulsory attendance at prayers, find it convenient to stay in bed until their first recitation, which may not come before eleven or twelve o'clock, and others, of course, may readily be absent for days from their rooms without being missed. Parents naturally enough dislike to see these sluggish, unready, and desultory habits contracted by their sons at the age when the formation of habits is such a very important part of a youth's training; and the Overseers, to some extent representing the parents, and feeling the pressure of their anxiety, have taken the matter in hand, overridden the Faculty, and called on the latter for a considerable increase of rigidity in the discipline of the College, the President voting in the minority against their action.

However desirable it may be that this change should be made, we feel sure that a very large number of those who have given any attention to American colleges as a moral influence will wish it had been made by the Faculty rather than the Overseers. That the Faculty should be overborne on a matter of discipline by an outside body having no direct share in the management, is certainly calculated to aggravate the most serious defect of our collegiate system. Nothing does so much to prevent a "collegiate education," as it is called, in our day and generation, leaving marked and lasting effects on the character and tastes of young men who graduate, as the low esteem in which they hold the professors—that is, the small importance they attach to their opinions about everything relating to the conduct of life—everything, in short, outside the special subject which the professor teaches. It is a rare thing to find a graduate of one of our leading colleges who has brought away any respect for the Faculty in any character but that of men of learning. As men of the world, or as social or moral philosophers, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that he contemns them and contemns their calling. Now and then a professor of unusual force or shrewdness or attainment keeps his place in the memory of his old pupils as a guide, philosopher, and friend; but, as a general rule, our American graduates, and especially those who succeed in life afterwards, are apt to remember their college days mainly as days of fun with their classmates, and very rarely as days of instruction from men of stronger minds and longer experience.

Of course there is more than one cause for this, but the chief cause, and the one needing most serious attention, is the low place given to the professor in our college organization, the small account made of his opinions about collegiate administration, and the very small share given him in college government. There is hardly a college in the country in which he does not, to a greater or less extent, play the part of a clerk employed in carrying out the views or whims of boards of trustees, whose main qualification for the task is either that they have contributed money to college funds, or are trusted and admired as business men by those who have done so. As we have more than once said, all the great universities of the world, which are recognized as genu-

ine "seats of learning," to which, *as such*, graduates look back with reverence as sources of genuine intellectual or moral inspiration, are governed by the Faculty; in truth, the University is the Faculty, and the Faculty is the University. The thought of treating the University as a factory or a bank, to be managed by boards of business men, does not in such places enter into anybody's head. All the statutes and regulations are formed with a view to magnifying the teacher's office, and, through him, magnifying the instruction he gives.

Our system is entirely different, and, in our opinion, most unfortunate. All our legislation and our practice tends to lower the professor in the eyes of the youth who take his courses, to make them think him a person of small account, to whom a boy who means to play his part well in the battle of American life, will pay little attention. And this undergraduate estimate of the professor's value diffuses itself through the community, until we find it the fashion among plain Americans to despise a professor's opinions on nearly everything but Greek and Latin. Amusing illustrations of this are to be met with every day, when professorial teachings happen to run counter to some popular opinion or political humbug. The serious proposal that professors of political economy should be forbidden to teach free-trade doctrines because a majority of the voters think a high tariff a good way of making money, and the profound contempt expressed in Congress for their utterances on the currency during the greenback and silver craze a few years ago, are specimens of what we mean. If it be said that the professors of any particular college are not competent to regulate its discipline and curriculum, we answer that they are in that case unfit for their places, and that better men should be found, and better salaries, if necessary, paid to get them, and not that the government of the college should be handed over to persons burdened with other cares, and whose chief attention is given to other subjects.

THE SUNDAY PAPER IN LONDON.

THE uproar created in London by the attempt of the proprietor of the New York *Herald* to establish a Sunday newspaper there is a little difficult to understand. There are Sunday papers already, but not exactly newspapers. They are weeklies devoted to tales, sketches, anecdotes, theatrical and sporting gossip, and their circulation is largely confined to public houses and bachelor quarters. The novelty of the London edition of the Sunday *Herald* will consist simply in the fact that it will be a Sunday morning paper of the New York type, giving the news of Saturday precisely as the Saturday paper gives the news of Friday. Some of the opposition to it in London has been due to the notion that it will be produced on Sunday, and thus compel compositors and pressmen to break the Sabbath; the fact being, of course, that it will not cause as much Sabbath-breaking as the Monday edition of the London *Times*. But the greater part of this opposition is due to the fear that it will introduce into the homes of the middle and upper classes on Sunday morning the Sunday paper as we know it here—that is, the ordinary morning newspaper, with its usual editorial discussion of every-day topics, plus a great mass of light reading, partly original and partly extracts, some of it really serious, some of it sensational, and some of it unmitigated rubbish; the average quality, of course, varying with the character of the newspaper during the other six days of the week. It cannot be said that the New York Sunday morning paper is really any more objectionable, from a moral or intellectual standpoint, than the morning paper of week days, except in containing more matter. In fact, most of our Sunday papers work in, we believe, enough of what is called "religious matter" to give a semi-sacred character to at least one of their pages, so that the Sunday paper cannot be said to be any more pernicious *per se* than the Monday paper.

What the English clergymen who have protested probably most dislike, is the process of assimilation of Sunday to other days in the minds of readers, which they think the reading of the Sunday paper will work. A great many even non-religious Englishmen support with perfect equanimity the famous dulness of the London Sunday, as compared with that of Continental capitals, because it marks off Sunday from other days in the popular imagination in a very impressive way. The "Sabbath stillness" is a dreadful infliction to the young and gay in the city, but it keeps them in constant remembrance that elderly people and serious people consider Sunday a day of rest, and like to accentuate the difference between it and other days in every possible way. It is feared, therefore, that if the morning paper came into the house on Sunday as usual, and the men, who are here the principal patrons of the Sunday press, got into the way of dawdling over it through the forenoon, one of the great differences between Sunday and Monday would be effaced. We do not believe the intellectual objections to the Sunday paper amount to much. Nobody who loves the Sunday paper and lingers over it has his mind seriously injured by it. He is pretty sure, long before he comes to crave it, to have lost the habit of prolonged attention by confining his reading exclusively to week-day newspapers. He likes the scrappy character of the Sunday paper because his mind has grown scrappy, because he can no more read anything requiring protracted attention to one topic than he can "put up" a hundred-pound dumb-bell with arms that have for months lifted nothing heavier than a ten-ounce cane. Bottom in reading, to use a sporting term, is only acquired or retained, like bottom in athletics, by steady exercise.

Whether a Sunday paper modelled on the New York *Herald*, and edited by Heraldic Americans, can succeed in London, is another matter. We think it is very doubtful whether it will do more than add to the proprietor's experience of life and make away with a good deal of his money. The English taste in newspapers, as in other things, is very steadfast. It may be changed, but it can only be changed slowly and by editors who have some touch of the national temperament and turn of mind. Englishmen, even the frivolous ones, have a sombre vein which makes such editorial treatment as the New York *Herald* bestows on most subjects absolutely incomprehensible to them. That portion of our journalistic fun, for instance, which consists simply in flippant or childish or ejaculatory treatment of serious subjects, it would be very hard to get an Englishman of any class to enjoy, or even endure, very long. The attitude of the people towards nearly all public questions is the attitude of men who have seen and suffered a good deal, to whom mistakes are grave matters, who cannot afford to indulge in horse play or tomfoolery about government or finance, or war. English politics, in short, great as the fame and success of England have been, are the politics of people who have paid dearly for their glory, who bear great burdens, to whom the future is still full of uncertainty, and to whom, therefore, the joyous antics of those who have never known adversity, and hardly know what to do with their money, are more or less repulsive. A "Here we are again!" Sunday paper of the American type, therefore, is hardly likely to take in London, although it is not impossible that a really English Sunday paper might succeed pretty well.

BOULANGER'S AMERICAN CONSTITUTION.

BOULANGER, though supported by the partisans of the houses of Orleans and Bonaparte, proclaims himself the stanchest of republicans, aiming only to transplant to French soil the Constitution of the United States, of the greatest and most firmly grounded republic. What he means by the American Constitution is mainly this: that the Chief Executive shall, like an American President, have the power to retain his own Ministers notwithstanding the hostile vote of one or both chambers, and to negative the passage of laws unless they be consented to by an overwhelming majority of the Chambers; and shall have the independent position of an American President, which results from his election by the people while the French President is only the creature and mouthpiece of the Chambers. As a slight modification, Boulanger suggests that the President's term, instead of seven or four years, be extended to ten. Of course, it is understood, as the main feature of the programme, that Boulanger himself is to be the first President of the reformed commonwealth. Leaving out the question of the extended term, it is very clear that an executive with such powers as are here outlined, would differ in little but in name from an absolute Emperor.

To see the matter in the true light, let us look at the powers which our own President wields, both in the appointment of officers and in the recommendation and rejection of laws. They distribute themselves through the seven executive departments. All of these reappear in France on a vastly enlarged scale. Foreign intercourse is more delicate and important; also, much more

expensive. As chief of the army, President Cleveland commands 28,000 men; Sadi-Carnot commands 480,000, besides the territorial army and the reserves; Cleveland commands less than 8,000 sailors and marines; Sadi-Carnot more than 25,000. The French Post-office embraces the telegraphs, the American does not. The French Treasury deals with a national debt five times as large as ours. Our Indian problem is no more troublesome than the management of the Arabs and Moors is to the French. The only bureaus in the American service which outrun their French counterparts in importance are Patents and Pensions. The French Department of Justice is in every way more powerful than ours: it shapes all legislation on private rights.

But those powers which in the American system are Federal or central, are but a small part of those which are wielded by a French Executive. It is true that Boulanger proposes to give a "certain autonomy" to the provinces to assimilate them in some respects to the American States. Whether he means the old provinces as they were known before 1791, or the modern departments, is not clear from his utterances; but neither can be made to answer for American States. The French people never would allow any portion of their common country to act like an American State—that is, to devise its own laws on religion, schools, marriage and divorce, rights of property, punishment of crimes, proceedings in the courts of justice; and there is hardly any portion of France which would desire to wield such an autonomy. The laws of the nation, in all these subjects, would be the paramount if not the only laws, and the President of the nation would be clothed with the power of executing them. He would thus combine with the power of an American President many of the powers wielded by the thirty-eight State Governors; many also of the powers which the people of the counties enjoy in most of our States, in electing their judges, sheriffs, and other ministerial officers.

But this is not all. The French President has a third source of power and patronage. The concordat made in 1803 between the First Consul and the Pope gives to the head of the French Government the power of naming all the Catholic bishops, who in turn appoint and assign to their cures nearly one hundred thousand priests. Though these have been lately deprived of all influence in the public schools, they still, in many provinces, have great power over the minds of the people, especially over those of the women. Louis Napoleon's control of the clergy was one of his strongest weapons in raising himself to the throne and in holding it for nearly nineteen years.

Whatever, therefore, may be said about the beauties of the American Constitution, with its powerful Chief Executive, it seems that the true Republicans of France are right in refusing to duplicate it in their own country. Parliamentary rule, depending on the shifting majorities of a chamber, may be weak and vacillating, but on the whole it is preferable to a renewal of a dictatorship, followed by a new cycle of revolutions.

THE PARIS ELECTION.

PARIS, February 7.

THE election which has just taken place in Paris is an event of unusual importance. I have seen many elections in the capital, but at no time have I witnessed such an ardent struggle. Day after day, one might almost say hour after hour, kilometres of walls were covered with placards, red, blue, yellow, green, —of all possible hues—of Boulanger versus Jacques, or Jacques versus Boulanger. When the struggle was over, I saw people detach with knives pieces of these superposed placards, in order to examine the thickness of the deposit. All is over now. Jacques has fallen back into absolute oblivion; he has had his day, and will never be heard of again. On the evening of election day, the boys were singing on the boulevard the old popular song,

> "Pauvre Jacques!
> Dormez-vous?
> Sonnez les matines," etc.,

which has been used for many generations to put children to sleep.

The triumph of Gen. Boulanger was expected for some days before the election; it has been greater than his partisans themselves could have hoped for. In round numbers, Paris has half a million of electors, out of which you must always expect that there will be 100,000 abstainers, by reason of absence, sickness, etc. In all the recent elections in Paris, the Republican vote has amounted to about 250,000; the Conservatives have an army of about 100,000; the Socialists have a small battalion of 20,000. In the election which has just taken place, the Conservatives had no candidate of their own; they had agreed not to oppose any rival to General Boulanger, though this neutrality was not approved of by the oldest Conservative leaders, who were somewhat in the position of a general no longer obeyed by his troops. The Royalists (and the same may be said of the Imperialists) are in fact divided since the intervention of Gen. Boulanger in our public affairs. The old Parliamentarians, the men who belong to the generation of the Duc de Broglie, of M. Buffet, the respected leader of the Right in the Senate, the men who were opposed to the Second Empire and who remember still the 2d of December, who form the staff, if I may so say, of the Conservative army, may all be said to be more or less hostile to Gen. Boulanger. They look upon him with great distrust; they do not believe that he is working for anybody but himself; they do not approve his political programmes, his new methods of political warfare; they cannot forgive him his conduct while he was Minister of War, his spirit of insubordination while in the ranks of the army. Truth obliges me to say that the great mass of the Conservative army, and that the Conservative leaders who belong to a younger generation, are not moved by the same feelings; it is enough for them that Gen. Boulanger should offer to wipe out the present state of things. "He is a broom, and that is enough for me," was said to me by one of them. Before building anew, they believe that they must first destroy what exists. They have long been waiting for a bold man, for the unknown General, Gen. X, as an algebraist would say, who should come forward and offer to clean the stables of Augeas. They have no particular love, affection, or admiration for Gen. Boulanger, but they find him ready to do what they wish to have done.

It is certainly a curious fact that the older Conservatives are the most patient, are willing to wait; the younger generation are impatient and will wait no longer. They are also much less idealistic. The old parliamentarians belong to the class whom the great Napoleon condemned under the name of ideologists. The young Conservatives are materialistic; they accept Gen. Boulanger without reference to any principle: if he can do their work, it is enough for them. They accuse the old leaders of the Conservative party of impotence and stupidity; to all the reproaches which can be made to them they invariably reply: We cannot do worse than you have done, and we may do better. In 1870 you allowed M. Thiers to maintain the republican form of government when the country, after the disasters brought upon it not only by the Empire, but also by the so-called Government of National Defence, clearly showed its intention of going back to monarchy, by returning a majority of Royalists. When you replaced M. Thiers with Marshal MacMahon, you yourselves gave to the Republic its Constitution by passing the so-called Constitutional laws. You made of the Republic something stronger than a government *de facto*. You hoped to keep the power in your own hands, but the logic of the situation which you had created was stronger than you; you were unable to maintain Marshal MacMahon in power, and as soon as he was replaced by the old Republican Grévy, the direction of the Government fell into the hands of the Moderate Republicans, from their hands into those of the Opportunists, from their hands into those of the Radicals. You have foreseen nothing; you have prevented nothing.

It is difficult to answer this language. A country governed by universal suffrage is not like a chamber, where the personal influence of a few men can be felt; it obeys simple ideas, it follows simple instincts. The old-fashioned Conservatives agreed, in this last election in Paris, to vote neither for Jacques nor for Boulanger; to take some indifferent name, merely in order that their votes might be counted. Well, they were counted. Ten thousand electors threw away their votes in this manner, while the great mass of the Conservatives (about 80,000) voted for Boulanger. These numbers gave the exact proportion of the old-fashioned Parliamentary Conservatives, who are adverse to Boulanger, or who are at least not willing to help him to come to power, and of the Conservatives who are more indifferent to means, and who have but one clear wish, which is the end of the present system of government.

Let us look now on the Republican side. Here we have about 300,000 men who, since 1870, in all the elections in Paris, have always united their votes on the Republican candidates. This time we see them divided: one-half followed the party discipline and voted for the unknown Jacques, but the other half went over to Boulanger; and if we look very closely at the numbers, we see that, even if *all* the Conservatives had abstained, Boulanger would still have been returned by a majority of electors who continue to call themselves Republicans. I will not discuss here the quality of this Republicanism: France still called itself a Republic after the 18th Brumaire. The Republic of the Parisian electors who voted for Boulanger, is not of the parliamentary type; as far as it can be defined, it is a sort of Consulate, a régime under which the Consul would be almost everything. It is enough to say now that, at the present hour, Boulangism—I use the word in its vague sense—is dominant in Paris; out of every three men whom you meet in the street, you can say to yourself that two voted for Boulanger.

This great triumph in the capital of France, coming after many electoral triumphs in the provinces, in the wealthy and populous depart-

ments of the North, of the Somme, in the Charente, creates a very peculiar situation. This succession of electoral victories, equivalent to a sort of plébiscite, has already had one effect: Three years ago the Republicans abolished the district ticket (*scrutin d'arrondissement*) and replaced it with the general ticket (*scrutin de liste*). They now propose to abolish the latter (which gives each elector in a department the privilege of voting for several deputies), and to return to the system which gives the elector only the right to choose the deputy of his own arrondissement. It is feared that if the present system is maintained, Gen. Boulanger will make up the list in each department, placing his own name at the head, and adding to it the names of his own partisans, and of those among the Royalists and the Bonapartists who will be willing to form a coalition with him. In 1870 M. Thiers, who had spoken against the war, was placed on many lists by the electors who wanted peace, and was returned by twenty-five departments; and this fact gave him at once the executive power. If Boulanger should, in the general elections which must take place in 1889, be returned by thirty or forty departments, no constitutional machinery would long prevent his accession to power.

Will the present Chamber substitute the district ticket for the general ticket? It is still doubtful. If the change is made, what will be its consequences? It will be necessary for Boulanger to choose, all over France, the arrondissements in which he has a chance of being elected; but in each arrondissement he will meet an opponent, an established influence. It is far more easy to put a new name on a list of deputies than to carry an arrondissement. Still, if there really is in the people a strong current of opposition to the present state of things, the end can only be delayed, and no system of election can prevent the popular will from finding expression. We must, therefore, whether we like it or not, prepare our minds for great changes, for the accession to power of an enigmatic man, who, under one form or another, will wield a personal power, founded upon the forces of imagination, which cannot well be explained, but which cannot long be despised. If the country rushes blindly in one direction, who can stop it? Of course, there will be resistance; even if we suppose that Gen. Boulanger remains the strictest observer of all constitutional forms, he will soon find himself opposed, if he comes to power, by the formidable array of the sincere Republicans, of the sincere Royalists, of the sincere Bonapartists. They will all be disappointed in turn or at the same time. The Royalists will probably find that they have not found a new Monk, the Bonapartists may make the same discovery. The most important Republicans are Gen. Boulanger's most bitter enemies. New coalitions may then take place, and if the danger becomes too great, then there will be the supreme resource of war. If Napoleon III., after his *coup d'état*, thought it obligatory to make a most unnecessary war in the Crimea, what will not be the temptation for a ruler who will find himself in a very different position from that of the men who thus far have occupied the Presidential chair?

EMPEROR WILLIAM'S BIRTHDAY.

BERLIN, February 1, 1889.

No Emperor had celebrated his birthday since March 22, 1887, nearly two years ago. William II., who had his on Sunday last, is new to the honors of his office. He is neither very popular nor exactly unpopular. The birthday of Prussia's monarch, however, is a kind of national day which means as much for the office as for the man. Hence I thought it a favorable occasion to study whatever of monarchism or royalism might come to the surface among the Germans, and, knowing that this is vaunted as one of the cardinal virtues of the present representatives of "Teutonism," and that, with the comments upon this special subject some kindred matter would come to light, I determined to see less of the celebrations in the streets and give more attention to the premeditated lucubrations of the press. I can only say that the crowd "unter den Linden" was large, both afternoon and evening, and that the illuminations were fine. But on the twenty newspapers that I read I can report more fully.

Two or three features, which about three-fourths of them had in common, were extravagant praise of the Emperor, such as I think his manliness would shrink from if he were to listen to it; an irreverent, if not hypocritical, use of the name of God; impotent invocations of peace, and a good deal of Bismarck worship mixed with condescending flouts at the French. Most of this was expressed in prose, so that not even the exigencies of the metre could be pleaded as an excuse for such clap-trap and fustian. It must be monarchism run mad that makes people living in the last quarter of the nineteenth century indulge in such adulation and yet expect to be believed sincere.

The *Post* feels happy that, with the introduction and gradual strengthening of constitutional forms of government, no change has taken place "in the elevating and grateful feelings with which all Prussians on such a day look up to the head of state." These feelings are called "the priceless jewel of the Prussian people," and what the loss of it would signify may be guessed at by "a look at the confusion of a clever nation across the border, which for nothing but the loss of this jewel fails to extricate itself from its errors. . . . It would have been impossible to point out in truer and more impressive language the deepest religious and moral foundations of our Prussian and German national life than our youthful and stirring Emperor and King did at his accession to the throne," when he entered upon his duties "with a joyous confidence in God." The *Norddeutsche* celebrates the Emperor as having conquered the hearts of the nation already, and says that they actually "beat faster at the mention of his name." Another tells us of having heard the Sunday church bells ring on Saturday, before going to press—they had a special chime for the Emperor. The *Hannoverscher Courier* speaks of the Emperor's recent travels as "a deed of glory on which the nations of Europe look with astonishment and admiration." The *Deutsches Tageblatt* says: "Other nations may have some difficulty [*sancta simplicitas!*] in sympathizing with us in our feelings on the Emperor's birthday. But we know that on no other day is our desire so irresistible to realize the great mercy of God our Lord in giving us our first great Emperor William." And so it goes on, rejoicing that there was such a man as William I., who made it possible for Germany's genius to unfold "to the honor of God and the blessing of mankind"; that there is still such a man as Bismarck, who upholds royalty and keeps parties in check; that a wholesome reaction in favor of national self-consciousness has set in against the spirit of faction; that the battle against democratic aspirations to power has been won; that we are not as other countries are, especially not like France, "once so proud, royal, and most Christian"; and that, on the whole, all things seem to work together for the good of Germany. The *Kölnische Zeitung* glories in William II. as the "pathfinder" of the nation, and comforts a tax-burdened people by saying that "a loving eye watches over the safety of the nation, and sees to it that the citizen does not contribute to the war budget in vain." After all these assurances of deep-rooted royalism comes the insatiable *Kreuzzeitung*, and calls for a "revival of the monarchical idea, and unquestioning obedience towards our young Emperor whom God placed at the head of our army, and whom he endowed in his mercy with all martial virtues and talents, with the faithful zeal for his royal office, and with a firm belief in the Lord who reigns over princes and peoples." This, too, is in prose, by the way.

There are a few other papers which instead of representing the young ruler as having "already attained," wish him simply God-speed while "running" to attain. Such are the *Freisinnige Zeitung*, the *Berliner Zeitung*, and also the *Berliner Tageblatt*, which somehow got its congratulatory lines mixed up with its "Local News and Miscellanies"! Compared with the freshness and exuberance of the preceding, their monarchical sense seems to be somewhat blunted.

I wish to speak of three more papers: the *Weser-Zeitung* of Bremen, and the *Vossische Zeitung* and *Volks-Zeitung* of Berlin. The first two deserve to be commended for having some serious reflections on the monarchical idea. The *Weser-Zeitung* contends that party government is impracticable for Germany because it is unstable; that the development of the nation lies "in the direction of unity, of a more thorough fusion of the different parties" and their interests; and that "the symbol of all this is the Emperor." The *Vossische Zeitung* says: "The strong monarchical feeling in Prussia is not founded in a mystical belief that God has ever revealed his will as to the best form of government, but on the clear conviction that nothing can be better than an hereditary monarchy, in which the rulers continue to be mindful of the power that has fallen to them, and of the duties that are involved in their power." "'All that a legitimate prince has to do,'" it quotes from Macchiavelli, "'is to perform his duties, and he will be able to maintain himself in power.' . . . The history of Prussia's kings proves this to be true."

Finally, the *Volkszeitung*, with which we arrive at the freezing point of monarchical temperature, if not below it. Never a word about Emperor William, nor about any other emperor or king. It begins with a pathetic reference to "the memorable spring of the nations in 1848," and feels tempted to pray for the return of the Manteuffel era, which, compared with the present, was at least "what Greenland sunshine is, compared with perfect night." "In the end, every nation has exactly the kind of government it deserves. The German people could, if they chose, make short work of their oppressors." Their indifference makes one doubt at times whether this fight against the reaction is ever going to amount to anything. And yet, is there really no hope at all? Out of the 46,000,000 there cannot be more than 1,000,000 who are actually benefited by Socialist laws, corn duties, unfair taxes, the raising of the Emperor's civil list, and similar measures. What, then, makes 45,000,000 submit to 1,000,000? The answer is: "Either people understand their real interests, or they do not understand them, or, thirdly, if they understand them, they are prevented by outside influence from

doing what they otherwise would do." Thus we find the large army of Government officials and their dependents influenced in their actions by external considerations, and the people in the country incapable of independent action because they have been kept in leading-strings for centuries and are nothing but "voting-cattle." Only the artisans, tradesmen, and laborers have begun to think and act for themselves; and it is these classes which deserve our special sympathy and encouragement. For the others we can do almost nothing; but where we may fail, "the inner logic of historical development" will succeed in due course of time. So far, then, from calling the reaction an unmitigated evil, the *Volkszeitung* closes by regarding it in certain respects even as an ally. "The Socialist laws, the duties on grain, etc., etc., are our best agitators. They convert thousands every month; they furnish one man with sufficient intelligence and another with the requisite determination to break away from the ban of the reaction. . . . When the end will come we know not, but it cannot be far distant."

So much for the commentary of the press on Emperor William's birthday. Excepting one or two papers, it must be said that the very best of it is not elevating and the worst positively demoralizing.

Now, either the drift of things throughout this modern era is towards democracy or it is not. If it is, Prussia, to say the least, has for some time past been doing nothing to help it on; if it is not, and the monarchical idea is to have another lease of life, Prussia is doing her best to make that idea unpopular even among her own people. In either case, however, the national life of Germany is stunted in its growth, and Germany's outside influence is, in so far forth, bound to be impaired. And if it is pertinent to ask what Germany has to hope for from Prussian royalism, it is no less pertinent to ask what she may still expect from Prussian militarism, for the two go hand in hand. And here, too, the question is, not what Prussian armies have done for Germany on the field of battle, but how the corporal's spirit affects the national life; which practically amounts to asking, How far can any military government develop a people?

Closely bound up with Prussian militarism there is an intense nationalism which bids fair to overleap itself some of these days. No great nation has ever escaped being blamed for its national conceit, and Americans least of all. They have had their share of such blame, deserved and undeserved. And all their other sins, both of omission and of commission, arranged in alphabetical order—"behold! are they not written in the book" called 'Langenscheidt's Notwörterbuch: Land und Leute in Amerika'? Still, American nationalism, supposing it to be a poison never so virulent, has long been treated with powerful antidotes, and the effects are known to be marvellously wholesome. This antidote is—travel abroad. Even if the typical American "professor" does not get further than Berlin and Leipzig in order to expose his shallowness or ignorance, he returns a much wiser man. Now, it is chiefly the lack of this or a similar antidote that has made German nationalism so "hidebound" and estranged so many Germans from "a wide world and a broad life." Travel, however, is out of the question with a people who expend so large a part of their earnings on soldiers, and give some of the best years of their lives to being soldiers themselves. Hence they must go on in their nationalism, making the best of it; and that, too, cannot but finally vitiate their influence over others.

A demoralizing royalism, a discivilizing militarism, and a cramping nationalism—has not Germany been known quite as much for these three, since the end of the last decade, as for art, science, and literature? And were they not long ago recognized as baleful by some of her best men, who have fought them ever since, tooth and nail? Yet those are the very men who are decried here as croakers, as enemies of the Empire because they are bold enough to oppose some of the powers that be, and occasionally remind them that not all the good is summed up in what is German, or rather Prussian. What can and what cannot be traced to those three most potent factors in German life there is not space here to inquire. But how are artificial distinctions, hard-and-fast lines in society, prejudices of all sorts, as for example in the question concerning the position of woman—how are all these, each being a problem in itself, to be solved by a military government? If we may judge from the huge State-Socialistic scheme of forcing whole classes to insure themselves against illness, accident, and old age, and making the State, the employer, and the laborer or mechanic contribute a third of the cost each, we can only look for a further petrefaction of society. The scheme, dictated as it may be by Christian charity, is at best a drill in compulsory self-help, not a lesson in the voluntary practice of prudence; and although some of the insured may in the end become convinced of the desirableness of economy, more will probably be "rocked and swaddled and dandled" into the belief that both economy and self-dependence are virtues of a tripartite nature, of which one third inheres in the poor man, the laborer himself, the second in the rich man, his employer, and the third in the strong man, the State—virtues which therefore can be practised only by common consent.

I have nothing to say about German art, science, and literature, nor about German thrift, economy, patience, and love of thoroughness. The Germans themselves know that sensible Americans value these attainments and virtues, even if the sensible American is not quite so apt to become known in Germany as the blustering one. That there goes hand in hand with "German learnedness" a good deal of "German perverseness" is a proverb even here, and has certainly not been discovered by Americans. That German economy is often penny-wise and pound-foolish, and even mean, and German thoroughness often pedantic, and that German patience sometimes degenerates into sheepishness—all this is neither here nor there. But—the Prussian régime! With due respect for the good it accomplished when it was at its best and was the only thing that could unite and save Germany, it may still be asked: How must it finally affect German life at home and German influence abroad? What will it, what can it still do for this excellent people, many of whom it has already led astray into such Chauvinism and nationalism that one would almost imagine the "Teutonization" of what little there is left of the Anglo-Saxon race to be only a question of a decade or two? Is this régime to continue in full power, or is there to be a change? X.

TO BOMBAY FROM TRIESTE.

BOMBAY, January 11, 1889.

THE ease and cheapness of a journey to India deserve to be better known. One may go from New York to Bombay in four weeks. The routes are many. They may be grouped roughly in two classes: the all-water routes and the trans-European routes. The first involve only one change of conveyance, viz., of steamer in England, whence you proceed via Gibraltar and Suez, saving money at the expense of time. The routes across the Continent are better. I know of none that combines economy of time with economy of money more satisfactorily than the following: the Red Star Line from New York to Antwerp; the Gotthard Tunnel route across Europe; and the Austro-Hungarian Lloyd from Brindisi or Trieste to Bombay. In this way, the passage-money for the round trip, first-class by water and second-class by rail, need not amount to more than $600. The price of a round-trip ticket by an all-water route varies from $550 to $460 for the first cabin; and for the second, which involves no real hardships, it is as low as $340. The pamphlet entitled 'Cook's Indian Tours,' to be had for twenty-five cents at any of Cook's offices, gives with admirable clearness all needed information concerning routes and prices.

And here, something about guide-books and maps. Murray has a volume for each of the three Presidencies, Bombay, Bengal, and Madras, and a fourth for the Punjab. They have most grave defects of plan and execution, but are perhaps indispensable, *faute de mieux*, for travellers who wish to visit out-of-the-way places. For the towns, Agra, Delhi, Benares, Calcutta, and the like, there are local guide-books published in India, and enumerated in Cook's pamphlet, page 52. Among them is Maclean's 'Guide to Bombay,' a thoroughly good book, issued by the Bombay *Gazette* press. The same press publishes monthly the 'Indian Travellers' Guide,' which contains all the time-tables and a railway map. Maps 33 and 34 of Keith Johnston's 'General Atlas,' maps 63 and 64 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas,' and Kiepert's 'Vorder-Indien' are all desirable, and may be had separately for a small sum. I suggest that they be bought flat, mounted (uncut) on light muslin, rolled on the outside of a stiff mailing-tube, and carried in a cylindrical tin case to keep them from the white ants. Finally, for a general travelling atlas, I believe that Justus Perthes's 'Taschen-Atlas' (22. *Auflage, bearbeitet von* H. Habenicht) is incomparably the best. I will say no more; a full page of the *Nation* would be none too much to do the little volume justice.

At the head of the list of eighty-five steamers that form the fleet of the Austrian Lloyd stands the *Imperator*. She was built expressly for the Indo-Chinese service, in which this is her sixth voyage, and is commanded by Captain Bechtinger. Her appointments are magnificent, and she is a model of strength and beauty. Altogether, she is a noble ship. It was our good fortune that she was the one to be despatched on the day we had fixed for our departure, and that, in the assignment of state-rooms, we were put on the port side. As for this last matter, it is one of no small moment; for during the voyage eastward, the tropical sun beats upon the steel plates of the starboard side with great force.

The passengers are few. My *vis-à-vis* at table is a judge returning with his wife to duty in the Punjab. It pleases me to learn that he values and uses Story, and to think that American jurisprudence is not without its influence even in the distant land of the Vedas. Few as we are, we are of very diverse nationalities; and so the talk is polyglot, and the little manifestations of racial antipathies are amusing. There are three German rice merchants returning to Rangoon. They are "quite English," but they don't like the real Englishman. And

one morning a stalwart Neapolitan went away from the table in a trembling rage because one of the "sour-krouts" had ridiculed his extreme fondness for maccaroni. Several Parsis are in the second cabin; and among them is Sorabjee Hormuzjee Harver, a member of the Parsi Cricket Club, returning from a series of matches in England! The Parsis often bear surnames—such as Scott, Wallace, Ashburner—taken from the families with whom they have served. Sorabjee's stock has borne the name Harver for five generations. Here, then, is a reminiscence of the Harvards as far to the east of Greenwich as is our New England college to the west. And the name is coupled with that of Zoroaster's god. *Habent sua fata—nomina!* Among the passengers there is only one captain-teaser, so far as I have heard; and the element that furnishes the material for the familiar jokes of transatlantic travel—the "young men and maidens," etc.—is conspicuously absent.

Conspicuously present on deck are steamer-chairs furnished by the Lloyd. Why do the Atlantic companies still force us always to lug a chair to the port of embarkation? Either let them stop treating us like steerage passengers in just this one respect, or else, for consistency, require us to bring each a tin plate and a cup and a feather bed! The food here is excellent, but the dinners have the same weary round of many courses as elsewhere. Fortified by a recent article in the *Nation* on "Eating at Sea," I have maintained a perfectly ascetic temper, and am the better for it.

The distance from Trieste to Bombay is about 4,500 miles, and the voyage takes about 18 days. The weather has been so fine, the sea so smooth, and the company and everything on board so pleasant, that the time has seemed all too short. Even if the circumstances had been less agreeable, I think the voyage could hardly have seemed long; for it is naturally divided into three parts—not very unequal—by the Canal and Bab-el-Mandeb. The first part includes the Adriatic and Mediterranean courses; the second the Red Sea, and the last the Arabian Sea. We left Trieste on Saturday evening, December 22. The brief call at Brindisi on Monday morning made a pleasant, if not exciting break in the first part. We gaze from the deck at the grass-grown towers of the ancient town, while a couple of beggars, the one with an accordeon and the other with a voice, murder Santa Lucia for *pochi soldi;* but soon we are off again, enjoying our books and talks and the delicious air. Tuesday we pass quite near the two Strivali Islands. We see the lighthouse washed with a delicate pink, and the lonely monastery—not a sign of life besides. The white breakers dashing on the steep and ragged rocks are a pleasant reminder of Mt. Desert, and so of home. Next come the mountains of the Peloponnese, with clouds towering like snow-peaks above the real mountains, and then no more land by day-time until Thursday afternoon, when we pass the Damietta mouth of the Nile and steam into Port Said.

This is our first coaling-station. A barge comes up on each side with a gang of almost naked coolies. They work fast, carrying up the coal on their backs by the light that flames from some iron baskets. What with coal and freight, dust and noise, we are fain to make a short night of it and set foot as early as may be upon Africa. Port Said is a wretched upstart place, existing solely for the Canal. Besides the governmental and mercantile establishments and the shops, its only boasts, I believe, are a concert-saloon and a gambling-hell. And I think the nose of Coleridge would have detected full as many stenches as he avers that he counted at Cologne. Champagne Charley, a good-natured and rather good-looking Oriental, importuned us to ride one of his donkeys, "Lily Langtry" or "The Grand Old Man," offered to show us to the post-office "over the garden-wall," and declared to Judge T.—presumably as a reminiscence from Mark Twain—"Oh! I know you, sir. I've seen you before, Mr. Fergusson." We discreetly refrained, "lest a worse evil should befall us," from rewarding the performer with baksheesh, and bought instead some pith hats, some Zanzibar grass mats, cool and gay, and some postage-stamps with the Sphinx and a pyramid on them.

We were glad to get off at noon (Friday) and enter the Canal. It is eighty-seven miles to Suez, and a good passage takes eighteen hours; but a Hall Liner just ahead of us kept taking the ground so that we could not run even at regulation speed, and were twenty-four hours on the way. It is a most interesting experience—one's first passage in a great ocean steamer through the desert. On the right, at the entrance, Lake Menzaleh stretches away for miles. Thousands, myriads of flamingoes are feeding in the marshes, the more distant hosts appearing as a mass of white color tinged with pink. And beyond, here and there, is a lateen sail. As we proceed, we see the sand drifting into the Canal, and we wonder how long it would take for the wind, that blows while men sleep, to make the huge ditch impassable, if the work of the great dredges should cease. We pass quickly through the Bitter Lakes at early morning, Saturday. In a deep cut, where the dredges can't be used for the purpose, we see coolies and camels at work widening the Canal. Each camel bears two trap-bottomed boxes, kneels to have them filled, and plods slowly in line with the rest—each neck making precisely the same awkward curve—to the top of the cut, while a group of filthy vultures sit by, on a desolate knoll, waiting for a man or a beast to die. Not far away, the Canal is crossed by the pilgrims' road from Cairo to Mecca. This was the track, for I know not how many centuries, of the grand caravan that brought the annual carpet to the tomb of Mohammed. But now it is sent by rail and boat to Jedda; and the train that we see on the right, steaming away over the burning sands from Suez to Cairo, reminds us that the old order changes, even in the desert.

We come to anchor at Suez, on Saturday noon, a bit less than a week after leaving Trieste. An Arab brings us bright tempting "Syrian" cloths, and we buy one, albeit a fellow-passenger recognizes it as made in a factory of his firm at home in Switzerland. Another offers us a fez; but he has forgotten to remove the tell-tale label which shows that it came from Strakonitz in Bohemia, and we turn from these illusions. The breeze freshens, the afternoon grows cool, and we go to the bow and look around us. To the east is the "Well of Moses," marked by two little green oases; before us, the Gulf of Suez, its waters showing a marvellous variety of hues and tones, from the most translucent green to the deepest blue; and to the right, Jebel-Ataka, a volcanic ridge, without a trace of plant-life upon it to protect it from the weathering of ages, which has made its face a series of everywhere sharply serrated spurs, often thrown into the boldest relief by the light and shadow. The sun gets lower, and to chiaroscuro are added the most gorgeous effects of color, such as challenge the best powers of a Turner and leave even "the pen of a ready writer" quite baffled.

Soon after midnight, Sunday morning, December 30, we quit Suez, and coast along the Sinaitic peninsula, which wedges itself in between the two northern arms of the Red Sea, the Gulf of Akabah and the Gulf of Suez. The "God-trodden mountain" is said to be hidden from us by heights between. Suez Gulf is perilous. I had heard that we should pass a wreck. And, sure enough, in Jubal Strait, at the mouth of the gulf, my eye was caught by a ghastly one, on the east side of the channel. I was studying it with my glass, when suddenly we were called to the other side to see a wreck still more ghastly. There lay—or rather hung—a steamer, her bow high in air, her keel out of water to a point abaft her foremast, and her deck line making an angle of not one minute less than 40° with the horizontal. The fatal bank of coral served doubtless as a pair of ways, up which the unlucky monster slid to her doom; but her momentum must have been enormous to carry her to such a height and such an angle. The captain, we learned, was drunk; and some one made a grim joke about the combination of whiskey and water.

Now we are fairly in the Red Sea. It is broad, and we see little more of land. For Jebel-Tar, a bare volcanic rock rising abruptly 900 feet out of the sea, can hardly be called land; and no more can the Zebayer Islands, "The Twelve Apostles." The Red Sea is *said* to be hot; and in fact the double awnings are stretched over us, and the great fan or punkah is set agoing over our table on New Year's day, and I slept that night in the open air on deck. But I am only a midwinter passenger. Perhaps I shall have a right to commit myself on the subject after I have traversed those waters next mid-August.

The dangers of the southern end of the Red Sea are behind us, and the pilot brings us into the anchorage of Aden, our second coaling-station and our fourth and last stopping-place. Has the scene been too often described? "O-whö, o-whö! o-whö, o-whö! Hab a dive, sir? Tro away, sir!" repeated *ad lib.*—and away go the swarthy youngsters, kicking their heels at heaven, and return from the depths with a three-penny or a two-anna bit in their fingers. The fellows wear just a clout about their loins; so they have no pockets, still less pocket-books—which we might otherwise kindly suppose they had left at home, and so excuse them for putting the coins between their teeth and their gums, as they sing out again "Tro away, sir!" I noticed only one offer to swim under the ship for a sixpence. They say the divers are degenerating. But how many sixpences would it take to induce the *laudator temporis acti* to dive under a steamer of twenty-four feet draught? After all, the best fun at Aden was the sight of two diminutive Africans, paddling for dear life after us as we went ashore. The speed of the tiny sharp-prowed dug-out did them credit. Then came a wave and swamped the craft. Head over heels they tumble, and for a moment paddles and Africans and dug-out are in confusion so delightfully amusing that I should have thought it all a part of the programme for baksheesh had they been on hand in time to claim it. The great rock-fortress of Aden, the drive to the tanks, the people—all is strange and interesting. But I have wearied you.

We started out from Aden on Friday morning, January 4, to cross the Arabian Sea. No land, no outside incident more. But our evenings were illumined by the crescent and the star, shining so as they can shine only from a tropical sky. And early this morning, we set foot on the Apollo Bunder.

CHARLES ROCKWELL LANMAN.

Correspondence.

LINE UPON LINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The topics in illustration of my theory present themselves in such crowds that I will ask leave this week to deal with two.

(1.) Your comment upon the article of the Boston *Journal*, "Shall Boodlers Dominate?" I seldom touch upon State affairs, because it is perfectly hopeless to get anybody to listen, and I do so now only so far as they relate to national. What is the Governor of Massachusetts? As far as any honest and legitimate power and influence go, he is merely a figurehead. He has absolutely no voice in the initiation or guidance of legislation or policy, which are exclusively in the hands of the Legislature and its committees. He has no power over the executive officials—Treasurer, Auditor, Secretary of State, Attorney-General, etc—who are elected separately, and are as independent of him as of any sovereign in Europe. He is surrounded by a separately elected Council, without whose advice and consent he can hardly take his meals. His powers are in substance limited to three: (*a*) the veto, upon the absurdity of which I have dwelt often enough to save space now; (*b*) the appointment of judges—certainly of inestimable importance, but as they are appointed for life any one Governor has very little to do in the matter; (*c*) the appointment of the members of the commissions which, with the entire dislocation of the regular executive authority, have been set up to govern the State. But these commissions, when once appointed and confirmed by the Council, are again completely independent both of him and the Legislature. He can get no credit for their proceedings, though he may incur blame.

The Governorship being thus insignificant, the people are quite apathetic and indifferent as to who occupies it, especially as their choice is limited to two or three candidates nominated by the handful of politicians who run the conventions. I once heard a leading member of this class say that there were a dozen men in this State who could make anybody Governor whom they pleased. Obviously, such a place as this offers no attraction for the intellect, industry, and energy of first-class men. It is still, however, nominally the first position in the State; and as, in this land of equality, there is an unlimited thirst for distinction of any kind, there is a plenty of rich men who, with very shady ideas of what the position really means, and not being able to get much other satisfaction out of their money, are ready to pay handsomely for the privilege of occupying it. Could there be a more perfect arrangement for making the Governorship a matter of purchase?

What is the remedy? To make executive office a thing of substance as well as a name; to give the Governor what the President of the United States has, the appointment of officials and the control of their action; to give him, further, what the President of the United States has not but ought to have—the power of appearing, either by himself or his officials, in the public arena of debate and legislation, of shaping and conducting policy and administration, with full responsibility for them in the sight of the whole people. Then we should open the field to a different class of capacity, and introduce the element of brains into the competition with money.

(2.) The other topic is the letter of Secretary Fairchild in the case of Inspector Byrne, which you justly characterize as "amazing." Even on the authority of your paper, I can hardly bring myself to believe that a Secretary of the Treasury can have signed and issued such a document as that. Still, as to what you say of it, I will quote a clause from Mr. Bryce's book:

"The people see little and they believe less. True, the party newspapers accuse their opponents of offences, but the newspapers are always reviling somebody, and it is because the words are so strong that the tale has so little meaning. For instance, in a recent Presidential contest, charges affecting the honor of one of the candidates were brought against him by journals supporting the other candidate, and evidence tendered in support of them. The immense majority of his supporters did not believe these charges. They read their own newspapers chiefly, which pooh-poohed these charges. They could not be at the trouble of sifting the evidence, against which their own newspapers offered counter-arguments, so they quietly ignored them—I do not say that they disbelieved. Between belief and disbelief there is an intermediate state of mind."

Now let us imagine a scene. It is a full session of the House of Representatives. Immediately in front of the Speaker's desk are seats specially provided for the members of the Cabinet. A member having given notice a week before of his intention to ask a question of Secretary Fairchild, nearly every member of the House is present, and the galleries are crowded with eager spectators. The member rises in his place, and puts his question as to this Byrne letter, in a form which implies a strong comment upon its character. He pauses, and the Secretary in his turn rises to reply. Can you not imagine the hushed silence with which the whole country would listen for his words? And do you not think that such a process would effectually bar the recurrence of such an offence? What would be the effect of something similar upon the Secretaryship of State for the next four years? G. B.

Boston, February 16, 1889.

HAMERTON AND GOYA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the criticism of Hamerton's 'Portfolio Papers' in your issue of February 14, its writer speaks of Mr. Hamerton's article on Goya as being the most interesting in the volume; but adds that in his estimate of Goya as a painter, he seems to have allowed himself to be unduly biassed by his dislike of the artist's unsavory personal character. One might naturally suppose that a critic of Mr. Hamerton's acknowledged standing, before writing an article on Goya—and especially such an article, in which, as you say, "Macaulay himself could hardly use stronger language"—would take pains to see the best examples of the master whose reputation he demolishes in so summary a manner. But your critic has omitted to call attention to the curious fact that, notwithstanding the dogmatic statements upon Goya's art with which Mr. Hamerton's article abounds, and which seem to be made from an almost omniscient knowledge of what he did—his actual knowledge of Goya's paintings is extremely limited. This is naïvely confessed in the following passage, in which he says:

"The artist remains to be considered. There is a certain difficulty for me here, which may be stated frankly, as a critic should never pretend to more knowledge than is really his. I have never been in Spain, and only know Goya as an artist through his etchings, through the engravings from his works, and the 'frescoes' from his country house. This is comparatively little, because Goya was an immense producer, and left hundreds of pictures behind him which are only to be seen in Spain."

This is pleasantly written, and would disarm criticism if it in any wise disarmed Mr. Hamerton as a critic.

The frescoes in question, which Mr. Hamerton says "look as if they had been painted with a mixture of soot, mud, whitening, and candle-grease," possibly have the same relative value to his other works, as have a collection of about forty studies, made for reproduction in tapestry, which are preserved in an out-of-the-way room in the Prado Gallery, more for their curious delineation of Spanish manners than as works of art. As against these, in Madrid, for instance, must be placed the important collection of portraits in the same gallery, chiefly of persons of the Spanish Court, and also an equal number of valuable examples at the Academy of St. Ferdinand. Until Mr. Hamerton has seen some representative collection of this kind, it is hardly fair to enlighten other people about Goya in a tone so dogmatic. And, possibly, if he had seen more of his work, he would have modified his views as to his coloring, which he has so far found "foul and filthy to the last degree." He would, to be sure, have been deprived of the pleasure of employing his ability in the composition of the paper in question; but this omission would be not only better for Goya's reputation as a painter, but, we may venture to add, not altogether a bad thing for Mr. Hamerton's reputation as a critic.

It is not so much Mr. Hamerton's conclusions as his methods in attaining them, that are now under criticism—a criticism which, with all deference to his fame as a critic, makes itself heard in obedience to an implied precept, embodied in the very article in question. "What is fame?" asks he; and then replies: "It is nothing but a noise made by talkers and writers; and if other talkers and writers were to be cowed by it into respectful silence, they would be like watchdogs afraid to bark because other dogs had barked on the next farm."

D. B. Updike.

Boston, February 16, 1889.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. publish directly 'Mental Evolution in Man: the Origin of the Human Faculty,' by George J. Romanes; 'The Development of the Intellect,' being Part II. of W. Preyer's 'Mind of the Child'; Ducourdray's 'History of Civilization,' in two volumes, Ancient and Modern; 'The Folk-Lore of Plants,' by T. F. Thiselton-Dyer; 'A Dictionary of Terms in Art,' fully illustrated; and 'Co-operative Building and Loan Associations,' by Seymour Dexter.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a 'Life of Henry M. Stanley,' by the Rev. H. W. Little.

We have received the last volume (6th) of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' and the first of Washington's Writings (Putnams), but must defer comment.

Macmillan & Co. send us the tenth volume in the author's edition of the 'Poetical Works of Robert Browning,' being the third of 'The Ring and the Book.' It has for a frontispiece the woe-begone countenance of Guido Franceschini, from a contemporary drawing made on February 22, 1698, the day of his beheading at Rome.

Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus' has, fitly enough for a "Volume on Clothes," been given a new dress by being included in the Parchment Library (Scribner & Welford). It is now, with its claret-colored covers and its compact but legible letter-press, very attractive and pocket-companionable.

From the same publishers we have a third edition of "N. D'Anvers's" 'Elementary History of Art,' three volumes in one. It excludes living artists, and its successive extensions only

keep pace, or seek to, with the recent dead. It is surprising that a work "adopted by the [English] Civil-Service Commissioners as a text-book for the examination of candidates" should have no table of contents to unfold its scheme, and no other index than a biographical one. The section on Painting alone has a preface for the present edition, and tells of more than a hundred fresh illustrations introduced.

Irving's 'Life of Mahomet' reappears in Bohn's Select Library (Scribner & Welford).

Dr. Johnson's Essays from the *Rambler*, *Adventurer*, and *Idler* have been added to the "Camelot Series" (London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker). Mr. Stuart J. Reid, the biographer of Sydney Smith, furnishes a biographical introduction and notes.

"Fault of novel germs," Roberts Bros. enlarge their "Handy Library" with Sir Thomas Browne's 'Religio Medici,' Silvio Pellico's 'My Two Prisons,' and George Fleming's 'The Truth about Clement Ker.'

A recent English biography, 'The Career of Major George Broadfoot, C. B., in Afghanistan and the Punjab,' which we find noticed in the *Athenæum* of February 2, destroys the legend of the defence of Jellalabad in 1842, after the slaughter of Elphinstone's command at Cabul and on the retreat. The hero of this defence, according to Sir John Kaye's history, was General Sale, whereas Broadfoot's diary (confirmed by that of a brother officer) represents Sale as sharing the fears of the garrison, and disposed to evacuate the town under a convention with the besieging Afghans. He was really screwed up by Broadfoot and Havelock.

'A New Way of Training Nurses' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd) is the truthful but not very attractive title of one of the most interesting and valuable little books of practical philanthropy. It is three papers by Dr. A. Worcester of Waltham, Mass., wherein is clearly and excellently set forth, in detail but without prolixity, the exact method by which, in small towns and without the aid of hospitals, nurses may be as efficiently and perfectly trained as in the great city schools. In fact, in some respects, these nurses prove more efficient than those who have had only hospital practice. Wherever there are four or five doctors who will work together, two or three ladies who will coöperate, and four or five sound young women who wish to support themselves and to help the sick, this system can be established. The book is a clear and admirable exposition of the scheme. It is very brief, but appears complete, and we heartily wish that it may be spread broadcast, so that every community may learn and practise the Waltham way.

'Accidents and Emergencies' (New York: J. H. Vail & Co.) is a small, plain book giving information as to the treatment of those suddenly stricken while awaiting skilled assistance. When accidents occur, it is usually inconvenient to consult a book, and it is perhaps too much to expect the average citizen to acquire such a knowledge in anticipation of possible injury to his neighbor. Nevertheless, the advice here contained is wholesome, and too much good advice cannot be circulated. The author is Joseph B. Lawrence, a professional nurse.

The 'Invalid's Own Book' (New York: Wm. S. Gottsberger), which describes itself as "a collection of recipes from various books and various countries, by the Honorable Lady Crist," is a cosmopolitan compilation, for the sick, of formulæ, some of them novel, which appear palatable and useful.

Dr. George M. Gould, in a reprint from the Philadelphia *Medical News*, answers the question, "Is the electric light injurious to the eyes?" in the negative, except where workmen and experimenters are compelled to stand prolonged exposure at short range. In view of the superior hygienic advantages of electricity as an illuminant, and the probability that it can be supplied cheaply enough to replace other artificial lights, this is a very satisfactory reply. Those indiscreetly exposed to its full power suffer first a temporary paralysis of sight followed by extreme sensitiveness, and in some instances the skin reddens and peels as in sunstroke. But the diffused light Dr. Gould believes harmless.

The *Green Bag*, "a useless but entertaining magazine for lawyers," edited by Horace W. Fuller, and published in Boston by Charles C. Soule, is a new aspirant for favor. As to the need of it, a layman is perhaps precluded from venturing an opinion. The first (January) number is certainly entertaining, and the opening sketch of the pedigree of Chief-Justice Fuller of the U. S. Supreme Court will gratify all those who like to see the Puritan stock coming to the front in the control of the republic. There is a taking portrait of the Chief Justice, and many other lights of the profession are pictured in connection with an article on the Harvard Law School. Typographically the *Green Bag* is to be commended.

The Messrs. Harper send us bound volumes of their *Weekly* (No. 32), *Bazar* (No. 21), *Monthly* (Nos. 76, 77), and *Young People* (for 1888). The most pronounced style in the illustrations of the *Weekly* is M. Paul Renouard's, whose vigorous crayon sketches of our public men show a decided talent for characterization. The only other marked feature of the physiognomy of the present volume is the series of portraits of eligible Presidential candidates hazarded before the actual nominations. Gen. Harrison's was not omitted, and had the distinction of an encore after the election. Among the invariable memoranda of moving accidents by flood and field, those of our March blizzard stand out on the one hand; of the yellow fever in Florida on the other. The valuable supplements were largely devoted to Western, as in 1887 to Southern, cities—materials, one might think, for a great album without text. England and Ireland are the dominant note, pictorially speaking, in the *Bazar*. The Lake District, Dublin Castle, the Armada Tercentenary, Coaching Days, Shakspere's Home, a London Book-Sale, and Mission Hall Entertainment; portraits of royalty, of the eminent men of the Jubilee year, of English novelists, with illustrations borrowed from Walter Besant's 'Fifty Years Ago'—these are samples. In the text, outside of fashions, Mr. Higginson's serial "Women and Men," and three articles on as many American colleges for women, may be mentioned. Of the *Monthly* we have spoken regularly on its appearance; nor do we need to speak here of *Harper's Young People*, in which we observe no change.

The *Studio* for January is exceptionally attractive with a photo-print of a group representing Dante Rossetti and his mother at chess; and two of terracotta groups from Asia Minor. Mr. Clarence Cook passes in editorial review the late interesting exhibition of the Architectural League in this city, and pictures at the Union League.

In *Shakespeariana* for February, Mr. Horace Howard Furness pays a proper tribute to the late Halliwell-Phillipps, and remarks incidentally what may not be widely known, that New York "already possesses in its Astor, Lenox, and Columbia Libraries the larger portion of the existing Shakspere Quartos and Folios."

Appalachia for December, 1888, is full of good reading for lovers of mountain climbing and adventure (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.). Two charming heliotype plates illustrate Ypsilon Peak in Northern Colorado, the ascent of which is well described by Frederick H. Chapin.

The February number of the *Library* shows no falling off in the interest or variety of its contents. A. W. Verrall contributes an appreciative sketch of Henry Bradshaw, based upon Mr. Prothero's excellent biography of the learned Cambridge librarian. Mr. Bullen's second article on the Appledore Press gives an interesting account of Mr. Linton's great work, 'The Masters of Wood-Engraving.' T. Mason's paper, "A Bibliographical Martyr," tells the story of the life and labors of Robert Watt, the indefatigable author of the well-known 'Bibliotheca Britannica.' Mr. Pollard finds in Le Petit's admirable 'Bibliographie des principal-s éditions originales d'écrivains français" (Paris, 1888) a text for an exhortation to his countrymen to undertake a similar bibliography of English first editions. One is tempted to believe that the ruling maxim of this generation must be "No year without a centenary," when he reads that "A number of show-cases have been recently set apart in the King's Library at the British Museum for the exhibition of manuscripts, printed books, medals, etc., illustrative of the royal House of Stuart, the bicentenary of whose abdication of the throne of England is now being celebrated." In a note the editor regrets that the harmless fun of "Theophrastus Junior," in the January number, has by some been taken seriously, and assures all concerned that nothing personal was intended.

Paris Illustré for February 9 (International News Co.) is a Boulanger number, with its portrait of the General, a scene in front of his residence, the mob before the office of his organ *La Cocarde*, the Place de la République and its lion plastered all over with rival political placards, and facsimiles of some of these placards in the interest of Jacques.

The permanent antidote for Boulangism may, perhaps, be discovered in the subject of the *Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire* which comes to us from Armand Colin & Cie., Paris. This is the fifth year of the model little manual and record of progress in primary instruction in France. The second part is particularly rich in articles which repay reading, as, a review of primary instruction from 1789 to 1889; an account of the coming great Exposition; more of the series on the condition of teachers abroad—Baden and Würtemberg, with notes of a French teacher in Saxony; education in Algeria and Tunis; bibliography; geographical review of the year; necrology—we have still topics to mention, but no space. The production as a whole is most praiseworthy.

'Inedited Letters from Talleyrand to Napoleon, 1800-1809,' edited by Pierre Bertrand, is an interesting publication of Didier, Perrin & Cie. (New York: F. W. Christern). It reveals the writer in the character of a counsellor of moderation at the height of his master's ambition and successes.

The committee appointed last October by the American Oriental Society to ascertain what MSS. exist in this country written in the Oriental languages or connected with their study, with a view to cataloguing them, indicate in a circular that they have in view MSS. in the ancient and modern languages of Asia, with Egypt and Ethiopia, and desire the name of the language, the style of writing (very particularly), the material used, size, binding, number of leaves, etc.; also its history in each case, with date if known. It will be helpful to learn that no MSS. exist in the libraries addressed by this

circular. Dr. Isaac H. Hall, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York city, is Chairman of the Committee.

—Mr. Joseph Thomson's account of his recent adventurous journey in Morocco begins the new volume of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. He reached the city of Morocco without difficulty, but could not get permission to enter the mountain region. Notwithstanding this, he managed to elude the vigilance of the authorities, and made his way across the Atlas into the great elevated plateau lying between that range and the Anti-Atlas. Further progress in this direction being impossible, he retraced his steps and passed westward along the northern slope of the mountains, ascending one peak 12,734 feet high, to Agadir on the coast. The most interesting place which he visited was the beautiful mountain valley of Demnat, where is a wonderful natural bridge, a magnificent arch 100 feet high, "hung with stalactites, with walls presenting all the aspect of clustered pillars." It is used by the natives as an aqueduct. During the journey he was frequently exposed to great peril, narrowly escaping being stoned to death in the city of Morocco. This paper, which treats mainly of the geological formation of the Atlas, and is accompanied by an admirable map, is followed by the description of a visit to Sheshuan by W. B. Harris. This place is also in Morocco, not far from Tetuan on the Mediterranean. The inhabitants are nearly all descendants of the Prophet, and have a fanatical hatred of foreigners. Mr. Harris got into the town in disguise, but dared not stay more than a day, escaping at night. He reports it better built than most Moorish towns, showing a greater civilization than places having constant communication with Europe. An elaborate treatise on the Nilometer, by Col. J. C. Ardagh, shows the inefficiency of the present method of measuring the height of the Nile. In reference to Sir Samuel Baker's suggestion that last year's low Nile was caused by the Mahdi's tampering with the upper waters, he says: "A civilized administration, controlling in a scientific manner the course of the Atbara, the Blue and White Nile, and the Bahr el-Ghazal, would have Egypt completely at its mercy." Hence, he concludes, the interests of Egypt and the Sudan are inseparable.

—The Riverside Edition of Whittier's Compiete Works has now filled out the seven volumes with three of this writer's prose. They do not, of course, bear to the four volumes of verse the same ratio in importance as in bulk, or anything like it. Nevertheless they have a decided autobiographic interest, and offer both for New England traits and our national history memorials of lasting value. The anti-slavery portion is large, including the whole of the tract called 'Justice and Expediency,' the introductions to Johnson's 'Life of Garrison' and the reissue of John Woolman's Diary, the *Atlantic* article on the founding of the American Anti-Slavery Society, and biographical sketches of William Leggett, N. P. Rogers, Lewis Tappan, etc. The *pièce de résistance* of vol. i is 'Margaret Smith's Journal.' We enumerate, further, sundry tales of Yankee character; a description of Lowell in 1843, when its population was "constituted mainly of New Englanders," and the Lowell *Offering* was issued by the mill-hands; a graphic account of an open-air Millerite meeting; a good deal of local history and tradition and Quaker biography; and a few essays in criticism of fellow-poets. Whittier's style is noticeably agreeable and easy, a good model. His humor freely finds vent in it, and we close our necessarily brief notice of this collection with what we hope will prove an appetizing example. "It is one thing," says Whittier, at the close of "My Summer with Dr. Singletary," "to hold fast the robust faith of our fathers—the creed of the freedom-loving Puritan and Huguenot—and quite another to set up the five points of Calvinism, like so many thunder-rods, over a bad life, in the insane hope of avoiding the Divine displeasure from sin."

—'The Civil-Service Reform Law,' by William Harrison Clarke (L. K. Strouse & Co.), is an attempt to arouse public attention to the importance of civil-service reform, the use of competitive examination for appointments, the evils of the spoils system, of legislative and electoral corruption, and of the unlimited power of removal. We have expressed our opinions upon all these subjects, and so often that none of our readers can possibly be ignorant of our sympathies. Hence it is without danger of misapprehension that we feel obliged to record an unfavorable opinion of Mr. Clarke's book. Its principal value consists in bringing together a very large number of utterances publicly made by some of our most honorable, intelligent, and celebrated statesmen on the unmitigated and self-perpetuating harm done by the spoils system, and the absolute need of some efficient check by law on its operation. To these are added some similar warnings from the experience of other countries. But these extracts are joined in a rambling and unsystematic way; they are interspersed with editorial comments and suggestions much more smart than profound; some branches of the subject are very exhaustively treated, others are but sketched out. Matter, whether original or quoted, is thrust in just when it seems to strike the editor's fancy, and not on any principle of historical or philosophical development. Mr. Hawthorne's notorious "interview" of Mr. Lowell, and a singularly unpleasant passage from Lamon's Life of Lincoln, are thrust in with no relevancy at all, simply disfiguring without illustrating the page. The English has a strong savor of Philistia, in spite of the admirable models afforded by the quotations. Considering how entirely sound Mr. Clarke's cause is, and how much excellent material he has collected, it is a great pity that he has done his work so clumsily.

—It is not very clear upon what principle the series of volumes entitled "The Great French Writers" is made up. Mme. de Sévigné and George Sand may properly appear, but Montesquieu, like Adam Smith in England, belongs not to the class of writers, but rather to that of philosophers or statesmen. The same is true of the subject of the volume on Turgot, by Léon Say, although Turgot was also a man of affairs. But, however this may be, we are glad to welcome the book in this very satisfactory translation (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) as a help to the better understanding of one of the purest and most estimable of French ministers. It is common to say of him that he did not know how to deal with men, that he had not the qualities that secure success. But M. Say makes it clear that he did attain success, though not in time to save France from revolution, for it was owing to him that freedom of labor was established. Nor is it probable that any man could have averted the Revolution; for that could have been done only by such reforms as Turgot proposed, and the feebleness of the King, the folly of the Queen, and the selfishness of the nobles made the task impossible. Attainable reform would, under the circumstances, have been a sham, and it was because Turgot insisted upon genuine reforms that he was overthrown. M. Say has introduced the recently discovered letters of Turgot to the King, in which the situation is clearly defined. The story of his life is agreeably told, although there is little of incident to enliven it.

—More fortunate in some respects was another great French minister, Maximilien de Béthune, Marquis and Duke of Sully, whose 'Économies Royales,' as condensed by M. Joseph Chailley, forms one of the volumes in the "Petite Bibliothèque Économique" (Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.). The extracts which M. Chailley has made from this enormous work are sufficient to convince us that it is "d'une lecture difficile et même pénible." But those who are not deterred by the involved style and archaic language of the work will find the materials for forming a judgment of the Government of Henri IV. and Sully far more satisfactory than the views of most historians. As to the work accomplished in the reformation of the finances, we can only say that Sully, during the few years of his administration, succeeded in paying off about 100,000,000 francs of debt, in recovering to the Crown immediately or prospectively estates to the value of 80,000,000 francs, in greatly increasing the revenues, in substantially reducing the expenses, and withal in restoring prosperity to the impoverished people. How this was brought about—the incessant and desperate contests with aristocratic plunderers; the quarrels with the benevolent but too generous King, who sometimes did not dare to tell his minister of his losses at play, but who always supported him, and whose letters to him are charmingly confiding; the naïve views of political economy and finance—all this may be studied with edification in the pages of this little book, which often reminds one of the conversations of an Oriental despot with his Grand Vizier.

—The recent resignation by M. Pasteur of the office of Perpetual Secretary of the Academy of Sciences gives occasion to the *Temps* to remark upon certain curious formalities that are still observed in the academies upon the death or resignation of a member. It is the rule in the Academy of Sciences that when a member is elected Perpetual Secretary, his seat in the department to which he specially belongs becomes vacant. If this rule were strictly enforced, M. Pasteur, instead of going back to his department of mineralogy, would not be, unless he were reëlected, a member of the Academy at all. But by a sort of academic fiction a chair is held to be occupied until an official declaration of its vacancy is made, and so M. Pasteur falls back into his old place without trouble. In the Academy of Inscriptions the rule is stricter, and the process by which a vacancy is declared is more formal and odd. At the end of a month after the death of a member the President is required to take a vote by ballot upon the question whether so-and-so, a deceased member, shall be replaced. The members vote aye or no. If the ayes have it, this vote is held to be the formal declaration of a vacancy, and a date is set for the examination of candidates for the chair. In the Académie Française it is customary to delay the announcement of a vacancy for a space of time proportioned to the distinction of its latest accupant, so that the period that elapses before a member's seat is filled is a rough-and-ready measure of his reputation among his colleagues. In the Academy of Medicine the whole matter is in the hands of the Bureau and the Administrative Council, who may declare vacancies at such times as they see fit.

—Attention has repeatedly been called to the great increase of the income of the Harvard College Observatory within the past decade, and more especially within the last two or three years. No less often has the material advancement of astronomical science through their expenditure been remarked. That the astronomers of Europe fully recognize this, is evidenced in one way by the prizes awarded to the Director by foreign scientific societies. His last annual report shows a further widening of the fields of the Observatory's work. The co-operation of other institutions and individuals has been secured, especially in the department of meteorology; and the Director hopes that the work now in progress will show that, in scientific institutions as well as in the industrial arts, large sums of money can be expended much more economically than small ones. Mrs. Draper's continued liberality permits the Henry Draper Memorial work to progress rapidly, and the end of the first large research in this department is now nearly reached. In the complete survey of the spectra of all the brighter stars an eight-inch telescope has been employed. More than six hundred plates have been taken, and nearly 28,000 spectra have been examined. As the photographic intensities of the spectra have also been measured, astronomers have thus for the first time a standard measure of stellar light by which the stars of different colors may be compared. This same telescope is now mounted near Lima, Peru, for the purpose of extending the research to all the stars of the southern hemisphere not visible here. The study of the spectra of the brighter stars continues at Cambridge with an eleven-inch telescope, and has been extended by the use of plates which have been stained with erythrosin. In the spectrum of Sirius, for example, all lines except those due to hydrogen are very faint. However, the positions of nearly four hundred of them have been measured.

—The work under the auspices of the Boyden Fund has afforded more definite plans for the proposed mountain observatory. The meteorological fitness of the Colorado mountains is under investigation, in which General Greely and Prof. Loud are affording much assistance. The expedition to Peru, in charge of Mr. Bailey, to be joined later by Mr. Pickering, will undertake special work for ascertaining the steadiness and transparency of the atmosphere in those regions. Meanwhile, the minute investigation of the atmospheric conditions at Cambridge pursues very interesting lines, in order to show precisely what results may be expected at or near the sea level. Numerous double stars have been photographed, also the satellites of Mars, Saturn, and Uranus. The Paine Fund of the Observatory is nearly unrestricted in the conditions of its use, and it aids thus in every part of the work. The meridian photometer, an important instrument of Prof. Pickering's original devising, has now completed seven years of work, the main outcome of which was the publication of the Harvard Photometry of all stars to the sixth magnitude. This scale has since been extended to the ninth magnitude, and the instrument has now been sent to Peru, where the Harvard Photometry will be extended to the south pole of the heavens. For other details of the activity of the Observatory, the report of Prof. Pickering must be consulted. The increasing interest of the establishment in purely meteorological work is worthy of note, particularly in reference to the Blue Hill Meteorological Observatory, the observations at which will hereafter appear in the Harvard Annals, while the eventual consolidation of the two institutions is contemplated. The coöperation of observers of variable stars has been greatly extended, and much valuable material has in this way been made available at little cost above that of publication. The dropping of the Boston time-ball is accomplished with unusual precision.

WILSTACH'S DIVINE COMEDY.

The Divine Comedy of Dante, Translated into English Verse, with Notes, by John Augustine Wilstach. 2 vols., 8vo. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

MR. WILSTACH'S translation of the 'Divina Commedia' is so distinctly commonplace, or worse, that it would not be worth while to speak of it at any length, had not certain reviews of it which have appeared as advertisements taken pains to praise it highly. According to them the translation is the fruit of scholarly and careful study; and its superior merits, its poetic purity, its copious explanatory notes, and so forth, will, it is predicted, win for it the place of the standard English edition of the poem. After such announcements it is certainly worth while to examine the translation in some detail.

In the first place, the notes are mainly composed of selections from and paraphrases of the notes of Longfellow and Carlyle on the 'Inferno,' and of Longfellow and Butler on the 'Purgatory' and the 'Paradise.' The following are fair illustrations. Longfellow says in his note to *Purg.* xxxi, 116:

"The color of Beatrice's eyes has not been passed over in silence by the commentators. Lani, in his *Annotazioni*, says: 'They were of a greenish blue, like the color of the sea.' Melchior Messirini, who thought he had discovered a portrait of Beatrice as old as the fourteenth century, affirms that she had 'splendid brown eyes.' Dante here calls them emeralds; upon which the *Ottimo* comments thus," etc.

Mr. Wilstach's note is:

"The eyes of Beatrice. 'A greenish blue,' says Lani, 'like the color of the sea.' By Melchior Messirini, who claimed to have discovered a portrait of Beatrice, dating as far back as the fourteenth century, she is declared to have had 'splendid *brown* eyes.' On Dante's 'emeralds' the *Ottimo* comments thus," etc.

Again, Longfellow's note to *Purg.* xxix, 41 is: "The Muse of Astronomy, or things celestial, represented as crowned with stars and robed in azure. Milton . . . makes the same invocation." Mr. Wilstach's note is: "The Muse of Astronomy, or things celestial, whom art represents as robed in azure and crowned with a coronet of stars. Milton . . . invokes her," etc. These examples, taken almost at random, indicate fairly well the relation of Longfellow's notes to many of Mr. Wilstach's.

How many of the commentaries which Mr. Wilstach cites he has ever seen, it is not easy to say. There are certain names of German and Italian critics which one looks for instinctively in an index to notes on the 'Divine Comedy.' Of these names many are absent from Mr. Wilstach's index, and the works of those whose names are found there seem to have been known only at second hand. For instance, there are eleven references in the index to passages in which King John of Saxony, better known as "Philalethes," is cited as an authority. One of these passages is not to be found, but in the other ten the references to Philalethes are virtually paraphrases of the corresponding references in Butler's notes. In two instances Mr. Wilstach has made an error in transferring a quotation from Philalethes from Butler's notes to his own. If we must make use of other people's information without giving them credit for it, let us at least do it accurately. Again, Mr. Wilstach seems beyond a doubt to know nothing of Scartazzini's edition of the 'Commedia,' the most helpful modern edition. He quotes it once, to be sure, but the quotation is taken—without acknowledgment, of course—from Butler. Witte, too, is cited twice in a casual way, and evidently at second hand.

When Mr. Wilstach does stray from the excellent sources of information which have been mentioned, the result is curious. Usually his remarks are absolutely commonplace. Sometimes he makes blundering errors, as in his reference to the 'Vita Nuova' in his note to *Purg.* xxix, 85. Sometimes he comments on a borrowed piece of information in such a way as to show that he does not appreciate it, as in the note to *Purg.* xiv, 106. Sometimes he makes rash statements, as in the note to *Purg.* ix, 1. Oftener he shows an inadequate acquaintance with what has been written on his subject. What annotator, for instance, who had read what has been written of late years about Guittone d'Arezzo, would think of putting off the interested reader with "to him Carey, whose judgment has value, assigns a distinguished place in literature" (note to *Purg.* xxiv, 56)? Occasionally he is plainly inaccurate. Guido Cavalcanti, for example, died on August 27 or 28, not in December (note to *Inf.* x, 60).

There is, moreover, about the notes a sort of cheap American wit, the wit that tries to be "smart." The reader could forgive the long note that is lugged in (*Par.* vi, 44), beginning, "American annals have produced an American Camillus: Sitting Buffalo, usually called Sitting Bull, Tatonkaiyontonka, a chief of the Dakotas," or even the three sprawling, rambling pages on the Constitution of the United States, Roger Williams, decisions of Supreme Courts, and various other things (*Inf.* xix). But such attempts at jokes as that in the note on Asdente (*Inf.* xx, 118) are unpardonable; so, too, are Mr. Wilstach's extraordinary "smart" sayings about Beatrice in his notes to canto xxxiii of the 'Purgatory,' *e. g.*: "Savors of coquetry"; "We may imagine that the woman, Beatrice Portinari, is pouting, while the divine Beatrice, the symbol of theological truth, is absent from the scene"; "The jealous woman!" Were one writing a comment to Josh Billings, these would no doubt be the kind of remarks which the text would suggest. But to say "smart" things about Dante is the very height of the inappropriate.

Mr. Wilstach's translation is no less extraordinary than his notes. He explains in his preface that only by a rhymed translation can one hope to approximate a reproduction of the effect created by the original.

> "The form," he goes on to say, "is so inseparable from the soul of the work as to compel the translator to accept all the risks involved in order to represent it. . . . It is hoped that one may be pardoned for putting himself under bonds, and denying himself the freedom which inevitably leads to the expression of too much of the translator's personality. Fidelity to the Italian poet has therefore been the *jus et norma* of the translator's dealing with the text."

It is curious to find an author who shrinks from the *freedom* of a prose translation, and prefers verse because he can in that way be more faithful to the text. However, let us test Mr. Wilstach's translation by his own ambitions—fidelity and accuracy. It is made in ten-syllabled verse. The first lines of each pair of *terzine* usually rhyme. The second and third lines of each *terzina* rhyme. The arrangement of rhymes is, then, *abb, acc, dee*, etc. The

quality of the verse is on the whole that of a rhymed paraphrase of a prose translation. It bears sometimes so little resemblance to the original that one wonders if the author had ever read Dante in Italian. In the first place, words, phrases, sometimes whole lines, are put in to fill up the verse and to make out the rhymes. Dante says (*Inf.* v, 50): "Master, who are those people whom the black air thus lashes?" (Carlyle). Mr. Wilstach translates: "Master, *I fain would know* Who are these people whom the darkening air So *seems* to lash *and buffet, beat, and tear.*" *Un bel fiumicello* (*Inf.* iv, 108) is "a stream *with prattling falls.*" *Questo passammo* (*Inf.* iv, 109) is "We pass the *dimpling stream.*" Marzia (*Inf.* iv, 128) becomes "Marcia, *pure of heart*"; Corniglia, "Cornelia gemmed"; Lavinia *sua figlia* (*Inf.* iv. 126), "Lavinia *with her wedding-ring*"(!). Adjectives and short phrases are inserted without the slightest provocation, and it is doubtful if there are five consecutive lines in the whole translation in which there is not some noticeable addition to Dante's idea. For last illustrations take these: Dante writes (*Inf.* ii. 111, 112),

> "Com' io, dopo cotai parole fatte,
> Venni quaggiù del mio beato scanno."

Mr. Wilstach translates: "As I, when *sweet From sacred lips came forth this message meet*, My seat to leave *with all its glories strewed.*" The description of Charon, "Charon the demon, with eyes of glowing coal, beckoning them, collects them all; smites with his oar whoever lingers" (Carlyle), reads, "Demoniac Charon with his eyes like coals *That glow in furnaces keen*, collects the crowd, His *stout* oar those who linger smiting *loud.*" And this is fidelity in translating a writer who weighs his adjectives like fine gold. What would Mr. Wilstach have written had he not avoided the freedom of a prose translation?

In the second place, Mr. Wilstach never scruples to insert a figure of speech of his own when Dante uses none, or to change one which does not meet his approbation. Such instances as follow are not rare; similar ones can be found on almost every page. "She is Semiramis, of whom we read that she succeeded Ninus, and was his spouse" (Carlyle, *Inf.* v. 58), is translated: "Semiramis she is; her consort Nisus, he *Left her his throne when death's knell set him free.*" Again, "And I saw the great Achilles, who fought at last with love" (Carlyle, *Inf.* v. 65-6), becomes, "And saw the great Achilles who, at last, *Through love the line of safety rashly past.*" A little below: "And more than a thousand shades he showed me, whom love had parted from our life," becomes, "And until More than a thousand flitted, had he shown Me with his finger *where love's wrecks were strewn.*" It is scarcely worth while to cite more. The translation is entirely destitute of the two qualities which are most marked in Dante, simplicity and directness. The simplest, plainest statement must be tortured into a roundabout form; *e. g.*, "Dirotti brevemente, mi rispose, Perch' io non temo di venir qua entro," has to be turned into "Thee briefly will I tell the reason why No fear me kept within those regions high."

Lastly, the translation, the paraphrase rather, is not intelligible. There are cantos in it which no English-speaking person could read aloud understandingly without the greatest effort, and that, too, when the corresponding cantos in the original are absolutely simple. Mr. Wilstach's prefatory sonnet to Dante is perhaps not an unfair example of the lucidity with which he writes, and as such is worth giving in full:

> "Poet divine, or, yet, in terraces meek
> The effulgent Cross of southern oceans lights,
> Or, throned where Seraphs, in empyrean heights,
> Close contemplation of the Highest seek;
> Thy heaviest woes from wrath that factions wreak,
> Thy keen resentments voiced in melody's flights,
> Safe thou from Minos and infernal rites;
> On whose behalf was Beatrice moved to speak
> With Virgil's shade, his aid expert to pray;
> On this thine humble follower's task do thou
> Look down benign! Since went thy soul its way
> From out the western waves hath risen, and now
> Hails thy great Muse, a realm more wide than Rome's,
> And give thy themes their thoughts its studious homes."

To sum up: Mr. Wilstach's notes are not accurate, they are not scholarly, they are not at first hand. His translation is not faithful, it is not accurate, it is not intelligible. Is there any excuse for such a piece of work when we have Longfellow's faithful translation in verse-form, and the excellent version by Carlyle of the Inferno in prose? Is it likely that Mr. Wilstach's translation will become the standard one in English? We think not, nor can we look forward with pleasure to the appearance of Mr. Wilstach's "companion volume, devoted to Dante, the Danteans, and things Dantean."

BANCROFT'S CALIFORNIA.—II.

California. Vol. VI. (1848–1859). [History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vol. XVIII.] San Francisco: The History Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. xii, 787.

MISTAKES about minor authorities such as our previous notice illustrated must, of course, occur in the course of an elaborate undertaking like this. The chief difficulty that they cause us lies in the distrust they must needs give us of the more important results of our author, when he has to judge greater and more doubtful matters, such as the general tone of society in the early days, the general trend of the political movements of the years before the war, and the characters of leading public men. As to the social order, to be sure, Mr. Bancroft avoids serious problems by giving us, in general without extravagance, a very full description of rather well-known classes of facts. His material is vast; but there is surely much yet to be done in the way of estimating the real social forces at work. That California society was in a sense cosmopolitan we know, but nobody has yet shown us just how much and in what sense its forms and its tone were determined by foreign and how much by American influences. The foreign influences—the Sidney convicts, the Spanish-Americans, the bull-fights, the gambling sports, the dances, and the rest—were of a nature to display themselves very openly. In consequence, the American account of the early days has often explained what happened by saying that Americans went out as honest miners, but found themselves surrounded, corrupted, and even abused by wicked foreigners, until at last they arose in their might, lynched and intimidated the foreigners, and so made all well. To this notion Mr. Bancroft's facts give, on the whole, no great countenance; but really to understand the society of the early days we still need much more statistical and systematic knowledge of the relative numbers and of the relative behaviors of the various constituents of the population than we yet possess. Although complete information upon this subject will never be obtainable, there is doubtless much more possible than Mr. Bancroft has yet accomplished in the way of a scientific examination of the sociology of the gold period. So full are all who describe those days of a sense of the wonder of the thing, that it is still very hard to get men to study the subject simply and straightforwardly, and to look upon early California as a highly interesting collection of largely abnormal but still, for that very reason, so much the more instructive social and psychological phenomena.

Upon one interesting topic in particular Mr. Bancroft furnishes, as was indeed almost necessary in so general a work, very little important information, and that is upon the workings of early municipal government. To be sure, two chapters of the volume are devoted to the Annals of San Francisco, and, in the chapter on "City-building," the fortunes of Sacramento during its first few years are briefly summarized. But such annalistic summaries are far from being scientific analyses; and surely, while the annals of cities as such are likely to mean little but confusion and weariness to the general reader, serious examinations of the inner lives of cities are at present among our greatest desiderata. And, as some study of the facts has convinced the present reviewer, no cities could well furnish within so narrow a range more instructive lessons, at any rate in the pathology of municipal government, than could San Francisco and Sacramento, if their records and newspaper files were carefully and scientifically scrutinized for the first ten years of the gold period. The changes were so rapid, the municipal needs to be met were so varied, the devices used were so manifest, the evils were so great, and the reforms of the immediately pressing evils were in more than one case so swift and so complete, that the whole forms a sort of hospital study of numerous forms of acute municipal derangement, with several remarkable cases of at least temporary cure. Professor Moses, in his 'Beginnings of Municipal Government in San Francisco' (in the Johns Hopkins "Studies"), has really led the way in a field where no small service can be done to political science. And we would strongly urge upon intelligent Californians of wealth the propriety of encouraging such studies, say, at the University of California, by founding a fund for prize essays on early municipal government in California, and on other related questions. Surely, with the appearance of Mr. Bancroft's book, the day of mere annals ought to end. What Californians now have to do is to *understand* their early history, which, properly viewed, is a treasure-house of instruction in curious social and mental phenomena.

But we come at last to the portion of Mr. Bancroft's book where of necessity he moves on the most doubtful ground, and where, at the same time, his results have a very high interest, even if we cannot always agree with him. We refer to the political history of the *ante-bellum* days in California. As was to be expected, this history becomes very largely an account of the great contest between Broderick and Gwin, and the culminating point of the whole is his characterization of David Broderick, the Irish stone-cutter's son, who became by dint of courage and good fortune a Senator of national reputation, and whose tragic death made him a popular hero. To characterize Broderick in public is, as everybody in San Francisco knows, to offend some one very seriously; but Mr. Bancroft is obliged to take sides, and he takes, on the whole, the easier side. Broderick was a lone, sad, heroic, solemn, burning, aspiring soul, a born hero, the noblest of his race, with steel-blue eyes that occasionally shot sparks of fire. He was incorruptible, although it must be confessed that on occasion he corrupted other people. He was too lofty a being to desire the spoils of office, although, when he became Senator, his first thought was how to secure the most of them for his friends.

His whole life was a battle against baseness, insomuch that he once made a disgraceful bargain with his enemy, Gwin, about the distribution of Federal patronage. This bargain he treated as confidential, denying its existence until he was sufficiently angry at Gwin, when he gave himself the lie, and described it in full. The combined chivalry hereupon plotted to slay him in the course of a projected series of duels, but, as he was a noble-hearted man and no fire-eater, he, for his part, only plotted to slay his Senatorial colleague, Gwin, since duelling was opposed to the Constitution of his State, and could not properly be pursued to excess by any good citizen, however lone or burning or aspiring his soul. Unfortunately Terry interposed and Broderick was killed. He was not buried in consecrated ground, a fact which leads Mr. Bancroft to denounce priestcraft with some vigor.

If, however, one wonders, on reading this statement of Broderick's virtues, why we say that Mr. Bancroft, in eulogizing him with so much eloquence, takes the easier side in an old California controversy, we can only reply that the inquirer knows not Broderick, nor the generation that lived side by side with Broderick. If anything, indeed, is remarkable in California history to an outsider, surely Broderick's great reputation, if viewed at all closely, will seem not the least of the marvels. The lovers of Broderick are always so inarticulate, so given to metaphors and interjections, so incapable of a rational statement of the faith that is in them! And, on the other hand, a critic of Broderick finds his way, from a purely rational point of view, so plain! And yet, we repeat the paradox, to eulogize Broderick in that inarticulate fashion is, after all, for an average progressive Californian, especially if he be of Northern stock, so much easier than to condemn him on those plain rational grounds. For, first of all, Broderick was by common consent a fascinating and baffling personality—lovable, to be sure, and ferocious, like many another Irishman, but withal a lonesome, dignified, melancholy man, whom people could not fathom, and whom all his friends accordingly regarded as full of deep and wonderful promise and power. This was simply the actual personal effect produced by the man upon others. Hence a leader who was probably no great wonder of depth at all, and who was merely an ambitious but comparatively ignorant man, who worked hard to improve his wits, who brooded much over all his failures, and who was very jealous, warm-hearted, high-spirited, and selfish, became, in the eyes of admirers and even of enemies, a mystery and a genius. And next, Broderick, partly by fortune and partly by choice, was led to take sides with the distinctively Northern section of his party. Thus he gradually became more and more nearly an anti-slavery man. Had he lived to see the war, he would have been a prominent Republican leader. He was hated violently by the Southerners for years; he was long the only man in California who could meet them successfully in political warfare; and his death at the hands of Judge Terry made him seem to the Republicans of the war times a martyr of the John Brown type. That his warfare against the chivalry expressed much more his private personal ambitions than his patriotism, was easily forgotten. He had opposed the extension of slavery in the Territories, and he had attacked Buchanan's Administration. Was not this enough? Some men, indeed, opposed the extension of slavery because they loved human freedom, whereas Broderick did so because he hated Gwin. Some men assailed Buchanan's Administration because they found it evil, while Broderick joined their number chiefly because Buchanan gave him no share in the Federal patronage. But such defects are of very small importance in case of a martyr for a great cause, and so one in vain reminds Broderick's friends of the plain facts. Finally, as to Broderick's obvious lack of principle in conducting his political warfare, his admirers have only to reply, as Mr. Bancroft in effect does, that no politician could possibly have succeeded in those days in California whose incorruptible soul was unwilling to disguise its honesty under unrighteous cloaks. Everything was base except Broderick's noble purpose, and of course this noble purpose had to use bribery, corrupt associates, lies, and the rest, as its tools. The whole matter is therefore very plain, and to praise is far easier than to condemn. To be sure, Mr. John H. Hittell, in his 'History of San Francisco,' and yet more recently, in a criticism of Mr. Bancroft (*Overland Monthly* for January, 1889), has persisted in condemning Broderick as a corrupt demagogue, and in giving what we fancy to be very plain reasons for his view; but then, Mr. J. H. Hittell has long since shown himself to be comparatively destitute of poetical imagination, and has a fondness for insisting upon plain reasons, and for taking the unpopular side. To be sure, also, Mr. Bancroft himself, with praiseworthy frankness, puts on record most of the disgraceful facts of Broderick's career; but then, disgraceful facts count for so much less than noble sentiments!

After all, however, this paradoxical career and reputation of Broderick must be regarded as forming an episode at once very romantic and highly instructive in early California life. We often wonder that nobody has yet made Broderick the hero of a novel. We also often wonder why only local historians, such as Hittell, O'Meara, and Bancroft, should have been attracted by a story which illustrates in a very interesting way forces and conflicts that are still active in our national life.

MORE NOVELS.

First Harvests. By F. J. Stimson (J. S. of Dale). Charles Scribner's Sons.

Annie Kilburn. By W. D. Howells. Harpers.

The Countess Eve. By J. H. Shorthouse. Macmillan & Co.

A Heart Regained. By Carmen Sylva. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Pen. By the Author of 'Laddie,' etc. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Remember the Alamo. By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Testa. By Paolo Mantegazza. Translated from the Italian. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

In Far Lochaber. By William Black. Harpers.

Colonel Quaritch, V. C. By Rider Haggard. Harpers.

'First Harvests' is described on the title-page as "A Satire without a Moral." Thus, if it should have no other interest, it piques curiosity about what sort of a composition a satire without its pith and marrow may be. The subject is large, and one which, treated satirically, whether with biting invective or humorous extravagance, it is difficult to keep the moral out of. The 'First Harvests' are the first yield of the social seed sown by the founders of the Republic. If the author sees aright, the vigorous abundance of tares must embitter the joys of paradise for the long-departed fathers. Noxious weeds are everywhere, thriving equally amidst splendor and squalor, but the great stock of pristine virtue has perished, or lives only in wayside flowers. There is more moral than satire in this exhibition of our social conditions, and Mr. Stimson's definition seems to be at fault.

The first fruits described most minutely are apples of Sodom that cluster and dangle about a house situated on Fifth Avenue, and owned by Mrs. Levison-Gower, herself the ripest specimen. Precedence is given to these apples, not because they are the most prolific yield, but because they excite a frenzy of envy, and because to become one of them is the greatest good conceivable to multitudes. The influence of their baneful splendor is extended even to those whose heads they hang hopelessly above. Their tantalizing remoteness creates an impulse of destruction, surging occasionally into mad desire to tear them down and grind them in the dust of their own sacred precincts. The truth of this picture of almost universal devotion to pleasures which can be had for money, and eagerness to share them, is unquestionable; but, on examination of the separate apples, it turns out that, if no better than they should be, they are not so bad as they might be. The ashes concealed by a rosy surface are at the worst mere dry dust of folly. The author, or one of his characters, remarks that American society doesn't mean anything, having neither love nor politics for its end. That is why our society is dull and our society novel duller, and why the women in both have only decorative significance. The English knight-errant of the novel judged Mrs. Levison-Gower and her satellites with Old-World eyes. The author, in spite of his dark innuendoes, knows that they respected the commandments, for no authoritative preacher has declared that the women who merely vulgarize a nation are in danger of hell-fire. Mrs. Levison-Gower's experimental elopement with Mr. Wemyss illustrates very fairly her set's possibilities for iniquity. Nine out of ten of them would only have talked about eloping, and the tenth, like Mrs. Gower, would bring up at the hearth of "nice" relations in Boston.

Mr. Stimson's literary form and style have been perceptibly influenced by Thackeray, and by his social satire, with universally applicable moral, 'Vanity Fair.' Like Thackeray, he is at his best in independent addresses to the reader, but he has almost none of that novelist's art of combination, of grouping, of presenting a complete picture of individuals and a clear idea of their reciprocal influences. With the exception of Mrs. Gower, his people are only half made, and each one takes his way practically according to his will. Such liberty is not life, especially it is not social life. The interpolated reflections on a number of "burning questions" are generally sagacious and keen and admirably expressed. The poetical passages, apropos of nothing in particular, are very pleasant, and have the effect of a Roman punch served between courses—they encourage one to go on.

The scene of 'Annie Kilburn' is remote from that of 'First Harvests,' and the people are of a somewhat different breed; yet, nevertheless, one gathers from it that our God is Mammon, and that the Republic, in all that concerns a fine and high development of the race, is so far a failure. The New England conscience is wearing old, only showing fight in an irresolute Annie Kilburn with a propensity for meddling in the affairs of the "lower classes," or in a Mr. Peck, of vague and mystical utterance, pushing towards unpractical experiment. Mr. Howells in a way here justifies himself

for what in former novels has been regarded as a rather wilful ignoring of the spiritual and intellectual elements of New England character. He pretends to write only what he sees, and now it appears that he doesn't see that traditional spirit and intellect because they are no longer there to see. The opening paragraphs of the thirteenth chapter explain his position quite clearly.

Taking away, then, the finer mental qualities and moral aspirations from the New England village become an American town, there remains a community neither agreeable nor profitable to dwell upon. No one but Mr. Howells could write a readable book about those whose interests are narrowly personal, whose motives are mostly petty and manners always bad. With the advantage of his literary facility and his wit, 'Annie Kilburn' is not more than readable. There are, of course, oases in the deserts of trivialities and censorious tattle, the most amusing of which is the description of Mrs. Munger's theatricals, and all the people who had to do with them. Here is an example of a very lively and effective kind of satire. The young ladies and gentlemen who would not infer the moral that they had better dissociate their desire to shine as *Romeos* and *Juliets* from beneficence towards the "lower classes," must be dull indeed.

Mr. Howells so seldom represents the improbable that his management of Putney, a prominent character, gives us a succession of surprises. This Putney is the acknowledged aristocrat of Hatboro', a man of education and a lawyer, with a refined wife. Yet he talks like a jocose and illiterate "drummer" of dazzling smartness, and loves to tell the stranger that every one in town has seen him drunk in the gutter. He behaves very indecently on the occasion of Mrs. Munger's theatricals, but popular sympathy, and apparently the author's, are with him and against poor Mrs. Munger for having put rum in her lemonade. In the delineation of Putney the author's delight in saying bright things in surprisingly bad English seems to have blinded his judgment, and his preference for phraseology which defies grammar is noticeable besides in both narration and description.

If 'The Countess Eve' had been written at the time when its scene is laid, a century ago, the difference between the author's thought and literary style and that of his contemporaries whom we have just been considering could hardly have been greater. Mr. Shorthouse is entirely unaffected by the fashion of the day—it may be said, by the spirit of the age, from which the common belief is that no man can stand apart. The transient phases of life do not occupy him at all. His soul is filled with a conviction of the existence of positive sin and positive virtue, with their inevitable, eternal consequences. For him the devil is a personality and Christ a God. He takes his stand on the dogma of the Christian Church, and scorns that compromise which accepts Christ's ethics and rejects his divinity. The Countess Eve is tempted by the devil and saved by the Cross, but, for dallying with temptation, her beauty is for ever singed with the flame of the pit. The story is highly imaginative, humanly passionate, and picturesque. The form is thoroughly artistic, and the expression has a fitting elegance. All these qualities heighten the charm, but they do not make it. That springs from the same religious faith with which the old masters mixed the pigments that produced Madonnas and saints of a rapt and mystical beauty which we call heavenly.

The tales and poems of Carmen Sylva all show a keen sympathy with human suffering, whatever its origin or form, which is admirable and rare in common mortals and seems much more so in a queen. But her novel 'A Heart Regained' approaches dangerously near to what common mortals characterize as feeble sentimentality. Though a woman may forgive her brother who has sinned against her seven times seven, she can hardly forgive her husband, and that, too, with a generous ampleness which naturally encourages his sinful propensities. Moreover, in the interest of private and public morals, it is doubtful whether such tolerance is desirable. Léonie adopting the child of the woman whom her own husband has deceived and discarded, is a strong woman, whose reason dominates emotions essentially feminine; Léonie voluntarily divorcing herself, then taking to her heart the husband, the new wife, and their daughter, is a figure that excites a smile rather than respectful admiration. These episodes in Léonie's sorrowful life are narrated in a simple, straightforward, and graceful way which partially conceals their improbability. There is, indeed, a natural pathos in her grief and self-humiliation which at times makes us forget that the latter was self-inflicted and unworthy.

The author of 'Pen' is to the full as sentimental as is the Queen of Rumania, but expends her heart on less serious and more familiar situations. Authors are quite commonly blind to any lack of originality in their own compositions, so perhaps the author of 'Pen' may believe that the lines of her story entitle her to copyright. At all events, there is an air of good faith about it which will make it as good to the unsophisticated as if it had never been told before. The rising generation is the hope of the story-teller as well as of the nation, and doubtless there are thousands of possible readers who have never heard of that wilful daughter of a noble house who ran away with her drawing-master for the sake of his velveteen coat and the scarlet ribbon round his neck. So they cannot instantly predicate poverty, children, death, noble relatives to the rescue, wealth, and proper husbands, and happiness ever after. The knowledge that only one kind of literary edifice can be built on a given foundation is not instinctive, and this particular lesson of experience cannot be more agreeably or harmlessly learned than by following the fortunes of Penelope Brand.

'Remember the Alamo!' is another story which may be commended to youth. Mrs. Barr is clever in selecting historical events more romantic and dramatic than most fiction, and in weaving together instances of individual heroism. The episode of the revolt of American residents of Texas against Mexican rule affords her abundant material, which she uses to instruct the American youth concerning a small war of independence fought in what has since become a part of his own country, and to fire him with his forefathers' enthusiasm for "liberty or death." With such unimpeachable patriots as Davy Crockett and Sam Houston, such a bloody-minded villain as Santa Anna, and such thrilling events as the massacre of Goliad and the storming of the Alamo right at hand, there was small need of creating fictitious excitement. Sentimental love affairs add nothing to stories of this kind, but serve to diminish both their interest and value. Partisanship, too, is very well when it means patriotism, and when one is writing a story, not a critical commentary. But partisanship in questions of religious creed almost invariably assumes the bitterness of a personal prejudice. Undoubtedly the Catholic Church was opposed to the independence of Texas, which implied speedy Americanization; but no astute ecclesiastic ever tried to accomplish an end by the methods of brutal intimidation ascribed to the Señora Worth's confessor.

Mrs. Barr's story, with its generous allowance of fighting, is much more to the taste of American boys than is 'Testa,' addressed especially to boys by its Italian author. Mantegazza is a wise social philosopher, but he has much to learn about the literary methods through which a boy's fitful attention may be captured. From the preface, by Mr. Ventura, we learn that the Italian boy has been consistently neglected by literary men, and that 'Testa' is among the first acknowledgments of his existence as a rational animal, deserving of intellectual food. The offering is a great compliment to untried capacity, and seems to have been seized ravenously. Nevertheless we have a suspicion that most of the ten Italian editions were swallowed by his elders and judiciously doled out to the boy. Uncle Baciccia, whose accumulated philosophy of experience is poured for a whole year into the patient ears of little Enrico, reminds us strongly of Sam Johnson and of Ben Franklin. He combines the severe morals and explosive temper of the one with the general serenity, candor, and practical shrewdness of the other. At an early age he adopted Franklin's device of carrying about a written table of good resolutions, from which he too derived much moral support. But we must do Baciccia the justice to say that he seems quite free from the guile which helped to make the American sage great in diplomacy, and that he has a sweetness and idealism entirely his own. The translation of 'Testa,' which was made by a club of students of Italian in Bangor, is charmingly smooth and very faithful, bearing comparison with the best work of professional translators.

From some chapters of 'In Far Lochaber' it is evident that Mr. Black's affections do not embrace every human being north of the Cheviot Hills and Solway Firth. He almost seems to draw a dividing line of emotion about geographically parallel with Loch Linnhe and the Grampians. South of that, he can neither desire nor admire, but he can be decently fair. His delineation of the "dour Scotch," the stiff-necked, Free-Church Scotch who swear by the Covenant and hate the Establishment, who are incomparable kill-joys, is an illustration of justice without mercy. He gives credit for many recognized virtues to the Minister of Kirk o' Shields, and even to his elders and their wives. He refrains, too, from suggesting that almost every one of them may be possessed of a spirit of fanaticism as cruel and vindictive as was that of Balfour of Burley and the murderers of Archbishop Sharp. But he doesn't like the "unco guid" nor want anybody else to like them; he is glad to get off to the moor and heather and sing the hospitality, the prodigality, the impulsive, warm-hearted shiftlessness of the Celtic Highlanders. Arriving at 'Far Lochaber' he is delightedly at home, and infects the reader with his own sense of pleasure. In describing Captain Macdonell's feeling that difference of faith was no obstacle to his marriage with the Free Church minister's daughter, Mr. Black writes from the wrong point of view. Catholic indifferentism is not so thorough as Protestant. It would be very difficult to find a Highland Catholic who, wedding a Protestant wife, would not have at least a private intention of divorcing her from the Covenant.

Mr. Haggard's ingenuity fails him in 'Colonel Quaritch, V. C.,' and he is quite at his wits' end for something new and strange. In the beginning, we are told that treasure had

been hidden by a Cavalier who died rather than deliver it over to the Roundheads. In the end, Colonel Quaritch digs the treasure out of a mound where every one has felt certain from the first that it lies concealed. No schoolboy would have bothered himself about the cipher, but, on hearing Miss de la Molle's story, would at once have attacked the mound with pick and shovel. The bulk of the book is given to an intrigue of the lowest sensational order, and the treasure and cipher must be regarded as the excuse for presenting it to the public in a form that may make the reading of it consistent with self-respect.

The Advance Guard of Western Civilization. By James R. Gilmore (Edmund Kirke). D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

THE title of this book is peculiarly appropriate, for Robertson, Donelson, and their associates unquestionably led the advancing line of civilization to the Cumberland, whence it pressed steadily forward to Arkansas and Texas. The story is worth telling, and the author has told it well. But it is the story rather of that class of writers who popularize science than of those who make original and decisive investigations. Mr. Gilmore, however, is not satisfied with being a "popularizer": he is also ambitious to acquire the laurels of the investigator, and to these he is not entitled. As his 'Rear-Guard of the Revolution' and his 'John Sevier as a Commonwealth Builder' were founded almost exclusively upon Ramsey's 'Annals,' so the present book is nothing if not a rehash of Putnam's 'History of Middle Tennessee,' garnished with some irrelevant matter about James Wilkinson. In his preface the author says:

"The narrative is the result of eight years' careful study of early events in the Southwest, nearly four of which years were passed upon the ground where the events occurred, and it is the author's sincere conviction that it may be accepted as authentic history." And again, "In the preparation of this volume, the writer has had the advantage of personal intercourse with the descendants of the men he portrays, and he has also consulted—so far as he knows—all that has been written upon the subject."

This is simply sailing under false colors. The events narrated by Mr. Gilmore, barring the appendix, have long been accessible to all students of Southwestern history. It would embarrass Mr. Gilmore to point out two important events narrated in his book, not also contained in Pickett's 'Alabama,' the Histories of Kentucky and Louisiana, and other equally accessible authorities. His "intercourse with the descendants of the men he portrays" has been of little service to him. The author's error lies in leading his readers to the belief that he has discovered and exploited an entirely new field of historical research. He is, however, merely a gleaner, not a discoverer.

Paradoxes of a Philistine. By William S. Walsh. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1889. Pp. 192.

THIS volume of little essays, chiefly reprinted from *Lippincott's*, does not call for much comment on the part of the reviewer. It is another illustration of the fact that to fill a department in a magazine is very much like making bricks without straw, unless, like Howells, one happens to have a mission, or unless one is gifted, like Curtis, with a power of transmuting every subject which comes up into gold. Nevertheless, writing of a different kind may serve a useful purpose. This is an age of much sympathy with the undeveloped classes; the problem of practical charity which literature has ever before, it is to set forth the literary instinct in some such way as shall cause it to appeal to those who are as yet insensitive to it. The purpose which the regular writer in the monthly magazine may serve is to explain, if he knows it himself, the difference between literature and non-literature to those who do not know it. This purpose Mr. Walsh fulfils, on the whole, but badly. Much of what he has to say is open to no special objection, but much of it is of a tendency the reverse of elevating.

His principal note, if there is a principal note, is the belittling of great achievement; and the gospel which he feels most strongly called upon to set forth is that there is little difference between common men and great men. But this is a doctrine which is, from the scientific point of view, thoroughly incorrect. There is a diagram in Mr. Galton's book on 'Hereditary Genius' which is intended to illustrate the extraordinariness of great men, and which it is very instructive to carry about in one's mind. Human beings are represented by a column of scattered dots. In the middle of the column the dots are very thick, to represent the immense number of average men; further up they grow thinner and thinner, until near the top a very few, and finally one, serve to represent the greatest, who stand nearly or quite solitary and alone. Below the average there is a corresponding gradual thinning out, until one reaches the very small number of the most degraded idiots. But this diagram may serve to illustrate not only the distribution of greatness, but also the degree of admiration with which greatness ought to be regarded. In other words, the estimation in which we hold a great man, if we were disposed to scientific accuracy, ought to be apportioned to his degree of rarity. The unusualness of a giant is not to be measured, as Mr. Walsh seems to suppose, by the ratio between seven feet and six feet, and still less ought it to be depreciated by saying that twelve inches is a small matter compared with infinite space. It can only be correctly represented by the ratio of the number of people seven feet high to the number of people of the average height.

To drop the mathematical aspect of the question, to say that one man is as good as another is both false and highly inconducive to the progress of the race in greatness. There is no one thing which leads people on to better thoughts and feelings than those which are natural to them so much as a warm and generous admiration for the great either in intellect or in virtue. It is only a distorted sense of perspective which can permit a man to say that 'Leaves of Grass' is now recognized as a monumental addition to American literature; to instance Milton, Wordsworth, Keats, and Walt Whitman as greatest poets, and to say that "in our country to-day some of the most vital and vigorous verses are written by . . . Will Carleton and James Whitcomb Riley."

If the critic had any influence with Mr. Walsh, he would try to persuade him to give greater attention to values, and to take his monthly task more seriously.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. Force and Energy: A Theory of Dynamics. Longmans Green & Co. $2.25.
Bell, Mrs. Hugh. Petit Théâtre des Infants: Twelve Tiny French Plays for Children. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Browne, Sir T. Religio Medici. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Butler, Sir W. General Gordon. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Carlyle, T. Sartor Resartus. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Case, T. Physical Realism; being an Analytical Philosophy from the Physical Objects of Science to the Physical Data of Sense. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.00.
Chesney, F.R. Operatic Tales. Scribner & Welford. $2.25.
Cram's Universal Atlas, Geographical, Astronomical, and Historical, containing a Complete Series of Maps of Modern Geography. George F. Cram. $3.75.
Dann, J. T. German Commercial Correspondence. For the Use of Schools. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Davis, E. H. The Beginner's Reading Book. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 42 cents.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Lives of the Fathers: Sketches of Church History in Biography. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $5.
Fawcett, E. Miriam Balestier: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Fleming, G. The Truth about Clement Ker. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Fletcher, A. E. Sonnenschein's Cyclopædia of Education: A Handbook of Reference on all subjects connected with Education. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. I. 1748—1757. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

BOTH branches of Congress have agreed upon a bill admitting four new States into the Union, and the President has approved the measure. Dakota is to be divided by an east and west line drawn midway across the Territory, and to constitute two States; the other two are to be created from the Territories of Washington and Montana as they now stand. Provision is made by which elections may be held in each of the four, next October, by virtue of which Senators and Representatives (one apiece of the latter, except in the case of South Dakota, which will have two) can be chosen in time to take their seats in Congress next December. This is a happy outcome of the long controversy over the matter. South Dakota and Washington have been qualified to become States for some time; North Dakota has become so; and, while it would have done Montana no harm to wait a while longer, it already has sufficient population and assurance of permanent prosperity to remove any fear of its ever turning out a second Nevada. The act has therefore the great merit of not including any Territory which ought not to come in on its merits, but which is admitted as a sort of political balance, as would have been the case if the illiterate population of New Mexico had been placed on an equality with the intelligent people of Washington. This most of the Democrats were anxious to have done, because New Mexico has of late years been Democratic, while the Republicans have had the preponderance in the northern Territories. But enough Democrats rose above partisan considerations to permit the dropping of New Mexico, and save the Union from a State wherein, according to the last census, 60 per cent. of the people could not read. The only valid criticism upon the Omnibus Act as passed is, that it works no reforms in nomenclature. Each half of Dakota clings to that name, and Washington the State will always cause confusion with Washington the capital. But the people most directly concerned would not consent to any change, and the home-rule principle was allowed to govern.

This is the first time in our history that Congress has provided for admitting four States at once. The nearest approach was in the closing days of the Twenty-eighth Congress, in March, 1845, when acts were passed annexing Texas and bringing in Florida and Iowa, although admission did not really occur in Iowa's case until nearly two years later. The first to join the original thirteen were Vermont and Kentucky, in 1791 and 1792 respectively; each made out of the thirteen—Vermont out of New Hampshire and New York, and Kentucky out of Virginia. In 1796 Tennessee was made, in like manner, out of North Carolina; and in 1802 Ohio out of the Northwest Territory as organized under the Ordinance of 1787. Louisiana followed, out of the newly acquired territory in the Southwest, in 1812. Then came a period during which the rule was to balance a new slave State against a new free one, and thus admit States by pairs—Indiana and Mississippi, in 1816 and 1817; Illinois and Alabama, in 1818 and 1819; Maine and Missouri, in 1820 and 1821; Arkansas and Michigan, in 1836 and 1837; Florida and Iowa, in 1845 and 1846. After this latter date only free States were admitted—California in 1850, Minnesota in 1858, Oregon in 1859, and Kansas early in 1861. Since 1861 but four States have come in, and this has been at least one too many. West Virginia was torn from Virginia in 1863 by methods which would only have been possible in the stress of war, although it promises to justify its separate existence. Nevada is the one terrible blunder. It was made a State in 1864, when it contained only a few thousand miners, solely to strengthen the Republican party in Congress and the Electoral College, and there appears to be no chance of its ever having a large population. Nebraska, which came in during 1867, and Colorado, in 1876, complete the existing list.

The signing of the so-called "gentlemen's agreement" by all the railroad presidents whose coöperation is deemed necessary, is a very important step towards the restoration of value to a class of property upon which the value of all other property depends. The railroads have recognized and acted upon the maxim that the gods help those who help themselves. They have perceived that nothing will be done to save them from financial ruin unless they first do everything in their own power to that end. It is within their power to do, not everything, but much to check the headlong race towards bankruptcy, which the weaker ones have already reached, and which the stronger ones have been approaching at high speed. They have now done the best thing that they could do with and for each other, and they can now confidently appeal to the public for relief from the burden of unjust laws from which they are suffering. The Chicago and Alton Company have made such an appeal in their annual report just published, and have presented a state of facts which, if not answered by fair argument, must have a powerful influence in determining the course of future legislation and judicial decision. This company was by its charter expressly authorized "to fix the rates of toll in the transportation of freight and passengers over its railroad." It took the grant subject to the principle of the common law, that the rates should be reasonable and equal to all customers. In the early days of the enterprise, even while the grant was undisturbed by State interference, and even while railroads were few and competition slight, the company failed to make both ends meet. It passed into bankruptcy, and was sold under the hammer. Its stockholders realized nothing, and its bondholders got less than fifty cents for each dollar they had invested.

This is what happened little more than twenty years ago to a railroad connecting the two largest interior cities in the country. Nearly all the Western roads had the same experience. Of twenty-four railroads coming more or less directly in competition with the Chicago and Alton, the report tells us that twenty have been forced into bankruptcy within twelve years after the State began to interfere with their operations—five of them within one year, three within two years, four within three years, one within four years, three within five years, one within eight years, two within nine years, and one at the end of twelve years. The "water" on all these roads, both the earlier and the later ones, has been squeezed out of them either by the laws of trade or by legislative interference. As to the Chicago and Alton itself, the report shows that the actual cash cost of the property has been $10,989,878 *more* than the total amount of its stock and bonds outstanding, and that it could not be duplicated to-day for the sum represented by its stock and bonds and $15,000,000 added thereto. This road is very favorably situated for purposes of traffic; it is one of the best in the country or in the world in the durability and completeness of its road-bed, equipment, terminals, and everything which goes to bring in the largest results with the least expense. It can still earn a dividend for its shareholders. But as things are now going on in the Legislatures and among the Railroad Commissioners of the States in which its business is carried on, it sees only gloomy prospects for the future. Its relative position toward other less prosperous roads may be maintained, but unless a different spirit animates the people whom it serves, they will all be engulfed alike. An attempt has now been made to fix rates absolutely by State authority. This means that one party to a bargain has the power to fix the terms of both purchase and sale, and that he is restrained by no compunction or consideration for the rights of the other. This is communism without disguise. It is the essence of injustice, tyranny, confiscation.

The conference of the civil-service reformers in Baltimore which was held on Saturday was a great success, in part because it was managed by strong supporters of Gen. Harrison, and was attended and addressed by such ardent civil-service reformers as Messrs. Foulke and Swift from Gen. Harrison's own State. The resolutions were drafted by Republicans, and all the speakers were Republicans, and we are bound to say that no supporters of President Cleveland could have expressed themselves more warmly in defence of the competitive system. The resolutions, while undoubtedly expressing hopefulness as regards the attitude of the new Administration

towards the reform, do not betray any disposition to overlook possible mistakes or shortcomings. In other words, unless all signs fail, Gen. Harrison will have as stern critics in his own party as any civil-service reformers could desire; but it must be admitted that all signs do fail sometimes. Mr. Theodore Roosevelt made the mistake of giving the Baltimore people, at the public meeting in the evening, to understand not only that the municipal service in New York was no better than in Baltimore, but that it had not improved since his Committee made its investigations in 1884—a palpable misrepresentation, doubtless due to the oratorical excitement of the moment. The State and municipal services have since then been placed under the competitive system, and the enormous receipts of the County Clerk and Register, over which he made merry, have been changed into moderate fixed salaries. Even the devil, as is well known, must have his due.

Mr. Fairchild has made another statement, this time to a reporter of the *Commercial Advertiser*, in which he falls back on his right, even under the Civil-Service Law, to remove without giving a reason, simply because he thinks a change will be for the good of the service. This is a good general rule, but unfortunately it is not a rule applicable to the present case. What he is criticised for in regard to his recent Custom-house removals is, that he removed after a trial on charges of fraud, before a tribunal composed of a newspaper reporter who had been previously employed as a detective, whom he armed with extraordinary and unconstitutional powers, including that of examining the accused secretly under oath, who acted both as judge and prosecutor, and whose findings were adopted and approved without giving the accused an opportunity to defend themselves; and that until the flimsy and disgraceful character of this report was exposed, he (Mr. Fairchild) allowed it to be understood and spread abroad that Byrne had discovered enormous frauds at this port, in which not only many officers of the Appraiser's Department, but many leading merchants were implicated. While doing this, too, or permitting it to be done, he showed that he was actually ignorant of the fact that any importers here had complained of the acts of his new examiners, or, in other words, did not keep the run of the matter in his own office. Even in this interview he so far loses his head as to say that "the Sherers had lied in connection with the Front Street matter," which is something that a high officer of the Government should not say publicly of any man in his employment, without proof, and particularly of men whose character is considered by those who know them just as good as Mr. Fairchild's, and whose word is considered just as reliable. He now promises, we suppose under recent spurring, "an exhaustive account" for District-Attorney Walker to base indictments on—a composition which he ought to have produced just one year ago, but of which, we venture to predict, we shall not hear much more.

Col. W. W. Dudley, the Treasurer of the Republican National Committee, has sued the *Evening Post* for libel for printing that letter of his about the "floaters in blocks of five." The *Evening Post* obtained an order from the Supreme Court here to examine him in Washington before trial about the letter, whether he wrote it in whole or in part, or, if he wrote it in part, what part, and so on; or, in other words, ask him for the explanations which all Christian gentlemen are eager to give when their reputation is unjustly assailed. A subpœna was successfully served on the Colonel, fixing his examination for the 27th inst. But, instead of joyously hailing this opportunity of vindicating himself from an odious imputation, the Colonel gave notice of his intention to apply to the court in Washington to have the summons quashed, so that his examination might not take place! Is it possible that we are wholly mistaken as to the practice of Christian gentlemen in the matter of unjust accusations? Is it really true that, when charged with doing a disgraceful thing, they cut, run, break away, and avoid their accusers, and absolutely decline to be questioned touching allegations made against their integrity? It certainly used not to be so. In old times they met the enemy in the gate, and it was the accuser who used to run away.

A correspondent calls our attention, in the interest of Mr. and Mrs. Harrison, to the American vice of hand-shaking. It is the common experience of occupants of the White House that their right hands and arms become swollen and well-nigh paralyzed after each struggle with the hand-shakers at a public reception. There is no tyranny so imperious, there is no custom so senseless, as that which condemns the President of the United States and his wife to grasp the hand of every citizen and every citizeness who comes to the White House during the space of four years, and as often as they come. If we cannot reform it altogether, we might do so by degrees, and we make the suggestion to President Harrison accordingly, that a rule be established that only one hand-shake be allowed to each person during four years. This rule would necessarily require some bookkeeping. The usher would be required to take down the name of each person favored with a clasp of the Presidential palm, and make an alphabetical index of the same. Such persons should be notified by posters or otherwise of the rule in force, and when retiring should be put upon their honor not to claim the privilege of hand-shaking at the White House again during the present term. If anybody were caught violating the rule, he should be forbidden to enter the Executive Mansion during the next four years. Gradually the vice of hand-shaking would become unfashionable, just as the practice of taking a drink when the ceremony of introduction occurs has become, and so eventually we might get back to the custom of Washington and Jefferson, with whom a bow from the gentlemen and a courtesy from the ladies was the customary form of greeting.

Poor Foraker! Less than a year ago he was running for a Presidential nomination on the great issue that President Cleveland had snubbed him, and yet to-day he is struggling desperately to prevent the Republican party of Ohio from throwing him overboard. When he failed to get either first or second place on the Presidential ticket, he began to work for a Cabinet position. Now he appears to have abandoned hope of that, for he has had one of the few Republican newspapers of Ohio that are not tired of him "nail his name to the masthead" as a candidate for reëlection to the Governorship. This proposal appears to have split the Republican press of the State, for a large number of the more powerful members of it are crying out that the party has had all it can stand of Foraker, and that he must step aside. Of course he refuses to step aside. He is as warlike now as he was when he drew his sword and prepared to die rather than surrender the battle flags at the call of a "rebel Congress"; and if he is thrown overboard, it will only be after such an uproar as the State has not heard in many a day. It is in accordance with the eternal fitness of things that Ohio, which nourished and developed this preposterous statesman, should have all to itself the job of ridding politics of him.

The *Independent* contains an interesting "symposium" by Southern educators on the question whether the negro should be educated or suppressed. A text was found in the article written by Senator Eustis of Louisiana for the *Forum* a few months ago, which represented the hopeless attitude of the Southern Bourbons. As Mr. Eustis has been discarded for his Bourbonism even by his own somewhat unprogressive State of Louisiana, having been refused a reëlection to the Senate, somewhat undue importance appears to have been attached to his utterance. However, it is pleasant to find how universally it is disavowed and condemned by the leaders of Southern thought, and how hopeful is the view which such men take of the future. All of these writers hold that the Southern problem can be solved only by the education of the negroes, and all of them hold that it is certain to be solved in this way. Mr. John H. Boyd of Durant, Miss., illuminates the situation when he says that the question is not how to secure the negro his vote at the next election, but how to elevate him in intelligence and virtue, because "when the negro has been qualified by education and character, he will secure his rights as naturally as the heir enters into his property on reaching his majority."

A valuable contribution to the discussion is made by Prof. F. C. Woodward of the University of South Carolina. He points out that, since the decision of the Supreme Court annulling the Civil-Rights Act, the

adjustment of these matters—which, by the way, affect the negro far more constantly and powerfully than does the exercise, or non-exercise, of the suffrage—has been left to the operation of time, education, and other natural causes. Prof. Woodward thinks it strange that this analogy is not applied to the settlement of the negro's political status, and says that "if any phase of this question is liable to natural and peaceable methods, this more than any demands the application of such methods." He might have strengthened his argument by pointing out that the political status of the negro has already been satisfactorily adjusted through the operation of natural causes in some parts of the South, and that the same process will ultimately produce the same result in the other parts. It must take more time in some States than in others, but "the strong arm of the Government" cannot press forward the process.

A remarkable illustration of the rapid progress which is making in the right direction down South is afforded by a discussion in the Texas Legislature a few days ago. A bill had passed the Senate requiring railroad companies to provide separate coaches for whites and blacks, and it was favorably reported to the House. But it was earnestly opposed by both white Democrats and colored Republicans, and was finally referred to a special committee under circumstances which virtually made this action equivalent to its rejection. The strongest reason presented for its passage was the fact that, under the present system, rowdyish negro men sometimes insist upon taking seats by respectable white women simply in order to annoy them. But the wiser speakers urged that such difficulties should be disposed of as rowdyism is ordinarily disposed of. "As the railroads are now conducted," said one white member, "good colored men can separate themselves from the bad. It is not derogatory to us to sit down in the cars with gentlemanly colored men." Another white member held that the question was one to be settled by time, precisely as the similar question on the street-cars had already been settled. Two colored members took the same view. "It would be better to let the people settle it themselves," said one of them. "The white people in my country treat us well," said the other, who represents a county where the population is almost equally divided between the two races. When colored Republicans and white Democrats of a Southern State which gives 140,000 Democratic majority talk in this way, there is certainly no reason for Northern Republicans of the "Bill" Chandler school to think that any interference on their part is called for.

It is announced that leading colored citizens of Lynchburg, Va., have just organized a real-estate and trust company with a capital of $20,000. The Wilmington (N. C.) *Messenger*, commenting on this, says that "the colored man is a better citizen as he thrives and becomes a stockholder in the property interests of the community," and expresses the opinion that when habits of industry, economy, and thrift have been well instilled among them, "we shall hear little of political disturbance and outrage, or of threatened race conflicts." The negro already votes freely in Virginia, and Gen. Armstrong of Hampton testifies that he "is quick to see the result of good government, especially in State and local affairs, and to cast his vote for the man whom he thinks most likely to serve best in office." It appears from the testimony of Mr. Harris, a Democratic member of the Alabama Senate, that the same thing is coming to be true of the latter State. "It has been said," he remarked in a recent speech, "that the negroes in all elections are always found arrayed against the best element in society. It may be true that in all Federal elections they vote en masse. Yet, sir, my observation is that in local elections they are very nearly equally divided. Very many of them are earnest workers for the best interest of society, and conduct themselves with much propriety, for which they are held in high esteem."

We observe the passage in the Missouri House of a bill providing that no language shall be taught in the public schools of the State except English, and that all instruction shall be given in English. Missouri has a considerable German element, which is largely massed in a few districts, and which is in some counties the controlling influence. The result is that in a large number of school districts the English branches have been almost entirely crowded out of the public schools by the German residents, who constitute the majority in the districts. In more than one-half of the school districts in Gasconade County nothing but German is taught, and a letter was read which had been addressed to the State Superintendent of Public Schools by a resident of the county, who said that the schools there were ruled by a foreign element, many of whom are unnaturalized and unable to speak the English language. The most noteworthy feature of the discussion was the hearty support given the proposed change in the law by German members. Mr. Vogel, who said he was a "Dutchman," and that he was therefore entitled to speak as he pleased, declared that he was also an American, and said that he wanted to see every man who came to America adapt himself to the laws of this country, and not try to follow here the customs of any foreign country. There was no more reason, he said, for making German the language of common schools in Missouri than there was for furnishing common-school instruction in Hungarian, Chaldaic, or Chinese. The Republicans, who carried the Congressional districts in St. Louis last fall through an alliance with the "Personal-Liberty League" of German beer-sellers, held a caucus and made opposition to the bill a party measure, but it was carried by a vote of 57 to 38.

The Sackville correspondence has been printed in full, and, now that the election excitement is over, is somewhat melancholy reading. The trick played on Lord Sackville was a very sorry one, but until it was taken up and made much of by a great political party, it disgraced nobody but Osgoodby, the obscure Californian who concocted it. It was this which forced the Administration to take hold of it, and make much of it, and demand the recall of a foreign minister on account of it, or, in other words, exhibit to the world the sorry spectacle of a great nation thrown into violent agitation by the petty fraud of an individual. The language used by Mr. Bayard in describing Lord Sackville's behavior now seems very strong indeed. Unhappily it did not seem too strong last November. What lesson the affair teaches we cannot say. The best disposition to make of it is to forget it as soon as possible, with the pious hope that nothing like it may ever occur again.

The English Unionist newspapers received by the last mail furnish curious reading, owing to the complete unconsciousness of danger they show with regard to the Parnell Commission. In running through their columns one seems to be listening to citizens chatting in the forum of Pompeii the evening before the eruption. Not the slightest trace do they contain of any apprehension of the tremendous calamity that was impending over the *Times* and the whole scheme of Unionist morality. Mr. Chamberlain is still making those "effective" and "luminous" speeches of his in which he for the hundredth time demolishes Gladstone, turns John Morley inside out, and exhibits the Irish to the scorn and reprobation of the truly good of both hemispheres. Poor Gladstone still goes on wearying and disgusting his admirers, and Morley making hideous blunders in fact and argument, and Trevelyan displaying his hysterics and his guilty conscience to a pitying public. The Unionist orators were, in fact, up to Saturday week under the visible protection of the Almighty, for nothing but supernatural oversight could keep men so constantly just and true and right as they were, until Pigott took the stand. What has happened in London is, in fact, the only earthquake of which the causes are fully understood. The only sign of prevision on the part of the *Times* has been its persistence in postponing the question of the authenticity of the letters so long, when the proof of it in the beginning would have made the production of the testimony about outrages unnecessary, as it would have ruined Parnell and his followers at one blow, and perhaps have led to their trial and indictment. No adequate idea of the gravity of the situation for the *Times* can as yet be formed. Surrender would not only expose the manager, Mr. Macdonald, and Houston, the young man who led him astray, to indictment for conspiracy with Pigott, but lay the paper open to libel suits on the part of the Irish which it could not defend, and which might ruin the property for some years to come.

A NEW WAR AGAINST LABOR-SAVING MACHINES.

One of the most disgraceful manifestations of the spirit of Labor is the attempt to abolish steam plate presses from the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. The House of Representatives succumbed to its malignant influences, and recorded its vote against these valuable labor-saving machines, but the Senate has refused to concur.

The agitation against the steam plate presses began more than a year ago. "We demand," said the impudently dictatorial resolution adopted by the General Assembly of the Knights of Labor held in Minneapolis in October, 1887, "that all Government securities, notes, bonds, checks, and stamps shall be printed in the highest style of the art of plate-printing from hand roller presses, so as to secure the Government and the public against loss by wear and counterfeiting." The admirable and patriotic motives here given rest upon the assumption that securities printed on steam presses wear out faster and are more easily counterfeited than those printed on hand presses.

Only a mind muddled and confused by Labor can for a moment understand how a steam press is more conducive to the destruction and imitation of bank notes, or silver certificates, or internal-revenue stamps than a hand press. The operations involved in the production of a Government security are the same on both presses, the difference being that hand power does the work on one that machine power does on the other. In the first place, the intaglio-engraved plate is inked in with a roller charged with ink; in the second place, the thick coating of ink thus adhering to the plate is wiped off with a muslin rag, leaving the depressed lines of the engraving filled with the fluid; in the third place, the surface of the plate, which is still covered with a thin film of ink, is polished with the palm of the hand which has been rubbed over a cake of whiting; in the fourth place, after the sheet of paper is laid on the plate, both are run under a roller heavily swathed in layers of felt to prevent the lines of the engraving from being crushed or marred in any way. It is the second operation that constitutes the bone of contention. "It is impossible for any machine to be utilized to handle a rag," said one of the witnesses before the sub-committee of the Senate Finance Committee charged with the duty of investigating this question. Only an ignoramus that had never heard of the wonderful work of the Jacquard loom could have made such a statement. "This constant exercise of discrimination and judgment in going over the plate," said the attorney for Labor, speaking of the high order of intellect required to manipulate a piece of cloth two yards long, "is the substantial reason why we contend that hand printing is superior to steam printing."

A technical discussion of the absurdity of this position is not necessary. The observation that "the test of the pudding is the eating thereof," is more pertinent to the controversy; for it makes no difference how a note has been printed if it is properly printed. What is the character of the work done on steam presses, and wherein does it differ from the work done on hand presses? Happily the means for arriving at a correct answer to this question is within the reach of every person who has a new silver certificate in his pocket, or possesses a box of cigars with an internal-revenue stamp upon it. Up to the present time the eighteen steam presses in the Bureau have been chiefly used to print internal-revenue stamps and the backs of silver certificates. The faces of certificates are printed on hand presses, it having been thought, although not conclusively proved, that steam presses could not be used for the finest grades of work. If, therefore, all doubting Thomases will examine the back and the face of the one-dollar silver certificate, for instance, they can see for themselves whether the fine lines are printed as clearly and distinctly on one side as on the other, and whether, without a previous knowledge of the two kinds of printing, any distinction between them could be detected. Even the four experts that appeared before the Senate sub-committee in behalf of Labor could not tell the difference with any degree of certainty. Of the eleven opinions that they gave upon sheets of notes printed by hand and by steam, and marked for the guidance of the committee, eight were wrong and only three were right—that is to say, these experts could not tell a hand-printed note from a steam-printed note, although it had been declared in a petition to Congress demanding that steam presses be abolished, that "no expert with any regard for his reputation will hesitate to pronounce the work done by said presses as inferior."

The allegation of Labor that these presses facilitate counterfeiting may be met in another way. The opinions of bankers and the experience of the Government are against it. Speaking of the United States silver certificates of the series of 1886, Mr. George S. Coe, President of the American Exchange National Bank, says: "The backs of them all, which I have carefully examined, are, in printing and in every other particular, in the best style of the printer's art, and I see nothing in them to condemn, but everything to commend their workmanship." Mr. George F. Baker, President of the First National Bank, testifies to the same effect. "I see nothing in them," he adds, "to facilitate counterfeiting more than in any other series." Mr. Edmund D. Randolph, President of the Continental National Bank, makes this statement: "As far as there being any appearance of deterioration in any part of the work as compared with former issues, or anything which would in any way facilitate counterfeiting, we entertain quite the opposite opinion." The testimony of these men, who are as deeply interested in preserving the integrity of the currency as any of the fanatical disciples of Labor, is confirmed by the reports in regard to the production and circulation of counterfeits. Since the issue of paper money, 150 counterfeits have been detected. This is at the rate of six a year, or one every two months. During the two and a half years that silver certificates have been issued, only two counterfeits of this class of currency have appeared. Up to September 10, 1888, only one $1 and nine $5 silver certificates had been presented to the Treasury for redemption. During the fiscal year of 1888, 532 separate counterfeit United States notes and national-bank notes were presented for redemption; of these, 81 United States and 106 national-bank notes were of the $5 denomination. As they were all printed on hand presses, the conclusion required by the peculiar system of logic that Labor applies to this subject, is not beyond the reach of the ordinary intellect.

Experience shows also that notes printed on steam presses last as long as those printed on hand presses. When a plate can be used, as it has been used, on a steam press to print 163,000 first-class impressions, a work requiring eight months, the evidence that it has not been subjected to a grinding process that would wear out or deface the lines of the engraving, and thus facilitate the work of the counterfeiter, would seem to be conclusive. Hence the only points in the controversy to be considered with seriousness are the real motives for the war upon steam presses and the consequences that would follow their abolition. The milk in the cocoanut is disclosed in the petition already mentioned. "Unless Congress interferes," says this document, "the attempt to force the steam presses upon the Government will succeed, and every kind of Government obligation will be printed on them, rapid cheap work being substituted for good but more costly work." It is the old opposition to labor-saving machinery. The desperate effort to drive steam presses out of the Bureau has its origin in the belief that it is the only way that the men now engaged on the hand presses can retain their places. Certain it is that no other class of people—no bankers, or merchants, or farmers, or mechanics—have raised this clamor against one of the valuable creations of modern civilization.

The success of the movement in behalf of retrogression would have meant great cost and serious trouble to the Government. The substitution of hand presses for steam presses would necessitate a large addition to the force of the Bureau. At least 170 plate-printers and 150 printers' assistants, besides other employees, would be required. The cost of the additional material would be over $84,000. In round numbers, the increase in the annual expenditures of the Bureau involved in the proposed change would be over $300,000. Large as this sum is, it does not include the entire cost of the blunder that Labor hoped to induce the Government to commit. The present building occupied by the Bureau is already filled to its utmost capacity, while the change would require the construction of a large addition or the rental and use of some private building, render valueless the steam presses now owned by the Government, and throw the work of the Bureau into confusion. It is to be hoped, therefore, on every account that the Senate will stand firm in opposing the Labor demagogues.

THE LAW OF LIBEL.

An effort is being made, both in Massachusetts and in this State, to bring about an amendment to the law of libel of the following tenor. We quote a section of the Massachusetts bill:

"No action or prosecution for libel shall be maintained for the publication of any matter of legitimate interest to the public, if such publication is made without actual malice, and if the author or publisher thereof causes effectual retraction or correction to be made of anything untrue or mistaken in such publication as soon as practicable after being requested so to do by any person aggrieved by the original publication."

The amendment is supported, both in Albany and in Boston, by the publishers of some of the leading newspapers in both States, with whose grievances under the existing law we fully sympathize, having had some experience of them. Actions for libel, where the libel is simply the result of accident or mistake, and where all possible atonement has been promptly offered, are unquestionably very frequent and vexatious. We know about them and have suffered from them ourselves. Nevertheless, we are bound to say that we do not think the best interests either of the community or the press would be served by the proposed change in the law, for a variety of reasons, which we shall endeavor to state in as inoffensive a way as possible.

(1.) The notion that any retraction or correction can be made "effectual," in the full and proper sense of the term, is illusory. A charge against a man is always more eagerly read than his explanation or defence. Moreover, it is not possible to make any retraction or apology cover the exact ground covered by the original charge. The two things inevitably go to some extent in different directions. Large numbers of people who see one are sure not to see the other. Papers which copy one will not copy the other—a very common experience. No doubt this is partly due to the careless way in which newspapers in our day are read; but for this it is the publisher and not the person libelled who ought to suffer, if anybody is to suffer. At any rate, there is sure to remain a residuum of unredressed wrong in every libel case, no matter what pains the libeller may take to set matters right. Doubtless in a very large number of cases, the newspaper proprietor ought not to be punished for this. It may be the result of one of those inevitable risks of his calling, just as the most careful driver may now and then run over a man in the street; but each case should be judged on its merits. The law ought not to be changed in any way that will diminish vigilance.

(2.) It is the more undesirable that the law should be changed in any way to diminish vigilance, because the direction in which the newspaper business is growing is almost altogether hostile to the rights of individuals in the matter of libel or libellous annoyance. In the trade, the doctrine is being more and more accepted that the sole function of the newspaper is to make money. This doctrine was indeed openly avowed at the convention of newspaper publishers here a fortnight ago. The older notion that the editor's rôle as an instructor or commentator was the most important one on a newspaper was scoffed at, and the early collection of whatever sort of matter would promote sales was set forth as the chief end of the newspaper publisher. Now, the enterprising publisher, intent on putting in whatever will sell his paper, is sure not to be very careful about the rights or feelings of individuals. It has been said before the Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature that he cannot sift things in "the small hours of the morning," just before his paper is going to press. Doubtless he cannot sift, but he can omit or hold over until he makes inquiries. What prevents his doing this now in any doubtful case, or makes him reluctant to do it, is the fear that a rival may "get a beat on him." The only thing which can overcome the fear of "a beat" is the fear of the law. Remove the fear of the law, and we venture to say little or no care would be exercised in examining any piece of news. Everything would go in when it was known that a few lines of apology or retraction would set any mistake to rights. Moreover, it is to be borne in mind that it is not the old and wise heads of the office who are apt to be on duty in the small hours of the morning. It is the young fellows, who dread of all things "getting left" with regard to any piece of news however trifling.

(3.) There is no sign of any change in journalism which tends to make legal restraint unnecessary. On the contrary, the changes are all in the other direction. The indifference to intellectual or moral influence, as compared to income, seems to grow. So does the tendency to seek topics of discussion in the personal or domestic life, and to eschew those of a more serious and general nature. Journalistic success is more and more measured in dollars and cents, and contempt for whatever interferes with this success is more and more openly avowed. This means that the power of the journal over the individual's comfort has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished.

The amendment in the law which is really called for is one which will protect journalists against sham suits—that is, suits brought for mere temporary effect on public opinion, and without any intention of prosecuting them to trial. These are numerous, and are a serious source of expense. When one is brought, a publisher has always to employ a lawyer and make more or less preparation for resistance, which inevitably costs a large part of $500, and, in fully seven cases out of ten, the prosecutor drops them after service of the opening process. What is needed here is the filing by the plaintiff at the outset, whether he be resident or non-resident, of ample security for costs—that is, costs which will really indemnify the defendants if the case never comes to trial. No man in this community who feels sufficiently aggrieved by a newspaper to desire honestly to lay his wrongs before a jury, ought to be debarred from doing so by any technical limitation. Whether the publisher's mistake was, under the circumstances, an excusable one, and whether he has sought to make proper atonement for it, are, like the extent of the damage the plaintiff has sustained, questions for a jury to pass on, with which juries as a general rule are eminently qualified to deal. It is an exceedingly rare thing to hear of a journalist suffering wrong at the hands of a court of law. On the other hand, the community swarms with men who suffer daily wrongs at the hands of journalists, which to some men are intolerable, with no remedy within reach which would not aggravate the pain and annoyance. It is these the lawgivers should keep in mind when legislating about the press, rather than the publishers, who are turning their tears and blushes into dollars and cents. There may come a time when the public will not need much protection from the press, but we are apparently further from it now than we were twenty-five years ago.

THE LONDON TIMES'S COLLAPSE.

When the London *Times* produced the Parnell letter in facsimile in March, 1887, we said of it, among other things, that "it would probably turn out to be a clumsy forgery like the Morey letter, and that its appearance was made doubly suspicious by the fact that it appeared on the very day on which a division was expected on the second reading of the Coercion Bill." This has proved to be a tolerably correct forecast. It now appears from the evidence of Mr. Macdonald, the manager of the *Times*, that the resolution to print the facsimile was taken very suddenly—that is, it was determined on a Saturday to print it on a Monday, and on Monday it appeared, and a division on the second reading—the crucial stage—of the Coercion Bill was expected to take place, and did take place, on that very night, April 18, 1887.

It further appears that when this facsimile was printed, for the purpose of influencing the opinion of the House of Commons on a measure of extraordinary severity directed against one portion of the United Kingdom, Mr. Macdonald, the manager, knew nothing of the origin of the letter, except what Mr. Houston told him, and Mr. Houston, who supplied it, knew nothing of it except what Mr. Pigott had told him, and Mr. Pigott was well known to be what we call in this country a "dead beat" of nearly twenty years' standing. This remarkable step, too, had been preceded by a formal announcement that Mr. Parnell's denial of the authenticity of the letter imputing to him complicity with assassins, would not have the slightest weight, and that nothing would induce the editor of the *Times* to say who gave him the letters, because, if he did, this person would surely be murdered. We believe this was the first case on record in which a person in good social standing (and not a blackmailer) produced a letter injurious to another man's character, and absolutely refused to state *all* his reasons for believing it to be genuine. Of course, in a case of this kind, the history of the letter is all-important. To withhold this history, while treating or using the letter as authentic, would in private life be considered infa-

mous. The fact that so many honorable and high-minded Englishmen were led by their hatred of the Irish party to acquiesce in the *Times's* view of its obligations, is perhaps as striking an argument in favor of Home Rule as the whole controversy has produced. It illustrates that state of the English mind on Irish questions which has made Irish history such a dismal tale.

The dénouement of the tragi-comedy which has since last November been dragging its slow length along before the Parnell Commission, came on Tuesday, in London, when Sir Charles Russell announced on the opening of the court that Pigott had confessed the forgery of the letters and had fled. He added, moreover, that he was prepared to prove that Pigott had been forging signatures to a greater or less extent since 1878, and that he had invested the money he got from the *Times*—some thousands of pounds—in an obscene-literature business. A warrant has accordingly been issued for Pigott's arrest, and at this writing the Attorney-General is in doubt whether he will proceed any further with the case. We do not need to point out the probable effect of all this on the fortunes of the London *Times*. The pecuniary loss, present and prospective, to that journal is of course enormous; the loss of confidence and influence is simply incalculable and certainly irremediable. In the hands of different men the paper might recover, but in those of its present managers it seems hopeless.

What is of most importance in the affair is its bearing on the fortunes of the present Ministry and on the Irish question. It is safe to say that any other Ministry which has held office since the passage of the Reform Bill, would have resigned at once under a blow of this kind, because the present Ministry has done everything it could to identify its fortunes with those of the *Times* in the pursuit of Parnell and his followers. The *Times* has been furnished with all the official documents it needed, with the assistance and testimony of all the police and magistrates and of the salaried Government spies like Le Caron, or Beach, and though last, not least, with the services of the Attorney-General as counsel. The powers of the court, too, were defined in the Act of Parliament which created it, in spite of the protests of the Liberals, in such a way, to suit the *Times*—that is, the field of inquiry was made so large, vague, and indefinite—that the framing of issues would be impossible, and judges would be unable to shut out any evidence on the ground of irrelevancy. Accordingly every crime and outrage committed in any county of Ireland was admitted as proof, more or less strong, in support of the thesis that the Irish members of Parliament were the accomplices of assassins, "moonlighters," and other offenders against persons or property. On top of them came the forged letters intended to show that Parnell was actually cognizant of and approved of the murders of Burke and Cavendish, and of the plot to murder Mr. Forster.

In legislating in this way for the benefit of the *Times*, the Ministry were undoubtedly giving a *quid pro quo*. When, after coquetting with the Irish in 1885, denouncing coercion, and half promising Home Rule, they found in 1886 that Gladstone's scheme was so unacceptable to the English constituencies that they could get a majority in the House without the help of the Irish, they fell back once more on the natural Tory plan of "resolute government" or "rigorous policy." In other words, they determined on a plan of coercion which should have certain novel features. One was, that the bill should be perpetual in its operation, and not limited in point of time, as all previous ones were; another was, that the power of imprisonment at hard labor as common felons under it should be given to removable justices of the peace, sitting without a jury, and that it should cover speeches or writings which should, in the eyes of these jurists, have a tendency to promote boycotting or non-payment of rent, or to prevent people from taking evicted farms. To get a bill like this passed, with the help of the Liberals who had deserted Gladstone, and large numbers of whom had pledged themselves on the stump against coercion and in favor of the government of Ireland by ordinary equal laws, of course was not an easy matter. Englishmen were not quite prepared for anything so drastic as putting it in the power of the Irish Secretary to thin the benches of the Opposition by shutting up the opponents of the Government in jail on plank beds. To carry it through, it was absolutely necessary that the Irish members should be made to figure in English eyes as common criminals, the friends and companions of assassins, so that public opinion should be prepared for any coercion bill, however ferocious.

This work the *Times* undertook by producing the pamphlet so widely known as 'Parnellism and Crime,' and by a series of articles on the Irish members, of extraordinary ferocity, in which they were really described as unfit for human society. When the Coercion Bill was ready for its second reading, facsimiles of the forged Parnell letters were produced on the morning before, and accepted by the supporters of the Government as genuine, and the bill went through with a rush. Parnell's indignant denial was received with derisive laughter, and the *Times* treated it as an aggravation of his crimes. English society then started that system of persecution in which a certain portion of it always delights. Not only were the Irish members treated as the vilest of their species, but a strict boycott was set on foot against everybody who associated with them. To have dined with Parnell or Healy entailed a sentence of exclusion from all Tory and Unionist drawing-rooms, and the "immorality" of the Home-Rulers became a favorite topic of semi-sacred journals like the *Spectator*, as well as of common secular Jingoes like the *Telegraph* and *Saturday Review*. Parnell—a very sick man—was pursued in city and country by reporters, who daily reported his movements as those of an escaped criminal, and threw out the most odious insinuations about his walk and conversation. In fact, it is not too much to say that the life of the Irish members in London during the past two years, under the baiting of the *Times*, has been as near an approach to "hell upon earth" as is possible in a well-policed Christian city. The bulk of them were men of the ordinary somewhat coarse type which peasants have to elect when they have but few gentlemen on their side; but Parnell, and Sexton, and Dillon, and others are men of education and refinement, on whose health and spirits these long-protracted social barbarities could not but tell. At last the day of reckoning has come, and the whole "fabric of iniquity," as Mr. Gladstone has called it, has fallen to pieces through the confessions of a forger, blackmailer, and vender of obscene literature. On this wretch, whom the conductors of the *Times* actually forebore to inquire about lest they should ruin their game, nine-tenths of the superstructure seems to have rested.

HOW THE WINTER PASSES IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, February 9, 1889.

THE position of affairs in Ireland claims peculiarly the careful attention of all interested in the government of civilized men. The field may be comparatively narrow, the people immediately concerned comparatively few, but on that field and among that people some of the most vital issues that can affect mankind are being tried, with a completeness that will leave no doubt for future generations as to the significance of the lessons illustrated. With a consensus such as few nations have ever before shown upon any question, by a proportion of 85 to 18 of her representatives—a proportion equally striking whether we consider population, area, or Government valuation represented—Ireland demands one thing, local self-government: no more than was granted with success to the separate States in your Union; less than was granted to the component parts of the German Empire; the one thing that might have kept the thirteen States united to Great Britain; the one thing without which Canada and Australia would long ago have severed the connection. This is denied to Ireland mainly because the island is not absolutely unanimous; and also in accordance with the views of a school of British politicians who hold that the desire for complete separation is inherent in the Irish, and that the only way to preserve the unity of the empire and its benefits to both parties is, to continue to coerce the weaker. The experiment is interesting and valuable, moreover, from the fact that it is approved by most of the Protestants here, who believe that force alone prevents their Catholic fellow-countrymen from reënacting St. Bartholomew's Day; it is approved by the mass of accumulated wealth and by some of the highest education of the country. As things were a century ago, such an experiment could not be so tried. The majority would rise against the minority, and would soon be decimated or suppressed by the mother country; the pot would either boil over or boil down. To-day, in accordance with more advanced ideas of humanity which cannot be wholly set aside, effective suppression is impossible, while the resources of modern civilization prevent even a transient

assertion of power by the majority. The minority can afford to openly scorn the majority as they never could have done formerly. Greater civilization saves us from a repetition of bygone horrors, and enables the elements of society fiercely opposed to exist side by side without active hostility, as without compromise or union.

For some months we have not progressed much, one way or the other; but all that has occurred illustrates the state of feeling to which I refer. The present is a hateful and intolerable conjuncture, subversive of true life and progress; yet, through all, society goes on much as usual, marrying and giving in marriage, attending balls, concerts, and art exhibitions. At political meetings and trials the people in Ireland are met and hustled about by the police, with a wanton barbarity and a display of force which seem intended only to exasperate. When they do not "clear out" or run away fast enough, like sheep, they are mercilessly bludgeoned, as at Carrick, on the occasion of Mr. O'Brien's trial and escape. I know that the Nationalist accounts of the transaction were little if at all exaggerated. We have the central incident of William O'Brien being knocked down by warders in his cell in Clonmel jail in presence of the Governor, his clothes torn off, and his hair and beard clipped while he was semi-unconscious from the struggle; we see him forced into the garb of a felon, and, later, when he had taken it off, left in his shirt, in the expectation that cold and misery would force him to resume it. William O'Brien is beloved by all who know him; he is regarded by millions of the Irish people in Ireland and by millions abroad with as much personal veneration as the English people accord their sovereign. Through suffering and abnegation, through long years of strife on behalf of the Irish, he has endeared himself to them as no one in modern times has endeared himself to the British people. When under arrest in Manchester, he was entertained by the Mayor and Mayoress, who lodged him in rooms last occupied by royalty. A few days later occurred the disgraceful scene in Clonmel jail. At the worst crisis, when the life of O'Brien was felt to be in hourly danger, the Lord Mayor of Dublin, aware that a telegram by Government messenger is the only means by which he can certainly reach Mr. Balfour, the Governor of Ireland, telegraphed an indignant protest, demanding a reply. None comes. He waits till late at night, and then despatches a letter by hand to the Chief Secretary's lodge. Mr. Balfour's secretary addresses the messenger, a Mansion House official of forty-six years' standing, as an "impudent rascal"; says, "It is merely humbugging, and if you come here again later on I will give you into the custody of the police"; then, to the police on guard outside the door—"Why did you allow him to come down here? If that impudent rascal comes here again this morning, you will take him into custody." I quote Mr. Balfour's own modified version of the incident.

Next day some one hundred and fifty Irish admirers of the Chief Secretary entertained him at dinner. The gathering was supposed to be "Liberal Unionist." The names of those present were not given to the press. Among the ninety "got at" and published by the *Freeman*, I counted seventeen Crown Prosecutors and others in Government employment. Some of the best men in Dublin were there—that is the serious part of the business. The press was excluded. Mr. Balfour made a long speech. An official report was sent to the papers, and in it "prolonged laughter," "renewed laughter," "roars of laughter," "laughter and applause," "laughter and loud applause," are noted as greeting remarks about the treatment of Mr. O'Brien and the reception of the Lord Mayor's messenger at the Chief Secretary's lodge.

The following day, Sunday, some two hundred and fifty protest meetings were held over Ireland. I attended one in a remote district, considered so comparatively unimportant that no newspaper reporters were present. It was a bitter winter's day. The district had been scoured from early morning by armed police patrols, so as to secure that no meeting should be attempted without their presence. Three Government reporters were in readiness with swift conveyances, in case more than one meeting should be held. On the field was drawn up a dark file of constabulary, shivering and sullen, an officer with his sword standing in front, as in pictures of a "line of battle" before going into action. Some thousand or two eager, bright-faced peasants listened to the speakers. John Bright once said that the British Government could put an armed man down beside each Irish civilian. Is it coming to that? Twenty-six of the Catholic archbishops and bishops joined in a "solemn protest" against the shameful indignities and "inhuman violence" inflicted on Mr. O'Brien. At all this the "sweetness and light" of Ireland thought it could afford to scoff. The *Daily Express*, the organ of what considers itself the cultivated public opinion of Ireland, wrote: "William O'Brien, M. P. for West Cork, is no less a criminal than any corner-boy who has been sent to jail for breaking a street-lamp in a drunken row. That is the plain fact of the matter. . . . We care no more for the political opinions of the twenty-six archiepiscopal signatories . . . than they care for ours. . . . There is now no reason, if indeed there ever was any, for making distinctions of persons. The hierarchy and priesthood in Ireland who signed the manifesto have declared themselves the enemy of law and order."

And so the minority here could continue safely to defy the feelings and opinions of the majority—that is the key to the whole Irish question— and William O'Brien would be still perishing in his shirt, but for the indignant and noble protests of the English people, a token of that sympathy with which our cause is now regarded across the Channel, drawing together the hearts of two peoples, the surest augury of some termination to the present intolerable condition of affairs, the strongest incentive to patience on our part, the best assurance that any reasonable settlement accepted and confirmed will be loyally adhered to in the interests of union and the Irish minority.

A noteworthy event is the arrest and committal to prison at Limerick on Wednesday of Mr. Reeves, a Conservative newspaper reporter. It is a striking illustration of how a repressive system of government tends to draw into the vortex of opposition many who would most desire to live peaceably. Some of the worst landlord tyranny in Ireland has been practised upon Mr. Delmege's Glensharrold estate in the County of Limerick. The particulars are fully given in a pamphlet written after a personal investigation by Alfred E. Pease, M.P., a wealthy Englishman, a member of the Society of Friends. The estate fell into Chancery. Some of the tenants obtained relief through the land courts, rents of £110 being reduced to £75; £20 to £13; £24 to £14; £39 to £24; £3.17.0 to £2.10.0, and so on. But many tenants burdened with heavy arrears could obtain no relief; adoption of the "Plan" was their only resource. Among others Mr. Pierce Mahony, M.P., a Protestant, an estated gentleman, and a refined, educated man, one of the Parliamentary party, attended a meeting of the tenants, and advised them to hold together in their combination. For this an attachment was issued against him by the receiver. On coming to the point it was discovered that, through some unaccountable negligence, no Government reporter had been present at the meeting, and there was no evidence of what Mr. Mahony had said. However, the presiding judge, Boyd, one of the strongest upholders of the present régime, was not to be balked. He sent for Mr. Reeves, a Conservative gentleman, who was known to have reported the meeting for his paper, and demanded that he should give evidence. Mr. Reeves demurred, urging that reporters were to a certain extent privileged, that the position they are accorded largely depends on their maintaining an independent attitude, and that this position would be forfeited if it were known that they were prepared to turn their opportunities to account as eavesdroppers for Government or people. On this Mr. Reeves, for contempt of court, has been committed to prison for an indefinite period. Our judges are not so punctilious as to their independence. We read in fashionable intelligence that on Monday, in the height of popular indignation regarding Mr. O'Brien's treatment, "Mr. Balfour was the guest of Chief Baron Palles at his Lordship's house. Some twenty-five other guests attended." D. B.

THE OLD MASTERS AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, February 4.

THE exhibition at Burlington House this winter is especially interesting on account of the splendid examples of Rembrandts gathered together in the long gallery. We have fourteen examples from this great master's hand, painted at different times, in the various stages of his artistic development. We recognize the earlier manner, in which he seemed to seek merely the realization of the sitter, in the portrait of the painter's mother (164), from Sir Richard Wallace's collection—a three-quarter figure of an old lady dressed in black silk, against a gray background, looking towards the spectator. This canvas is dated 1632; and in "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," dated a year later (No. 167), we see the same precision of touch, the same firm modelling and clear bright color in the flesh tints, with shadows golden and transparent in their depths. This latter picture, lent by the Queen from the Buckingham Palace collection, is said to be the first work of art ever sold in England for the sum of five thousand pounds. This detail does not add to its interest, which is extreme for itself, the subject being so vividly represented. The shipbuilder is seated to the left of the spectators, near a window, and is evidently much engrossed with a design he is just drawing. Books, papers, and an inkstand are on a table beside him. He has been roughly called from the subject of his study by the good housewife, whom we see just coming in through a door she holds open. She is handing him a letter over the back of his chair, he is turning to take it. One can see by his expression the interruption is unwelcome, and that he is only half giving his attention to the fussy little lady in white cap and collar and black dress, who seems to be the very personification of stern reality and household cares. The man's dress is black with a white ruff. Although the picture is so sober in its colors, having only black and white and

brown besides the flesh tints, it is full of color and richness and depth of tone. The arrangement of the whole thing is so spontaneous that it strikes one as a lucky piece of nature the painter has come across and realized with a magic brush. The woman's expression is quite wonderfully living; her impatient, rather querulous attitude of handing the letter suggests to the modern mind an oft-presented bill. The shipbuilder's hand resting on his paper is so real one thinks almost he could grasp the warm soft fingers. In this work, as in his mother's portrait, the painting is very smooth and simple throughout, without that appearance of dashing brush work which characterizes later productions. It is as if the master wished to produce an illusion of reality, and to make us forget the vehicle; and the reality is indeed before us, besides so much more which only the best art can give.

Another portrait contributed by the Queen is that of a lady who has, if we mistake not, been once before on these walls some fourteen years ago. In this picture we see that Rembrandt could paint a handsome woman with as much skill as an old one. The lady holds a golden delicately worked fan in her right hand, and with the left she grasps the frame of an open window. The flesh glows throughout in a golden haze, as if the figure were standing in a sunset light, and the eyes, very beautifully rendered, look towards us; the cheek's tender modelling and the half-smiling lips give the impression of a day dream. The black dress is laced in front across a white satin dress richly embroidered with gold, and a long collar of delicate lace covers the shoulders and falls in points in front. The lady has three rows of pearls round her neck, and sleeves of lace on her arms; the figure relieves itself on a dark background. Every detail of the embroidery and of the lace is wrought out carefully, but with proper subordination to the face. The brush work is very masterly, and freer than in the examples described above. The name of the original of this beautiful portrait is not known. The work is signed and dated 1641.

Of Rembrandt himself we have two portraits —No. 159, in a dark-blue cap and fur collar, over which hangs a gold chain, which his gloved hand holds. This head is very like many other portraits he did of himself, and not as highly finished or as interesting as that in the National Gallery; but a very brilliant example of his latest manner is the larger than life figure of the painter in his old age, dressed in a Jewish gabardine and broad-brimmed black hat, holding a stick in his hand. This painting, No. 157, seems to be the fullest expression of masterly and facile execution, a very feast of color and of dexterous touches. He has revelled in reproducing the bright costume, evidently a studio property, and his own misshapen and rather bloated features in all their ugliness and unshapeliness. 1653 is the date affixed, eleven years before the painter's death, and one cannot help being fascinated by the complete mastery and originality of the painting of this work, although the earlier period seems, after all, the more desirable, and what will remain to show future generations how great the work of Rembrandt is in its broad simplicity.

Of Rubens, we have the portrait of Thomas Howard, Earl of Arundel and Surrey, known as the first collector of works of art in England. He is turning towards us, clad in armor, a blue sash across his shoulder, and a gold chain of some order round his neck. The head is a very handsome one, and is finely painted, as also the armor; but the arrangement of helmet and plume behind him, and the architectural background is mechanical, and does not suit the head. "The Marriage of Mars and Venus," a large composition of landscape and figures, is interesting to painters because unfinished, and shows Rubens's method of painting on a gray ground.

The Romney portrait of Henrietta, Countess of Warwick, and her children is extremely fine, one of the most completely satisfactory groups of this painter of graceful ladies. The Countess, a very beautiful person, with a curly erection of soft auburn hair falling in ringlets on her shoulders, is dressed in white satin, which is painted with a great deal more care and finish than usual with Romney. She is sitting in a crimson chair; her right arm is round the waist of her little daughter, who looks in her face. The boy stands a little way from her, hoop in hand, looking out of the picture. They are surrounded by landscape and architectural background to suit, according to the eighteenth-century tradition for family groups. Besides the inevitable Lady Hamilton, who, in the picture lent by A. de Rothschild, is not so bewitching as in other examples, we have by Romney a very fine portrait of the actress Miss Mellon, also a lovely face, with a character of its own. She is seated facing us almost full face, and wears a white dress open in front, showing neck and arms, round which a fur boa is twisted, which very effectively brings a dark note of color into the picture. The head is relieved against a pale gray-blue sky and distant landscape. The painting is very masterly—the graceful pose and light color of the whole are so appropriate. Another interesting head by the same master is of Mrs. Trimmer, the authoress of several educational works.

The most exceptional display of works of the rare master Antony Watteau is one of the principal features of this exhibition. They are exhibited in Gallery No. 2, and for the most part belong to Sir Richard Wallace and Mr. Alfred Rothschild. "Le rendez-vous de Chasse" and "The Garden Party" are the principal pictures in size, both 50x75 inches, and very fine examples. We have in the latter a wooded park with graceful groups of figures among the trees. In the foreground, a lady offers flowers to her companions seated on the grass; children are playing with a dog, and there are dancers with music beyond. In the landscape there is a delightful atmosphere and space, a suggestion of enjoyment of the present in the daintily dressed ladies, in bright satin sacques of tender hue, and their attendant chevaliers. Everything tells of ease and luxury and refinement. The eighteenth-century pastoral grace, which is as far removed from robust nature in Watteau's painting as in Metastasio's and Guarini's verses, has its own peculiar charm, and we have before us its happiest expression in these paintings, so exquisite in color and easy in execution. We are told that Watteau painted much in the Luxemburg Gardens, and studied Rubens to educate his eye for color. However this may be, his own intuitions never erred in this respect, and the smaller canvases, "Sérénade Italienne," "Masquerade," "Harlequin and Columbine," are all gems of pure bright color.

Examples, and very fine ones, of Claude, Greuze, Lancret, are also here, besides Van der Neer, Van der Velde, Van Ostade, and other Dutch masters. No room has been devoted this year to the early Italians, but, although they generally attract most attention, the rooms are so full of interesting works one cannot complain of their exclusion for once. For students of realistic landscape painting nothing can be more useful than a careful contemplation of J. Constable's "View on the Stour near Dedham," a very characteristic river landscape, full of movement and local color. One feels the damp marshy land, the watery sky, the winding river with its bridge, its barges being towed along, its cottages and people, are all essentially English. The painting is vigorous, splendid in execution and finish, yet so broad, although full of detail. Constable was evidently the first of the Impressionists.

The Water-Color Room has been devoted entirely to Turner's drawings. Besides the well-known large water-colors of Florence, Heidelberg, Stirling Castle, "Falls of the Clyde," etc., we have the entire collection of Mr. Fawkes, now for the first time framed and exposed to the light. These fifty-one sketches were done during a fortnight on the Rhine in 1819. Turner was absent from England for three weeks only, and on his return went straight from Rotterdam via Hull to the house of his friend, Mr. Fawkes, at Farnley Hall;

"and it is well remembered," says the catalogue, "by those still living that, on his arrival, he took from his coat pocket a roll of paper tied with a string, which, on being unfolded, displayed to the astonishment of all present these studies. They were made on paper originally white, but which Turner stained gray by passing it through a dish filled with the tint he required. This enabled him to wash and scrape out lights, and aided the marvellous power and rapidity with which he always worked. Body color is also freely used, as was his custom when working on tinted paper. Mr. Fawkes purchased the drawings, and they have been always kept in a special case; but the present owner, Mr. Ayscough Fawkes, has kindly allowed them to be temporarily framed and exhibited together."

Two rooms are devoted entirely to the portraits and subject pictures of the late Frank Holl, R.A., whose sudden death this summer, at the most successful moment of his career, caused so much regret among his brother Academicians, who hold him in very high repute as a painter, and felt especially proud of him as a man who developed his talent in England and at the Academy school. His sitters were from among the most distinguished personages of our time, and most of these portraits now before us have been in prominent positions on the line in Royal Academy exhibitions of recent years. The most admired are Earl Spencer, the Duke of Cleveland, Sir G. O. Trevelyan, the Rev. E. H. Cradock, Principal of Brasenose, Oxford, in doctor's gown, the Prince of Wales in black gown with insignia of the Garter, William Agnew, the great picture dealer, Lord Wolseley, John Bright, M.P., and many others. A careful survey of this collection fills one with wonder at the great reputation Frank Holl enjoys, and also convinces us that the impression made by seeing so much of his work together is not advantageous. One reason would be that the portraits are those of men; there is only one woman's portrait among them, and the treatment of men of ripe age in nineteenth-century garments could not be very inspiring. Holl has not even attempted to compose a background for most of them, and the heads, in rather forced effect of strong light and shade, are mostly relieved by a very dark brown background.

The qualities which are admirable are the excellent firm drawing, the simplicity of pose, always natural, the good modelling, and in most cases the likeness. Of artistic treatment and effect, and agreeable workmanship, there is none. Frank Holl was evidently not a poetic nature, and had very little taste; and although comparisons are always odious, we cannot help recalling that Rembrandt, who painted plain old ladies in the black and white costumes they wore in his time, and ill-favored men often,

and was very much given to brown backgrounds, produced effects which delight us, and which remain for all time enviable works of art. We very much doubt whether, two centuries hence, any one will desire to purchase as an object he wishes to gaze on for mere pleasure, not knowing the name of the original, any one of the portraits of Holl. Sir John Millais says, in some article recently published, that the old masters owe much of their glamour to age, and that the moderns will thus have a chance later on. It is true that the white paint acquires through time and varnish a delightful creaminess; but beyond this a picture which is inharmonious in color cannot become good by being darkened in tone.

The subject pictures of Frank Holl are especially native of the soil. No other city but London could have suggested their melancholy notes, or offered such types of misery and squalor. Take, for instance, "Want: the Pawnbroker's Shop," "Ordered to the Front," in which a group of soldiers in highland uniform are taking leave of their wives and children at a railway station; "The First-Born," in which the parents, an old man and boy, are following a child's funeral in a village churchyard; "Newgate: Committed for Trial," "Leaving Home," besides very many funerals in different churchyards, of young and old. Even Holl's friends and greatest admirers admit that he seemed to wish to illustrate every phrase of the funeral service. Notwithstanding their lugubrious subjects and a rather heavy treatment, accompanied by color always gray and unpleasant, these pictures were eagerly purchased at the time they were painted; it is evident they appealed strongly to the public taste. Sir Frederick Leighton himself did not scruple to tell us at Liverpool, two months ago, at the Congress there, that the English have no taste in matters of art, and he took some pains to prove it; yet he referred with admiration to the work of Holl, and deplored his loss as one of the most promising artists in the Academy, and of whom all Englishmen should feel proud.

Correspondence.

BENJAMIN VAUGHAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Mr. Hale's recent volume on Franklin, you speak of the conflicting estimates concerning the ability and character of Benjamin Vaughan and his services during the peace negotiations of 1782. You are quite correct in adding that the matter is not very material; but it may be of some passing interest to add a few facts not generally known concerning the part taken by a man so variously estimated.

Benjamin Vaughan, at the time of the peace negotiations, was a young man of about thirty. His father was an Englishman, his mother an American. He was connected by marriage with Laurens, and became a friend of Franklin through their mutual scientific interests. Through these relations with two of the negotiators he became connected, in a lesser way, with certain steps of the peace negotiations throughout the whole time of their transaction. He went to Paris early in July, 1782, to use his good offices, as a friend of Dr. Franklin, in allaying any suspicions concerning the sincerity of Lord Shelburne's desire for a lasting peace on liberal terms. He went at Lord Shelburne's express request, but he went as a friend of both parties, to do what it might chance to fall to him to do in smoothing the way for peace, rather than as a regular agent of Lord Shelburne. He was offered an official position by Lord Shelburne, but declined it, partly in order, as he stated, that he might be more free to act as it seemed to him would most promote peace. He was at no time "in the pay" of the British Government, as stated by Mr. Bancroft, having refused to receive any pay, or even the reimbursement of the expenses of his various long visits to Paris. Nor was he in any proper sense the "agent" of Mr. Jay. The correspondence indicates that Vaughan would have gone to London in any event, even had he not been requested by Jay to do so, for on September 9th, writing to Lord Shelburne of Rayneval's proposed visit to England, he begs him to "take no sort of measures till one of us comes over"—by this meaning apparently either Oswald or himself. As to the interview with Lord Shelburne to which Mr. Hale attaches so little, and Mr. Jay so much, importance, it was in the line of the long letter of September 11th, written by Vaughan to Lord Shelburne just before leaving for London, and sent in advance by one of the couriers. What Vaughan was able to do at this interview was probably only in confirmation of what he had written, that "under this commission I see they will not act," and "America must have a character"; and "if this moment is rudely managed, or slightly passed over, I conceive peace in consequence takes its flight, and that America will be hurried back into war at a moment when they have so ripened things that three hours would make you friends again."

Though sometimes displeased with his course, Shelburne requested him on at least four different occasions during the negotiations to go to Paris to attempt to facilitate the negotiations; and since Franklin stated to Vaughan "more than once," at the time of executing the preliminary articles, that "but for his letters and conversations" on the subject of the refugees, he "should not have given his assent to the refugee part of the treaty," his services may have been of some value. His position as a friend of both parties was unquestionably a difficult one; but that he filled it properly is best shown by the fact that his private correspondence shows him to have retained till old age the personal friendship of both Jay and Franklin as well as of Lord Shelburne, the actors on both sides most familiar with his course. G. H.

PEWS AND CLERGY IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Anderson, in writing on newspaper inaccuracy, opens a theme that would never be closed from lack of material. In an editorial of the New York *Times* for February 15, on the difficulty that strangers find in getting seats in St. Thomas's, it is asserted that "in countries where there is an established church the rights of pewholders do not arise." Prussia has an established church; yet when in Hanover last winter, I several times accompanied my landlady to her church, and always found, as in St. Thomas's, the aisles filled by a standing throng, and the rights of the pewholders guarded more ruthlessly than in the American church, for the pew doors were locked, and each seatholder brought his (more usually *her*) key, and on passing into the pew closed the door after him. With German thrift, only one or two sittings are taken by a family, so each pew back had a line of china labels bearing the names of its several occupants, and the various holders scrupulously placed themselves in the foot or two of space allotted each. A portion of the church was also set aside for the families of the bureaucracy of the parish. My landlady seemed to regard the ownership of a seat as a luxury, and was quite content to take her chance when, at a late hour, the doors were unlocked for such as could find places on the unoccupied benches; but as the preacher was a popular one, the large majority of the non-pewholders were obliged to stand through the entire service.

Pewholdings also exist in the Church of England. An English lady lamented to me the difficulty of getting a sitting in Canon Duckworth's Church, London, for which she paid, I believe, a guinea and a half. And we remember, in that dreary-pathetic sketch of a few years ago, 'Miss Toosey's Mission,' how the gentle old maid resolved to save another guinea for her heathen by giving up the sitting she had so many years occupied in church, and placing herself among the poor on the free benches.

I never entered a German church without being struck by the middle-class air of preacher and people. The ministry, albeit an established one, by no means holds the social position which it does in England. A Frau Professorin expressed great surprise to me that a son of the Marquis of Salisbury should be in holy orders —"it was very noble in the *Adel* to be willing thus to work—but," she added, after a pause of reflection, "in England the Church offers a career." A member of the class who bear *von* before their names, corresponding, one may say, to the gentry of England, rarely, if ever, enters the Protestant ministry of Prussia, and no pastor ever wins for himself that predicate. The livings are, from a German middle-class point of view, reasonably well endowed, and, like all German official positions, accompanied by a pension, and in some cases by a dowager house; yet a few years ago there was such a scarcity of young ministers that the Government was obliged to increase the emoluments, and even yet, I believe, this profession offers the quickest road to a competence.

I was told that the pay of an officer, until he reaches the rank of captain, is insufficient for his support without parental subsidies; yet, as a young fellow said, it is only in the army that laurels are won, so the aspiring youth press into its ranks, when social prestige enables them to win the dowered maidens whom alone they woo, or, indeed, under army regulations, can woo. This social prestige of the military is "worked for all it is worth" in Prussia. I noticed how completely the offices of the burgher class form its élite; between them and the professions or bureaucracy is the same difference as in pre-Revolutionary France existed between *l'épée* and *la robe*. I. C. N.

Cincinnati.

GERMAN PROGRAMMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Aside from the question of cataloguing these productions, I am not inclined to dismiss them as of little value. Doubtless many of them were perfunctory performances, but, on the other hand, many are still of the highest value. Nothing is more common in editions of classic authors than references to "an instructive programme of A," or "the valuable contribution of B." There are numerous references to them in Hübner's guides to Bibliography; one—Bernhardt's "De Cicerone Græcæ philosophiæ interprete," published originally in Berlin in 1865—has, I think, been reprinted. The very fact that they are still published voluntarily would seem to show that they fill a want. On the commercial side, a Leipzig bookhouse publishes annually a special catalogue of them.

It would be an interesting problem to discover what influence the publishing of these programmes has had in stimulating and developing German scholarship. I have long thought that something of the kind might be introduced with profit in our American institutions of learning. Our young scholars, who are teachers also, are certainly not doing the original work, in philology at least, that ought to be done; yet it is very possible that such work has been done which has not seen the light, nor will see it in the present condition of things. The programme system supplies a stimulus and a means of publication—surely no mean advantages, whatever weakness the custom may have. W. A. MERRILL.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY, February 18, 1889.

SUUM CUIQUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have lately been reading with considerable interest some 'Essays on the English Poets,' by James Russell Lowell, which are published in "The Camelot Series" by Walter Scott, London. At page 235, in the essay on Wordsworth, Mr. Lowell writes: "Many of Wordsworth's later poems seem like rather unsuccessful efforts to resemble his former self. They would never, as Sir John Harrington says of poetry, 'keep a child from play, and an old man from the chimney-corner.'" A note adds, "In the preface to his translation of the 'Orlando Furioso.'"

Sir John Harrington was born in 1561 and died in 1612. The dates of Sir Philip Sidney's birth and death are November 29, 1554, and October 17, 1586. The "Orlando Furioso: Translated into Heroicall English Verse" was published in 1591, and Sir Philip Sidney's "Apologie for Poetrie" in 1595, nine years after his death. But, according to Hallam, it was probably written about 1581; and Edward Arber, in his reprint in 1868 of the *editio princeps*, says: "The date usually given for the composition of the 'Apologie for Poetrie,' viz., 1581, may be taken as approximately correct." At page 40 of the reprint, in Sidney's description of "our Poet the Monarch," we read: "Hee commeth to you with words sent in delightfull proportion, either accompanied with, or prepared for the inchaunting skill of Musicke; and with a tale forsooth he commeth unto you; with *a tale which holdeth children from play, and old men from the chimney corner.*"

From the dates given above, I think it most probable that Sir John borrowed from Sir Philip the words quoted by Mr. Lowell, which he must have seen in Sidney's manuscript, unless, indeed, they happened to be a saying in common use at the time. Of this I am not aware that we have at present any proof.

Permit me to add to this note an instance in which Mr. Lowell's memory has undoubtedly played him false. In the first note to No. 4 of the first series of the 'Biglow Papers,' Mr. Lowell writes: "We might well exclaim with Austin (if a saint's name may stand sponsor for a curse), *Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerint.*" Here the subjunctive *dixerint* is unnecessarily substituted for the indicative *dixerunt* of the original saying, and the words, moreover, are incorrectly ascribed to a saint. Mr. Lowell is so well read that he must surely have met with a charming book, which is now lying before me, viz., 'An Essay on the Genius and Writings of Pope,' by Joseph Warton, D.D. (5th edit., London, 1806). At page 88 of vol. i, Warton says: "St. Jerome relates that his preceptor, Donatus, explaining that sensible passage in Terence, 'Nihil est dictum quod non sit dictum prius,' railed severely at the ancients for taking from him his best thoughts—'Pereant, qui ante nos nostra dixerunt.'" In a note on this passage Warton refers to "Ante-Baillet, tom. ii, p. 207." The original anecdote may be found in Jerome's 'Exposition of Ecclesiastes,' 1, 9, and is as follows: "Comicus ait: Nihil est dictum, quod non dictum sit prius. Unde præceptor meus, Donatus, cum ipsum versiculum exponeret; Pereant, inquit, qui ante nos nostra dixerunt."

It may be further noticed that the saint has not quoted quite accurately the line of the comic poet. The actual words of Terence (Eun. Prolog. 41) are: "Nullum est jam dictum quod non sit dictum prius." Jerome's preceptor was, of course, Ælius Donatus, the grammarian and commentator on Virgil and Terence, who "flourished" in the fourth century.

I remain, sir, yours faithfully,

GEO. MURRAY.

65 AYLMER STREET, MONTREAL, February 17, 1889.

LANCIANI'S ANCIENT ROME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his note on the book of Prof. Lanciani, Prof. Platner, referring to a slip in the author's translation of Pliny, says: "The charge has sometimes been brought against archæologists that their classical scholarship is deficient;" and he is no doubt quite correct. There is also no doubt that the charge is sometimes well founded not only against archæologists, but against others who follow classical studies. We have heard of historians who blundered as badly as an archæologist, and with less excuse, if excuse can be. But for a working archæologist there does seem to me to be a better apology than for some others, as his attention is necessarily largely given to the practical investigations which furnish his peculiar material; and to men who are for the greater part of their time absorbed in the study of *things*, *books* fade into the distance. When a man is, for any reason, obliged to forego the just relation between classical study and actual archæological work, he sacrifices the one or the other; and when, like Lanciani, he is incessantly occupied with the work of a large province of great interest, he may be pardoned if sometimes Pliny and Herodotus become somewhat vague memories, and the version of them which remains in the worker's mind is somewhat distorted, and such as the scholar who has always his book in hand may justly characterize as due to "carelessness or ignorance of the Latin language," though it is really a distortion by memory of a passage well known or read long ago.

Prof. Haynes's criticism is, I believe, absolutely correct and merited, as no doubt Lanciani himself will admit on consideration. He has been so long devoted closely to the limited but extremely important field of Roman investigation, that he has not collated the finds in that district with those lately made in other provinces of Italy—fields intrusted to other workers. To cover the whole ground of the present Italian researches would be impossible without sacrificing something of the thoroughness of his work in his own field of Roman research; but he certainly should have known that in certain tombs of an earlier date than those he treats of there have been found objects of iron. I am inclined to think that it was carelessness rather than another cause that led him to the statement in fault, for he must have known that in the earliest tombs thus far discovered at Tarquinia there are iron implements, and that these tombs cannot be, according to Helbig (whose authority no one will deny), later than 900 B. C., while the date is by some Italian archæologists put still further back, and the foundation of Rome is not, even according to Lanciani, so remote. So far as I know, we have no necropolis in Italy in which iron is not found, though there have recently been found some, very extensive, in the western part of Sicily, in which no metal whatever occurs. But we must, I imagine, go much further back than the archaic Italian tombs to get beyond the use of iron, for the earliest Italic myths (which are only tradition crystallized) furnish Vulcan with a forge and make him hammer out the thunderbolts; and this can only relate to the use of iron, as bronze is not worked on the anvil, but hammered cold or cast.

Prof. Haynes's reference to the stone axe used in the sacrifice may be reinforced by the modern custom of the eastern Jews, of using a splinter of flint for circumcision; and I may add, as another illustration, that in certain parts of Sicily the husbandman has a superstition about the use of an iron ploughshare. The lack of iron in the Albano-Roman tombs, when it is found in the contemporary graves elsewhere in Italy, does, however, seem to me a strong confirmation of the Alban origin of Rome, though it does not help Lanciani otherwise.—Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

GIRGENTI, SICILY, February 9, 1889.

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & CO. are about to publish in New York and London a volume of poems by T. W. Higginson, entitled 'The Afternoon Landscape,' and dedicated to Mr. Lowell. It includes a number of translations, from Sappho's Ode to Aphrodite and from the sonnets of Petrarch and Camoens. The same firm announce further an autobiographic tale of Monmouth's rebellion, 'Micah Clarke: his Statement.'

'Janus,' a musical novel, by Edward Irenæus Stevenson, is in the press of Belford, Clarke & Co.

'Shall We Teach Geology?' by Prof. Alexander Winchell, to be published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, is a contribution to the perennial discussion over the claims of science and the humanities respectively to precedence in a practical education.

In the current issue of Mr. J. H. Hickcox's Monthly Catalogue of U. S. Publications, we read that the Printing Committee of the House has reported in favor of the Government's publishing a posthumous work by Gen. Emory Upton, viz., a complete analysis of the military records of the United States from the beginning of the Revolution to 1862, with a chapter on the military policy of the Confederate States.

We welcome the new volume of the 'Co-operative Index to Periodicals,' for 1888 (New York, 330 Pearl St.). It is longer by six pages than the corresponding Index for 1887. Not only have we here a clue to what is best in English and American periodical literature, but, as we have before remarked, the notable books and the notable personages of the year, even the chief art exhibitions—in short, what the cultivated world is talking about—is here reflected in reviews and obituaries. Moreover, we get a conspectus of the picked writers of the day, whose names are appended (when known) to their several articles, and are gathered up into an author-index filling thirty-four pages.

We observe with pleasure that Prof. Melvin M. Bigelow's 'Elements of the Law of Torts'

has reached the honor of an English edition. It appears, in a very attractive form, from the University Press at the English Cambridge, where it has for some time been a text-book.

To the valuable collections of cases prepared for the use of students of law at Harvard University there are now added two volumes of 'Select Cases and Other Authorities on the Law of Property,' by Prof. Gray, and two volumes of 'Cases on the Law of Quasi-Contracts,' by Prof. Keener. Teachers and students of law will wish to know of these careful compilations. Both are published by Charles W. Sever, Cambridge.

As an excellent companion to Reinach's 'Manuel de Philologie,' we call the attention of classical scholars to the following work, 'La Lingua Greca Antica: Breve Trattazione comparativa e storica, di Domenico Pezzi' (Turin: Ermanno Loescher, 1888). In eighty pages of preliminary matter the progress of Greek studies, in grammar and lexicography especially, is traced from the Alexandrian period down to the present decade. The rest of the work is divided into two parts (pp. 81-308, 309-474). Part 1, "Il panellenismo glottico," is devoted (*a*) to phonology, concluding with a section on accent, in which the opposing views of Drs. Bloomfield and Wheeler are considered, and (*b*) to the significant elements of Greek words, under which are treated the inflexions and their significations. Part 2 treats of the Greek dialects, giving for every dialect the most important documents, with appropriate bibliographical remarks, and then the more prominent characteristics of each, with examples. As is the case with Reinach's work, fully half of this book consists of foot-notes, presenting an excellent bibliography of the various subjects treated, making it a most valuable work of reference. We miss, however, the capital index that crowns the French scholar's Manual, though a full table of contents enables the seeker to find the various subjects that are discussed.

Another pictorial Cæsar, or fragment of Cæsar—his seventh campaign in Gaul, B. C. 52 (De Bello Gallico, Lib. vii.)—edited for school use by W. Cookworthy Compton and published in London by Geo. Bell & Sons, merits the attention of teachers. Mr. Compton has made the tour of the principal places of the narrative, accompanied by an artist who contributes slight but sufficient topographical sketches. Numerous maps are borrowed from Kampen, and these, with the pictures of scenery, modes of warfare, etc., are well calculated to interest the student and to aid him in his understanding of the text. There is also a list of constantly recurring idioms, which the editor judiciously recommends committing to heart.

The sixth volume of the *Forum* shows the usual variety of topics discussed or questions asked—the interrogative heading being, not inappropriately, a favorite. Labor receives a good proportion of attention, and rather more than any other subject or interest. The South, railroads, the tariff, education, annexation of Canada, the Chinese, are other prominent subjects. Mr. Edward Atkinson has oftenest had the floor. Other well-known names are Vámbéry, Goldwin Smith, Andrew Lang, James Parton, G. W. Cable, Max O'Rell, Andrew D. White, Jules Verne, etc.; and it was in this volume of the *Forum* that Mr. Edmund Gosse raised the question whether America had ever begotten a poet.

The bound *Critic* for 1888 makes two volumes, in whose contents we discern nothing unusual for comment. The "Authors at Home" series reaches No. 28 with Mr. R. H. Stoddard.

The 'Universal Atlas, Geographical, Astronomical, and Historical,' published at 19 Park Place by Geo. F. Cram, is a poor production, cartographically considered, and at most can only be recommended for rough reference. It contains a good deal of statistical matter, but none that might not more safely be sought elsewhere.

A *Gedenkbuch* has been made up for sale at and for the benefit of the German Hospital Fair in this city. Distinguished German and American authors have combined to furnish autographic sentiments, poems, etc., and a certain number of sketches by well-known artists has been interspersed with the facsimiles. Carl Schurz's address at the opening of the Fair introduces this souvenir.

The Georgia Historical Society celebrated at Savannah on February 12 its fiftieth anniversary, with good spirit and much satisfaction over what has been gained in reanimation and endowment since the war. It represents a force much needed not only at the South but in every part of the Union. Of very few even of the best of those now existing can it be said that they subserve any other purpose than that of a museum of books and relics. They hardly enter into the life of the community or of the age.

Georgia's leading living historian, Col. Charles C. Jones, was unable to share in the Historical Society's festivity. A portrait of him, with a biographical sketch and extracts from his numerous works, is given in *Literature* for February 9.

We have received the sixth biennial report of the Kansas Historical Society, a very vigorous institution, which counts more than 48,000 volumes, bound and unbound. Of these one-sixth are newspaper and periodical files. Almost the entire press of Kansas makes a direct contribution of its regular issues to the Society.

A reprint has been made from the *Magazine of Western History* of Mr. W. H. Venable's "Early Periodical Literature of the Ohio Valley." It begins with the *Western Review*, published at Lexington, Ky., in 1819-21. In the section on *Hall's Western Monthly Magazine* the writer falls into the error of saying that Lyman Beecher "had made Lane Seminary a militant post of offensive warfare against Catholicism and *slavery*." A citizen of Ohio should have been better informed on this point. The late James Freeman Clarke was the second editor of the *Western Messenger*, started in 1835, and was succeeded by the Rev. W. H. Channing, both drawing their literary support freely from the Unitarian denomination at the East. At least ten of the contributors, says Mr. Venable, were also among the writers for Emerson's *Dial*. In 1860 a new *Dial* was founded at Cincinnati by Moncure D. Conway, another Unitarian clergyman, who likewise drew upon his brethren in Boston.

We can recommend for instruction and for readability three Indian brochures on our table. "The Seminole Indians of Florida," by Clay MacCauley, is not (as one might suppose who thinks of the Seminole war as having ended in the extermination of the tribe) an historical essay, but a study of the living remnant on the soil of the peninsula. Physically and morally, the account of these people is altogether favorable, if we take no exception to the prevailing polygamy, which, singularly enough, produces more males than females. There is a certain admixture of negro blood. The pamphlet is illustrated. From vol. ii, No. 1 of the *American Anthropologist* Dr. Washington Matthews, U. S. A., reprints an article of his on "Navajo Gambling Songs," of which he translates a number by the side of the original, with some explanatory discourse. The first of the Archæological and Ethnological Papers of the Peabody Museum at Harvard University is an historical essay, "Standard or Head-Dress?" on a featherwork relic of ancient Mexico, by Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, a special assistant of the Museum. Three colored plates accompany this paper, and are needful for the comprehension of it and of the bearing of the discussion on the ancient Mexican picture-writings.

There is no end to universal calendars. That well deserves its name which is called "The Ready-Reference Calendar" (Union Printing Co., 15 Vandewater St.). By contenting itself with a range of two centuries (1753-1956) it makes the determination of a given day very simple and rapid. The finding of Easter Day is a part of the scheme.

On March 1, a new eclectic French monthly, *La Revue Française*, will be published. Its province will be to furnish readers and students of French with the select works of the best French authors, annotated where necessary, and with essays on the study of the French language and literature by competent teachers and writers. The selections will mostly be drawn from contemporary French periodical literature. The publication office is at 39 West Fourteenth Street, New York city.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science meets this year at Toronto, August 27 to September 3. The Local Committee have organized with the Hon. Charles Carpmael as President, with Mr. James Bain, jr., Treasurer, and Prof. James Loudon, Secretary. It is believed that this will be a large meeting, rivalling the Boston meeting of 1880. The President of the Association is Prof. Mendenhall, and Major Powell gives the address as retiring President.

—Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's article on Canada in the March *Harper's* has an interest beyond that of a mere contribution to a current discussion, and is quite the most thoroughly studied and valuable of the papers of this kind that he has been writing recently. He gives a good physical description of the country, some pages explanatory of its political constitution and recent history, and a good deal of the results of his own observation in a journey to Vancouver and back, over the Canadian Pacific, and in his various social opportunities. It would be a pity if Mr. Warner's reputation for other sorts of writing should put any readers who enjoy well-reasoned economical and political discussion off the scent of this article of his. The number affords scope to the engraver in the second paper on Norway, in Theodore Child's account of the Institute of France, and in Curt von Zelau's article on "New Vienna." By the latter is meant, of course, the Ringstrasse and its examples of noble architecture, which cannot be too often reproduced, at once to shame and cultivate our taste as displayed in public buildings. Among the shorter contributions, George William Curtis's sympathetic notice of Motley's 'Letters' is easily first in interest. "Poe's Mary" presents to us a young lady of fifty years ago, whose dealings with the poet, as lover and friend, make up an astounding revelation of the manners of the time—though it may not be safe to say that they could not be paralleled to-day.

—A word apart must be given to the article on the "Origin of Celestial Species," in which Mr. Norman Lockyer seeks to account for the evolution of the different forms of the heavenly bodies from a chaos of meteorites. The idea is an old one, but Mr. Lockyer advances it vigorously under the influence of much new light,

and makes out an excellent hypothesis. In a recent English photograph of the nebula in Andromeda, there appears endless detail of form, and two satellites of the central mass are in the actual process of formation, as it were. These, with the numerous concentric rings, must be taken as a striking confirmation of the nebular hypothesis. As the elder Darwin accounted for the origin of terrestrial species, so, in explaining the evolution of celestial species, his son, Professor George Darwin of Trinity College, is playing no unimportant part. Taking the Kantian idea of all space originally filled with nebulous, incandescent gas, and comparing it with the idea of space thickly strewn with meteorites in the beginning, Mr. Darwin has shown that the two may be reconciled by considering the meteorites as the magnified particles of a magnified gas, behaving like the molecules in the kinetic theory of gases, only on a vastly larger scale. And further, from his investigation of the question whether there is anything inconsistent in the assumption of a magnification so great, Professor Darwin concludes that Mr. Lockyer's hypothesis contains nothing at variance with the nebular hypothesis of Laplace. As the spectroscope a quarter-century ago revealed the presence of the same kind of matter throughout all space, so now a still more important generalization seems establishing, that "all celestial forms are due to an exquisitely simple evolution of matter in the form of meteoric dust."

—Mr. Appleton Morgan's book on 'The People and the Railways' is little more than a series of essays which have appeared in the *Popular Science Monthly* and other periodicals. The author is a pronounced defender of corporate rights. He believes that legislation on railroads has done much harm and little good. Some of his points are well taken—for instance, when he shows how the growth of trade centres results from natural conditions rather than from arbitrary action of the railroad managers, or when he exposes the fallacy of Mr. Hudson's indictments against the railroad system of the United States. But we fear that the book will do more harm than good to the cause which it is designed to advance. In his anxiety to defend railroads from ill-judged interference, the author often goes to the length of trying to shield them from their fair responsibility. The latter effort stands in the way of the former. Only by accepting full responsibility for what they do, can our railroads claim immunity from the most meddlesome legislation. If the advocates of the railroad system say, as Mr. Morgan virtually does, that our managers cannot prevent accidents, there will be a loud demand for the substitution of State control instead of private control. But, in point of fact, our railroad men do not thus seek to disclaim responsibility. They feel the burden, and accept it as one of the incidents of their position. When Mr. Morgan's article on this subject first appeared, more than a year ago, we showed that he was materially wrong in certain statements of fact. He replies by a slur on official investigations, and implies, though he does not exactly say, that he bases his statements on a report of experts. Unfortunately for him, the facts which we presented were based on the testimony of the company's own officials; and we do not believe that there has been any report of experts which will warrant Mr. Morgan's conclusions.

—We have been glad to observe and to take part in an appeal of American scholars to the incoming Administration in favor of retaining at his post our present Minister to Copenhagen, Prof. R. B. Anderson. Mr. Anderson has ideal qualifications for the place, in his Scandinavian lineage and American birth, and a scholarly cultivation and achievement which do honor to his native land. The hardship of his recall, supposing it to be contemplated or possible, lies in the fact that he is engaged in literary labors of recognized importance, and partly international in their nature, which can only be conducted on the spot where he is. They have not interfered with, but rather facilitated, the discharge of his functions at the court of Denmark, where he is *persona grata*. An open letter from citizens of Scandinavia to the President-elect of the United States lies before us, recounting the above facts, and affirming that "We would look upon it as a serious loss to the Scandinavians on both sides of the Atlantic if a new man, unacquainted with Scandinavian affairs, should succeed a Minister who, by his knowledge of our language, our history, and our customs, has for the past four years been so excellent a connecting link between the United States and us." This appeal is signed by Björnson, Brandes, Ibsen, Fr. Winkel Horn, A. L. Kielland, Jonas Lie, Viktor Rydberg, Niels W. Gade, Johan Svendsen, Carl Bloch, and many other persons eminent in letters, art, journalism, and politics, as, F. S. Bang, Councillor of State and Treasurer of the Royal Danish Society of Northern Antiquaries, Sofus Högsbro, President of the Danish Folkething, and some nine members of Parliament. Mr. Anderson's retention ought to be insured by so imposing a tribute to his worth as a scholar and as a Minister. Certain it is that his removal would be a scandal without the shadow of an excuse.

—Bodley's librarian is regarded, and not without reason, as holding the blue ribbon of the profession; and when the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Coxe, "the lovable librarian," was filled by the appointment of E. B. Nicholson, there were misgivings on the part of some, for not all felt the same confidence in the wisdom of the choice as did the late Henry Bradshaw, the Cambridge librarian, who wrote that he was happy "in the conviction that they have found a man who, while there is no fear of his working slavishly in a groove, will, on the other hand, not despise the traditions of a place where *good traditions* are of such vital importance, if that aroma is to be preserved which gives the charm to the Bodleian and places it at the head of all the libraries in Europe." Six years have passed since these words were written, and a report on the Bodleian Library covering these six years has just been issued, which will be read with interest by many in this country (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). The report is a very full and systematic one, going into much detail concerning the progress of the library in all departments, and leaving upon the reader the general impression that a great amount of energy has been shown, much work has been done, and many changes have been made. Changes no doubt were inevitable, if not always desirable, and, judging from the report, Mr. Bradshaw's conviction has, on the whole, been justified by the event. It is unnecessary to follow out all the details, but a few salient points may be worth noting.

—Owing to the extreme parsimony with which the Bodleian had long been treated by the University, Mr. Coxe had been greatly hampered in all his labors, and the working force at his disposal being altogether inadequate to perform even the necessary work of the library, it was inevitable that arrears of cataloguing, classification, and binding should go on accumulating for lack of funds. It so happened, however, that at the beginning of 1882, in consequence of certain provisions made by the Universities Commission, a new and brighter era in the financial prospects of the library had just opened, and Mr. Nicholson was not slow to take advantage of the opportunity thus offered. The staff was largely increased, the arrears of cataloguing were attacked, and the work of classifying the slips for the subject-catalogue, begun in 1878, was so vigorously pushed forward that it is now estimated that the whole mass of slips, about 700,000 in number, will be ready for final revision by the librarian in 1892. During this period much, too, has been done in the direction of a more minute classification on the shelves, the old subject divisions having been multiplied some sixty-fold, and the report gives a brief explanation of the system of numbering adopted. The bulk of the accessions in the department of printed books is received under the copyright act, but large purchases have been made in the class of incunabula, and a much-needed catalogue of the fifteenth-century books in the library is in an advanced state of preparation. As an actual count of the books was made in 1885, the estimate that the number of volumes in the library at the end of 1887 exceeded 470,000, over 28,000 of these being manuscripts, is probably more nearly correct than such estimates generally are. Since 1883 the library has received a yearly grant of $2,000 for the purchase of manuscripts, and in this period the number of Armenian manuscripts in the library has been more than doubled, the Schlagintweit collection of Tibetan manuscripts was secured, and almost five hundred additions were made to the already rich collection of Sanskrit manuscripts. Much progress has also been made in the preparation of catalogues of the various manuscript collections. Nor has the comfort of readers been neglected; additional facilities have been provided, both in the Bodleian and in the Radcliffe, where a classified students' library of about 8,000 volumes has been arranged in open cases. There has been, as might be expected, a large increase in the attendance of readers. In some directions, however, it has been found necessary to introduce slight restrictions on the facilities formerly conceded to readers. The question of lending books from the Bodleian gave rise to much discussion in 1886, and the University has practically resolved on returning to what was the law on this subject before 1856, by requiring the assent of Convocation for every loan. Full details are given of the financial condition which, owing to the inability of All Souls' College to keep up the contribution called for by the Universities Commission, is by no means so bright as it was in 1882. In conclusion, it may be noted that in some portions the report reads like a defence against criticisms; but criticisms of his management no librarian can hope to escape, for, as Panizzi put it, one of the difficulties a librarian experiences, and perhaps the greatest, is that everybody thinks he knows how to manage a library of printed books, and everybody tries to interfere. No doubt, too, Mr. Prothero's remark concerning certain criticisms of Bradshaw's management, "An occasion for grumbling is a luxury of which few persons refuse to avail themselves, and university society is no more exempt than other societies from a tendency to exaggeration," is as applicable to Oxford as it was to Cambridge. At any rate, if the report is to be taken as a defence of Mr. Nicholson's management, it is certainly a complete one.

—It has been customary to say that the lack

of the principle of representation was the chief point of difference between the political system of the ancients and that of the moderns, and to wonder that so natural and apparently easy a step was not taken, when once the Romans had developed their municipal institutions. The wonder becomes greater when we learn that this step was actually taken in the provinces, but remained barren of political results. It is only very recently, and chiefly as an outcome of the study of inscriptions, that this fact has become known, and the institution in question has been studied. M. Fustel de Coulanges has some interesting chapters upon the subject in the first volume of his 'Institutions'; and M. Paul Guiraud has devoted to it an exhaustive monograph of 309 pages (Paris, 1887), entitled 'Les Assemblées Provinciales dans l'Empire Romain.' In these provincial assemblies we have real representative institutions, so far as the form and constitution were concerned; for the members were elected for this special purpose by the municipalities, and had their own officers and their own budget; but they stopped short of being representative bodies in the full sense of the term, because they were not in possession of any substantial powers; they were not a part of the Government, but only subsidiary agents of the Government, their functions being primarily religious, associated with the cult of the Emperor. As M. Guiraud says (p. 270): "The provincial assemblies possessed no authority of their own: they existed only by the will of the prince; they sat not by virtue of any power, but as a matter of duty; what was wanted of them was not to limit the action of the Government, but to assist it." It could not be otherwise under the autocratic rule of the Empire. If this system had been adopted in Italy under the Republic, a true representative government might have been the result; as it is, it is interesting to see how very near the ancients came to discovering the great distinctive principle of modern free government.

THOMAS POOLE.

Thomas Poole and His Friends. By Thos. Henry Sandford. 2 vols. London: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

WHOEVER has read much in the literary memoirs of the Lake School must have felt a lively curiosity to know more of the subject of this biography. Coleridge drew his portrait in a fine passage of 'Church and State,' as a type of strong, practical character. De Quincey described him in the 'Autobiographical Sketches'—"a stout, plain-looking farmer leading a bachelor life in a rustic, old-fashioned house," with a good library, especially in political philosophy, having some experience of travel, and "so entirely dedicated to the service of his humble fellow-countrymen, the hewers of wood and drawers of water in this southern part of Somersetshire, that for many miles round he was the general arbiter of their disputes, the guide and counsellor of their difficulties." Wordsworth, in a letter to him asking his critical opinion of "Michael," says: "In writing it, I had your character often before my eyes, and sometimes thought I was delineating such a man as you yourself would have been under the same circumstances." Poole was, besides, the valued friend of Rickman, the statistician and compiler of the first British census; of Thomas Wedgwood, whose career, beginning with the experiments in photography which are well known, was so unfortunately ended by incurable disease; of Sir Humphrey Davy, and of others of the most useful men of the time. Both personally and in his relations with those men who felt the revivifying influence of the French Revolution in England, he presents an interesting figure, and his memoir not only helps to complete our knowledge of Coleridge particularly, but exemplifies in a notable way the characteristics of his age of reform.

Poole is the more attractive because of the humbleness of the means by which he made his life remarkable. He was the son of a tanner in well-to-do circumstances, at Nether Stowey, in the region of the Quantock hills, and was bred to that business; but he had a thirst for knowledge which was perhaps encouraged in the home of his uncle, a more liberally-minded man than his father, where he found well-educated cousins, one of them going to Oxford. He could not have neglected his business very much, whatever his father may have thought, by his devotion to French and Latin, since he was chosen to be delegate to the Tanners' Trade Convention at London while still a youth, and made a favorable impression and brought away one valuable friendship. It may have been at this time and through the advice of the "great London tanner," Mr. Purkis, that he came under the influence of French opinions, which he imbibed sufficiently to alarm his Toryish cousins as well as the country neighborhood, by shaking the powder out of his hair. He was thought to be a democrat, and the word was at that time and place a thing to shudder at. How it was that he became acquainted with Coleridge, it is impossible to ascertain. There was a tradition that the two had met accidentally in a tavern, when the poet was in the army and Poole had metamorphosed himself into a common workman. It seems to be believed that Poole did carry out this plan of becoming thoroughly versed in the details of the tanning trade and acquainted with the minds and habits of the workmen; but the time of this is uncertain. It is as a possible adventurer in the Pantisocratic scheme that we first find him connected with Coleridge. He describes the plan in a letter to an inquiring friend, and as this account is the most detailed of any yet published about this famous project of settlement on the banks of the Susquehannah, we will extract the passage:

"Twelve gentlemen of good education and liberal principles are to embark with twelve ladies in April next. Previous to their leaving this country they are to have as much intercourse as possible, in order to ascertain each other's dispositions, and firmly to settle every regulation for the government of their future conduct. Their opinion was that they should fix themselves at—I do not recollect the place, but somewhere in a delightful part of the new back settlements; that each man should labor two or three hours in a day, the produce of which labor would, they imagine, be more than sufficient to support the colony. As Adam Smith observes that there is not above one productive man in twenty, they argue that if each labored the twentieth part of the time, it would produce enough to satisfy their wants. The produce of their industry is to be laid up in common for the use of all; and a good library of books is to be collected, and their leisure hours to be spent in study, liberal discussions, and the education of their children. A system for the education of their children is laid down, for which, if this plan at all suits you, I must refer you to the authors of it. The regulations relating to the females strike them as the most difficult; whether the marriage contract shall be dissolved if agreeable to one or both parties, and many other circumstances, are not yet determined. The employments of the women are to be the care of infant children and other occupations suited to their strength; at the same time the greatest attention is to be paid to the cultivation of their minds. Every one is to enjoy his own religious and political opinions, provided they do not encroach on the rules previously made, which rules, it is unnecessary to add, must in some measure be regulated by the laws of the State which includes the district in which they settle."

Such was the scheme of colonization worked out by Coleridge and Southey, the latter of whom Poole describes as "more violent in his principles than even Coleridge himself"; and he adds: "In Religion, shocking to say in a mere Boy as he is, I fear he wavers between Deism and Atheism." The cost to each undertaker was to be £125. But Poole, who was at this time twenty-nine years old, accompanied this information with very sound considerations as to the chimerical nature of the project, which is now interesting partly as an example of the French ferment, but mainly as a literary curiosity.

The lifelong friendship of Poole and Coleridge began some months later, in the summer of 1794. The actual day when Coleridge and Southey visited him was long remembered in the neighborhood as that on which the news of the death of Robespierre reached the place. Poole was already a suspected democrat, and had been warned that the Government had an eye on his private correspondence, but he made light of it. The violent expressions of his two companions on this occasion were scandalous. It is reported that, Tom's cousin (the tall, fair-complexioned Oxford don) being present, one of them had said that "Robespierre was a ministering angel of mercy, sent to slay thousands that he might save millions"; and Southey in particular laid his head down upon his arms and exclaimed, "I had rather have heard of the death of my own father!" But one must not rely on phrases handed down by tradition. It is certain that people were very much shocked, and in particular the fair-complexioned don, with powdered locks and precise attire, who recorded the occurrence, but not the words, in his Latin diary. "Uterque," he writes, "vero rabie Democratica quoad Politiam; et Infidelis quod Religionem spectat, turpiter fervet. Ego maxime indignor"; and after a few words more he concludes, "sed de talibus satis." The sisters of the Latinist, who was a most admirable man, were similarly indignant at "Cousin Tom" for entertaining such friends; and the situation was not improved when Coleridge, in the beginning of 1797, the friendship with Poole having now strengthened and become most intimate, came to live in Stowey, where he passed what must have been the most agreeable year of his life. It was here that he composed the "Ancient Mariner." To the young lady cousins the poet, "with the brow of an angel and the mouth of a beast," as he describes himself, was only a bugbear, and he received from them scant respect; but perhaps, as the biographer suggests, Mrs. Coleridge and the baby helped to reconcile him with the humbler neighbors. It was different when Wordsworth and his sister, with the young child for which they were caring, took the Alfoxden House near by, also with Poole's aid and counsel. Stories were rife about them at once: "the profound seclusion in which they lived, the incomprehensible nature of their occupations, their strange habit of frequenting out-of-the-way and untrodden spots, the very presence of an unexplained child that was no relation to either of them"—such are the reasons assigned for that cloud of distrust which gathered about the poet and his sister. It was now that the Government spy was sent to watch them, and they were warned to leave at the expiration of their year's lease, by the direction of the lady, Mrs. St. Albyn, who owned the estates. It was to no purpose, apparently, that Poole wrote to her a full explanation of the circumstances, and assured her of Words-

worth's character. Matters reached their pitch, however, when Thelwall came to visit Coleridge, and, tired of a life of persecution, also wished to settle in this favored locality. This was clearly impossible, and Coleridge wrote to remind him that Poole could not be asked to jeopardize further his reputation in the country side.

The disturbed mind of the neighborhood, in view of the presence among them of a nest of democrats hatching they knew not what, was a passing matter. To Poole himself the companionship of Coleridge and Wordsworth meant an invigoration of his intellectual life which must have been a stimulus of no ordinary force. At the same time his practical sagacity was never once at fault. From the beginning the character of Coleridge declares itself as it is now well known, with all its excitability and impulsiveness, and that half-frantic weakness which marks so much of his correspondence. Some of these new letters would be incredible were it not that, unfortunately, there are too many others like them. Poole, however, discharged well his duty as the friend whom Coleridge always regarded as nearest and most faithful. He was constantly serviceable. It was he who devised the gift which was to be made annually from the proceeds of £5 contributions by Coleridge's friends. Doubtless he had much to do with obtaining the Wedgwood annuity of £150, which at the time seemed to insure a life undisturbed by financial anxieties; and in lesser matters he was not less active. On the other hand, Coleridge explains the nature of the bond which united them very plainly: "I used to feel myself more at home," he says, "in his great windy parlor than in my own cottage. We were well suited to each other—my animal spirits corrected his inclination to melancholy; and there was something, both in his understanding and in his affections, so healthy and manly that my mind freshened in his company, and my ideas and habits of thinking acquired, day after day, more of substance and reality." As time went on, Poole, without lessening his admiration for his friend's abilities, saw more plainly the grave nature of his defects. He followed him with good wishes and high hopes on his German tour, but the winter in Malta and the months after Coleridge's return must have sealed his judgment that nothing of fulfilment of the expectations of Coleridge's genius was now to be looked for. He was never slow to give him advice, and it was always sagacious; but advice was the last thing that Coleridge wanted. Poole did not believe that Coleridge's ills were real. It is perfectly plain that in the years during which Coleridge suffered physically, and was making attempts to regain health by this and that project of travel, Poole regarded him as hypochondriacal, and told him so plainly enough, if not in so many words. This probably occasioned in part the disagreement, the coolness, in fact, which arose between them at one time, and which is the blot on their friendship. Coleridge resented the opinion that his ailment sprang from mental rather than physical causes; and, when an incident occurred to acerbate this feeling, he broke out in a manner which Poole rightly regarded as "outrageous." Wordsworth had written to Poole, detailing Coleridge's situation, and asking if he could not provide £100, for him to go to the Azores. Poole replied to Coleridge directly, and excused himself, saying he was ready to contribute £20; and he concluded in the old strain: "Coleridge—God, I hope, will preserve you. It seems to me impossible to imagine that you would not be well if you could have a mind freely at ease. Make yourself that mind. Take from it—its two weak parts—its tendency to restlessness and its tendency to torpor, and it would make you great and happy. It would in a moment see what is right, and it would possess the power, and that steadily, to execute it." Poole was a man with many calls upon his purse, for his benevolence was marked, and at the time his affairs, as Coleridge knew, were in an unfavorable state; Coleridge, too, was then owing him £37. Yet Coleridge so far forgot himself as to remind Poole of the difference in their education, and to impute to him an illiberal spirit arising from his regard for money. "It is impossible that you should feel," he says, "as to pecuniary affairs, as Wordsworth or as I feel—or even as men greatly inferior to you in all other things that make man a noble being. But this I always knew and calculated upon, and have applied to you in my little difficulties when I could have procured the sums with far less pain to myself from persons less dear to me, only that I might not estrange you wholly from the outward and visible realities of my existence, my wants and sufferings"; and he ends with, "Let us for the future abstain from all pecuniary matters." He followed up this letter by others in the same strain, and refused to see anything "outrageous" in these remarks. The friendship survived the strain, much to Poole's credit; but the correspondence grew less constant, and finally ceased, except for a yearly bulletin from Mrs. Coleridge until her death. Poole continued, however, to be serviceable to the family, assisted Hartley through college, and was always ready to fulfil his early promises of help. It is clear enough, it is pleasant to add, that Coleridge felt that Poole had really been his friend of friends, and that Poole on his side retained undiminished, however he might regret Coleridge's fate, his old affection for him.

We have left but scanty space for the record of Poole's own life, which might well be thought better worth detailing than the history of that friendship to which probably he owes his memoir. He was, as the biographer reminds us, a typical example of those Englishmen of his time who desired to make the most of themselves and live useful lives. He was, to begin with, fond of making and adopting improvements in his own business, which he conducted successfully until he retired from it, and at the same time he cultivated a large farm. In public affairs he had shown while still young a special interest in the condition of the working classes. The food riots, occasioned by the war, brought the subject very vividly to his attention, and he was directly engaged in the work of relief. We find him experimenting in ways of making cheap bread and in methods of planting wheat, and in later years deeply interested in the introduction of merino sheep into England. He built the village school, taught in it, and was eager to forward popular education. His cousin, John Poole, the young Oxford don, was the founder of the Enmore public school and a pioneer in the cause both by practical teaching and by means of his pen. Thomas Poole also founded the Female Friendly Society, for the purpose of assisting women in times of distress, and organized the savings-bank. In brief, there was, it is said, no local charitable institution that he did not originate or support. This interest in the condition of the people was the occasion of his friendship with Rickman, and consequently of his only public service. The two, after having met, corresponded on the subject of the Poor-Laws; and, an inquiry being shortly after authorized by Parliament, Rickman persuaded Poole to give some months of his time to the task of receiving and tabulating the returns. In this way, living in London, he was brought in useful contact with many public men.

His interest in politics, both foreign and domestic, never ceased to be keen; and although his early opinions, which do not seem to have been extreme, were modified with the course of years, he was at heart and in practice a reformer to the end. He was enlisted with Clarkson against the slave trade, and was one of those men who would use no sugar because it was raised by slave labor. Whenever one comes on the public questions of that day in these pages, Poole is found to be not only on the right side, but thoroughly in earnest and laborious in the work. It was natural that he should end his life as the leading and most respected man in his community, the adviser in all local affairs, and the friend and "common peacemaker," as he was called, of his neighborhood. His self-training intellectually, united with a capacity for fellowship, had made him the companion of many notable persons. He spoke French, and during his travels on the Continent in the year of the peace, he had the fortune to meet several of the distinguished men of the time; but such associations had not changed his original nature. He always affected a certain rusticity of manner; his voice was loud and disagreeable, made harsh by the constant use of snuff; there was a rough quality in him. When he was a county magistrate and coming to the end of life, he would proclaim, in what is styled an uncompromising tone, "For my part, I am a plebeian. I am a tanner, you know, *I* am a *tanner*." Southey speaks of him as "clod-hopping over my feelings"; but in a more amiable moment he also says, "Tom Poole is not content to be your friend; he must be your saviour." It is noticeable, however, that he had also that gift of tenderness which sometimes goes with rough natures. He was an excellent nurse, and was quick to come in all times of domestic trouble and bereavement, and no one was more welcome. In his drawer, after his death, was found among his mementoes a small packet labelled, "The hair of my poor shepherd, who served me faithfully for twenty-three years"; it is a trifling thing, but nothing could be more significant. He never married, and he outlived several of his best friends, especially Coleridge, Davy, and Tom Wedgwood; but his home was a centre of cheerfulness, and he was surrounded in his later years by young people who had experienced his perpetual kindness. He left no great thing behind him to preserve his memory—he was a man of his generation only; but at the end of these volumes the reader finds himself of one mind with those of his friends of whom Coleridge in his character of Poole says, "Not a man among them but would vote for leaving him as he is." It is not often that an humble life, with so much of the substance of virtue in it, gets itself written.

COLONIAL LIFE ON MASSACHUSETTS SHORES.

Colonial Times in Buzzard's Bay. By William Root Bliss. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 185.

THIS unpretending little book is rather notably out of the common run of antiquarian productions. Generally our local histories fall into one of two classes. The one is mainly genealogical, with a vast number of details as to early colonial pedigrees, and it is often a storehouse of full and accurate research, not perhaps appealing much to one's love of light entertainment or æsthetic beauty, but referred to

now and then with innocent pride by the subscribers, and really having a good side in the stimulus which it gives both to historical study and to family feeling. The other and less valuable pattern is of the narrative kind, more or less discursive and oratorical in tone, tending to spread into a much gilt quarto with cheap illustrations, and to settle down upon the farmer's centre-table with his 'Pilgrim's Progress' and Tupper's Poems—weighty but seldom opened, unless to quiet the small boy with its prints on the long Sunday afternoons. A dozen years ago a history of Buzzard's Bay would probably have been of one or both of these types; but the spirit of the place has changed. Summer pleasure-seekers have invaded and conquered it, and villas gay with the amusements of modern civilization have crept up its beautiful shores, ousting the weather-beaten old farmhouses and the quiet old bucolic life, and this story is one of the results. It is not exactly a history: it is a vividly told description of life in southern Massachusetts that would fit almost any of our old country towns.

Its tale of the simple doings of a New England hamlet in the last century will seem commonplace enough to those unchanging old Yankee farmers, and they will receive it with the tolerant but superior smile which they accord to the vagaries of the city seeker for spinning-wheels and old brass candle-sticks. But for the summer sojourner there is a delightful charm about Mr. Bliss's animated narrative of the olden time which amply accounts for the popularity which is being accorded to it. From their own records we get peeps at the simple ways of our ancestors, and in some respects the story is not quite what we expected. We do not find the bitter religious bigotry, the enthusiasm for education, the heartrending struggles with the savages, the persecution of witches, the Revolutionary patriotism that we thought characteristic of New England. We look again, but they are not there. These shrewd, frugal, hard-working farmers were always ready for a good trade, but they could not get up much sympathy with the hot-bed extravagances of Boston. The settlers did not come into Buzzard's Bay until the religious enthusiasm in which the Massachusetts Bay Colony started had lost its force. They were the sons of trained farmers who had learned the lessons of moderation and industry which the new life so quickly taught. They were

"shrewd in their bargains, honest in their reckonings, industrious in their habits, but bound by a close economy which made them contented with small savings and small gains. The whole family—sons, daughters, and indentured servants—took up their daily work before sunrise, suspended it only for their meals, and ended it only when the candles were put out at early bedtime. The women did the housework, tended the hens, the geese, and the calves, scoured the brass warming-pans and pewter dishes, spun flax and wool yarns, and wove them into cloths from which the clothing and bedding of the family were made by their own hands; and if more was made than was needed at home, it was bartered away. The purpose of all was to get out of the farm every farthing that it would yield, and to squander nothing."

Money there was little or none, after the unfortunate attempt at legal-tender money; but barter on the strictest business principles went on, and we find Goodman Fearing, one of the substantial men of the town, correcting in his accounts "a mistak of 2 quarts of malasses," and charging his hired man with "time loost" by "sikness the fever and ago, 4 fites one weke and three the next." He furnished everything, from "the bordes and nayles for a cofen" for Widow Bates, to "the posts for your cradel" to Thomas Bates of the younger generation. He traded corn and rye (with a dog thrown in to balance accounts) with the tanner for dressing his hides, and then traded off the hides in the shape of "sken for briches," with some home-made shoes and some "stokens" of his daughters' knitting, for other goods.

It was a pastoral community. The first building was not a church or a school-house, but a pound; and, like their remote Teutonic ancestors, these farmers began with elaborate provisions for the several rights in the common pastures and forests. The grist-mill was quickly secured, but it was many years before either a meeting-house or a school-house was erected. It was a good deal cheaper to go fifteen miles of a Sunday to the next village than to put up a house of their own; and when at last the square four-gabled log meeting-house had been built, the difficulty of raising the minister's salary entirely obscured any question of doctrine. The people were eminently practical. They turned no one out for heresies as to saving grace, but they would have no teacher who was irregularly married. For a time the children went untaught—except for the little learning picked up from an itinerant mistress, who had her "dyet" and salary (which was about one-third the pay of a day-laborer) for her pains.

"In the opinion of the rural population of New England, schools were an unnecessary expense. Oftentimes the formalities of town-meetings, by which it was ordered 'to set up a school this year,' had no other intent than to show an outward compliance with the unpopular school laws of the province. Whenever the people could contrive a way by which the expenses of a school could be saved, there would be no school during that year. And when, on account of this neglect to observe the school laws, the town was presented by the grand jury of the county, it was customary to depute the most influential townsman to go and answer the presentment by such excuses as could be made."

"The frugal mind of the colonial farmer reckoned the schoolmaster as a day-laborer, and the desire was to hire him at as low a price, and to spread his labors over as large a territory, as possible. Each section of the town had his services during two or three months of the year, when the scholars were taught to read, write, cipher, and nothing more. He was paid sometimes in money and sometimes in merchandise, and his diet was thrown in. There was no standard by which to test his skill as a teacher, but the one generally esteemed the most skilful was he whose price was the lowest, even if he were the chief of blockheads,

"'Who tries with ease and unconcern
To teach what ne'er himself could learn.'"

In that quiet farming community large fortunes there were none, and pauperism was very rare. Once in a while we come across some odd record of the sale of a pauper to some one who would keep her for a year with "vettuals and close sutable." Here the town votes "to vandue the widow Lovell," after buying her a shirt; and once, as late as 1808, there is an item for "extra mending Jane George four dollars." Sometimes the poor were sold in lots, widow, children, and cattle together. Once they tried to put up all the poor in one lump, but it did not work. One economical farmer managed to get a grant for the care of his own father and mother, but this was not regarded as a precedent to be repeated. The sales were quite an event in the quiet town year. They usually took place in "the bar-room of the inn, where the landlord, as he served the thirsty guests from his decanters, discussed with them the value of the paupers for whose services they had come to bid," and the doctor's bills were sharply discussed in town-meeting.

There was a good deal of loyal Tory feeling at the breaking out of the Revolution. The town had felt little of the pressure of the British yoke, its instincts were all conservative, and as a town it did almost nothing except to appoint a committee of safety, while many families kept bright the lion and unicorn in the back of their chimneys. The usual resolution of grievances was passed in the beginning by an informal meeting of the inhabitants, and there was a little mob violence. As soon as they heard of the fight at Lexington, the militia started for Boston without waiting for authority. Later on, the town sent some supplies to the Continental army, and at the end it paid its troops something, with some sharp remarks against the grant of extra pay by Congress. On the whole, it was not very patriotic. It is not to be inferred, however, that the town was an agreeable retreat for Loyalists. The Committee of Safety had most extensive powers, and it used them. It opened letters, detained vessels, arrested suspects, and imprisoned or removed them, and drafted troops into the Continental army. Mr. Bliss speaks of it rather warmly as a reign of terror; but this seems an exaggeration. The records of the Committee are not in existence, and in their absence it is to be taken for granted that the common sense of this eminently sober neighborhood kept it from any very violent excesses.

The liveliness of Mr. Bliss's narrative does not conceal the quietness, the sombre severity indeed, of the life he describes. In spite of its occasional merrymaking, pleasure-seeking was rare, and prosperity was won only by close and unfailing economy. The people had the satisfaction which comes from deserved success and robust health; and, physically at least, their descendants have gained little or nothing in the complex and exciting life which has taken the place of the old simplicity.

In reviewing so interesting a book, fault-finding is a disagreeable task, but the want of any index and the poor quality of the illustrations must be mentioned.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Masks or Faces? A Study in the Psychology of Acting. By William Archer. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Life and Adventures of Edmund Kean, Tragedian. By J. Fitzgerald Molloy. 2 vols. London: Ward & Downey; New York: Scribner & Welford.

Frédérick Lemaître. Étude biographique et critique. Par L. Henry Lecomte. 2 vols. New York: F. W. Christern.

A Society Star; or, She Would Be An Actress. A Novel. By Chandos Fulton. New York: G. W. Dillingham.

Le Comédien. Par Albert Le Roy. Paris: Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern.

Les Planches: Roman Moderne. Par Jean Blaize. Paris: Librairie Illustré; New York: F. W. Christern.

Mr. William Archer has deserved well of all those who have an intelligent affection for the stage. He is at once the best-equipped, the most acute, and the most independent of English dramatic critics; he is the Sarcey of London. It happens to us to disagree with his conclusions sometimes (although infrequently), but we have an unfailing respect for his judgment. He has studied the stage diligently, and has seized the vital principles of the dramatic art. In the 'Obiter Dicta' of Mr. Birrell there is a clever paper on the actor and on the influence of his profession on the man himself; but if any one desires to see the difference between

mere superficial (not to say verbal) cleverness and the writing of a man who has the root of the matter in him, we suggest a comparison of this paper of Mr. Birrell's with the equally brilliant but far deeper, sounder, and more convincing essay to be found in Mr. Archer's "About the Theatre." Where Mr. Birrell is flippant and contemptuous, Mr. Archer is dignified and sincere; and the superiority of his knowledge and of his insight is beyond question. In 'Masks or Faces?' Mr. Archer takes up again the vexed question as to whether an actor should feel his part, and how far he feels it, and how far his feeling it helps or hurts the impression made by his acting. In the 'Paradoxe sur le Comédien,' Diderot declared that an actor should not feel while he is acting; and the most accomplished and successful comedian of our time, M. Coquelin, declares that Diderot's is no paradox, but a simple statement of fact. Mr. Archer easily shows that Diderot is inconsistent with himself, and that his deductions were made on insufficient evidence. Mr. Archer has, therefore, now that the question is open again, searched the records of the stage for anecdotes bearing on the point, and he has addressed a series of questions to the leading performers of the day, many of whom answered fully. Much of this new material thus adduced is interesting and important; it sheds light on the individual actors of our time as well as affords evidence for the verdict on the main question. Among those who freely supplied Mr. Archer with their own experiences were Sig. Salvini, Miss Mary Anderson, Mrs. Kendal, Mrs. Bancroft, Mr. John Drew, and Mr. Boucicault.

The result of a careful study of this mass of evidence and of the author's summing up has been to convert one, at least, of Mr. Archer's readers who had hitherto been in agreement with Diderot and M. Coquelin, and who now inclines to the belief that M. Coquelin has pressed his contention too far, and that Diderot's 'Paradoxe' is a paradox still. No doubt the position of the extreme emotionalist is as far out as the attitude of the implacable anti-emotionalist. M. Coquelin declares that the actor should feel at rehearsal, during his study of the character, while he is mastering his part, but, that once acquired, the actor should be able to repeat it at will with unfeeling certainty. Mr. Archer shows that, while the actor should be able to do this, he ought also to be able to infuse feeling into his performance, keeping a tight rein on it and never allowing it to run away with him. (See the admirable illustration supplied by Mr. Edwin Booth and quoted by Mr. Archer, p. 71, from an interview with Mr. Lawrence Barrett.) We cannot dwell longer on this point, but we may heartily recommend Mr. Archer's book to all who are interested in the art of acting or in the psychology of æsthetics. The author has spared no pains to give the reader pleasure: his style is direct and brilliant; his arrangement is logical and coherent, and his research has been tireless. Of the mass of stories which he could have cited from the endless histrionic biographies, one can note the omission of no pertinent anecdote save that told by Mrs. Mowatt in the 'Autobiography of an Actress' about the late E. L. Davenport's laughing asides, as the *Stranger*, while the spectators were dissolved in tears by the pathos of their performance. Mr. Archer's book is excellently printed, with neatly arranged marginal notes and an adequate index.

That acting is an art, and an art of great difficulty and delicacy—this is the ultimate moral of Mr. Archer's book; and it is an interesting coincidence that it should be published almost simultaneously with new biographies of Edmund Kean and Frédérick Lemaître, actors who are popularly accepted as typical innovators, rejecting wholly the traditions of the old school, and relying on impulse rather than on art. There is a certain similarity between the French actor and the English, and it would be easy to construct a parallel. The elder Dumas felt this likeness, and it led him to prepare for Lemaître the play of "Kean, ou Désordre et Génie," of which Thackeray made so much fun in the 'Paris Sketch-Book,' but which survives none the less, although chiefly in Italian.

There are already two biographies of Kean, by "Barry Cornwall" and by Mr. F. W. Hawkins; and there are also two briefer and less worthy biographies of Lemaître. Whatever the similarity of the lives of the two actors, the present biographies are as different as may be. M. Lecomte is painstaking, precise, elaborate, and complete; Mr. Molloy is haphazard and happy-go-lucky. M. Lecomte begins at the beginning and sets down every fact of Frédérick's career. He discusses every play the actor performed in exact chronologic sequence, sketching the plot, noting the part, appending the criticisms, and collecting the anecdotes; no other actor of the nineteenth century has yet been honored by a life as careful and as conscientious as this. Mr. Molloy, who once accomplished the feat of writing an alleged biography of Peg Woffington in several consecutive chapters of which that lady's name did not even appear, has been a little more circumspect in this second attempt at a histrionic life; although he is still prone to start off on a tangent and to lug in any anecdote which he finds under his hand, whether it relates to the hero himself or to his rivals or to any one else in the same century and hemisphere with the hero, yet he manages to repeat effectively enough the accepted version of Kean's career. He seems to have collected nearly all the stories afloat about the great actor and to have set them all down, holding one as good as another. Mr. Molloy is entirely lacking in the critical faculty, and no reader of his book will get from it any exact idea of Kean's powers or position as an actor. A more striking likeness and a more lifelike portrait can be found in the few pages about Kean, written two or three years ago by Mr. Edwin Booth, than in all the two volumes of Mr. Molloy. We are sorry to have to say also that the book abounds in misprints, "De Champ" for "De Camp" (i., 33, *et seq.*), for example; "Joe Cowen" for "Cowell" (i., 133); "Gilferet" for "Gilfert" (ii., p. 135); "*Evadene*" for "*Evadne*" (ii., 256). From Mr. Fitzgerald Molloy, "we don't expect grammar, but at least" he might read proof.

As we have said already, M. Lecomte's book is as careful as Mr. Molloy's is careless; and it is at least as interesting. Kean played few new parts, while Lemaître was the chief actor of the Romantic revolt, playing leading characters in the plays of Hugo, Dumas, Lamartine, Balzac, and their fellows. For him, too, that altogether unequalled melodramatist M. Dennery wrote his best plays, "Don César de Bazan," "Paillasse," "Le Vieux Caporal." It was Frédérick who created Félix Pyat's "Chiffonier de Paris," and who transformed "Robert Macaire." Of all these performances M. Lecomte gives full particulars, with untiring labor, having had special advantages in the use of the documents confided to him by the actor himself. Upon the subject of Lemaître's failings, which were not a few, M. Lecomte is sufficiently frank—with the frankness possible nowadays only to a Frenchman.

The last three volumes on our list are novels of theatrical life; one is American and two are French. Of the American story, one need say little or nothing; it is dull and empty, and does not call for serious criticism. Of the two French stories, one at least would deserve elaborate consideration did our space permit; this is 'Les Planches,' one of the best of recent histrionic novels, in the strongest character of which we seem to recognize certain peculiarities of Frédérick Lemaître. 'Le Comédien' is far from equalling 'Les Planches.' In fact, it is hardly unfair to call 'Le Comédien' the ordinary French novel of commerce, with an accidental actor as its hero. Like many French novels it has a tendency towards lewdness for its own sake—although its structure and its character-drawing lead us to class it rather with the *romans Ohnettes* than with the *romans Nanaturalistes*, as the French punster has distinguished them.

Considering how often French novelists of late have chosen their heroes, and especially their heroines, from among stage-folk, and considering also that the constant dramatization of successful novels brings the writers of fiction into close contact with the people of the theatre, it is not a little remarkable that there are so few good novels of theatrical life. Mme. Gréville failed with 'Rose Rozier' as M. Georges Ohnet failed with 'Lise Fleuron,' while M. Jules Claretie (now the manager of the Comédie-Française) almost succeeded with 'Le Troisième Dessous'; and more serious writers, like M. Zola with 'Nana' (in so far as 'Nana' is a study of the French stage), and M. de Goncourt, with 'La Faustin,' have done no better. M. Cadol's 'Rose' and M. Edgar Monteil's 'Cornebois' are perhaps the best tales of theatrical life in France in our day; 'Cornebois' is far less conventional than 'Rose,' and nearer to the actual facts of existence. 'Les Planches' is worthy to be ranked with these. It is a careful study of certain conditions of the French stage. But a perusal of no one of these stories, good, bad, or indifferent, is likely to raise one's opinion of the manners and morals of the contemporary French theatre. Perhaps 'Cornebois' is the most wholesome of the lot, and it is a sorry set of people among whom he moves, and he is but a sorry hero. But his story and that of 'Les Planches' impress the reader with a sense of reality, and the trouble with most theatrical novels is that the artificiality we find on the stage is carried over into the book. They are painfully unreal. In 'Le Comédien,' for instance, we have the exotic princess of overmastering passions—and she is no more convincing in M. Le Roy's book than she was in M. Daudet's 'L'Immortel.' Perhaps, after all, making full allowance for its artificiality, 'Peg Woffington' is as good a study of histrionic character as we can find in any story.

The Building of the British Isles; A Study in Geographical Evolution. By A. J. Jukes-Browne, B.A., F.G.S. London: George Bell & Son; New York: Scribner & Welford. Pp. 343, illustrated with maps and woodcuts.

THIS treatise comes to us in the welcome uniform of Bohn's Library. The subject of it concerns the most modern and on many accounts the most interesting department of geological science. The earlier students of that science, as soon as they had apprehended the vast revolutions which had been undergone by land and sea, hurried to the conclusion that our continents are essentially instable, changing places with the seas in such manner that what in one great age is ocean floor may at another time be

altered into land ; the lands, in the meantime, sinking into the depths to take the place in the functions of the earth of the obliterated oceans. This simple and rude conception as to the metamorphoses of sea and land has of late, under the influence of more careful studies, been giving place to the hypothesis which suggests that the continents are great permanences, varying their forms from age to age, now submerged in this part and now in that, but for all that essentially constant. At present, probably the greater number of our geologists are adherents of this hypothesis. They owe this theory to the clear thought of Dr. James D. Dana, and something of its general adoption is doubtless due to the deserved influence of his great name. Other students, however, notably Dr. A. R. Wallace from the point of view of the distribution of animals, and Dr. Geikie from a more strictly geological standpoint, have maintained the same view. Mr. Jukes-Browne's book is directed to the end of demonstrating the essential error of Dr. Dana's hypothesis, though in the end he does not depart altogether from that view, since he only insists that the range in the alteration of the position and form of the continents is greater than that supposed by Dana and his school, though less extensive than was supposed by Sir Charles Lyell.

The geographic evolution of the British Isles is the main topic, though occasionally the difficulty of treating separately this narrow field leads the author to consider the geographical changes of other regions about the North Atlantic. Taking in succession the several periods from the Cambrian to the present day, the author endeavors, by assembling the remarkable work done by his predecessors on the history of the British rocks, to reconstruct the form of those islands and of the neighboring continent at each stage in the earth's history. The array of facts set forth is remarkable, both for the range and variety of the data and for the clearness which generally characterizes its presentation. It is doubtful if any other publication on geology of equal size presents as large a body of well-digested observations. It is of his inferences, together with the very numerous incidental hypotheses which our author adduces, that his critics will find reason to complain. On these points he will seem to most geologists to be open to some criticism. In the beginning of his treatise he assumes that at the dawn of the Cambrian period "the surface of the earth seems to have been extraordinarily rugged and uneven, exhibiting a series of lofty mountain ridges separated by deep troughs and hollows, the bottoms of which were 10,000 or 12,000 feet below the summits of the ridges." The evidence on which this assumed rudeness of the outline of the ancient earth rests is of a very doubtful nature. If the existing mountains of Switzerland were lowered beneath the level of the sea and their valleys filled by stratified deposits, the naturalist who should study them after their subsequent re-elevation, might as justly come to the notion that the surface of the earth in our day was extraordinarily rugged and uneven, as our author does from the study of the pre Cambrian beds of Great Britain. No such evidence of extraordinary ruggedness in the pre-Cambrian land is afforded by the wide fields of those strata in North America.

Among the most important data used by the geologist in determining the history of continental areas are the accumulations of conglomerates which are plentifully distributed in the various geological horizons. On the theory as to the origin of these conglomerates must rest in large part the interpretation of the continental history. It seems to the present writer that our author has failed to apprehend the meaning of such extensive conglomerates as those of the Cambrian section in North America, as well as those of the Carboniferous and later ages. He apparently does not see how necessary it is to suppose that these vast thicknesses of pebbly beds were the product of glacial action. He tacitly assumes that such wide fields of conglomerate were formed by the work done in the river basins and by the waves of the ocean. His failure to discuss this part of the evidence to the point of a satisfactory conclusion seems a defect in the method of his admirable treatise.

Throughout, our author assumes the existence of a continent of considerable size over the North Atlantic—land which endured from the earlier stages to relatively recent geological times. The evidence on which this assumption rests is extremely limited and of a very unsatisfactory character. All the facts can be sufficiently accounted for on the assumption of a considerable island or an archipelago to the northwest of the British Isles, occupying but a small part of what is now the Atlantic area. The difference between the organic species fossil in the rocks of North America from the palæozoic ages, and those of Europe of like age, leads the palæontologist rather to the assumption that there has generally been deep water in the North Atlantic, which afforded a barrier to the free intercourse of the organic forms of the shallow water near the shore. If there had been during these ages a continuous seashore from Europe to North America, it seems unlikely that such a separation in the species would have occurred. In the present state of our knowledge, it is a matter of uncertainty whether there was such a land or no. Its existence should not be assumed as a basis for other hypotheses.

In treating of the last glacial period, our author asserts that "there is no doubt that what took place in the last glacial period was simply an extension of the glacial conditions which now exist in the polar regions." In the present condition of the controversy as to the conditions of glacial time, this appears to us a very unsupported statement. Clearly, our author would not maintain that the existing glaciers in Switzerland or New Zealand imply simply the extension of glaciers which now exist in the Polar regions to the places in question. The character of the land mammals which lived upon the continent of North America during the glacial period appears to indicate the existence of a plentiful vegetation close up to the ice sheet. It seems more than possible that, so far from being essentially like the existing arctic climate, that of the glacial period differed decidedly from the present circumpolar conditions, in that the rainfall was very great and the cold by no means extreme. This and many other like criticisms on the details of this book will be made by geologists. Glacialists in particular will object to many of its statements concerning the last ice time. Nevertheless, the work is admirable in its conception, and is executed in a skilful and vigorous manner. It is by far the most important contribution to geologic science which the year 1888 gave us. The book is well printed; the maps are, however, insufficient, and the index fails to give a clue to the abundant store of facts contained in the volume.

At Home and in War. By Alexander Verestchagin. Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

THE naïve egotism which permeates the pages of 'At Home and in War' is partly racial, and partly an individual possession of Colonel Verestchagin. To a book descriptive of scenes and people unfamiliar to us, this quality, through which we are let into many secrets, is not detrimental, yet no human characteristic can easily become more offensive. When a sense of self-importance prompts the author minutely to describe his father's estates and the life and customs of lord and serf, it is very valuable; but when it assumes that the public will be as much interested in his existence from infancy up as he was himself, it becomes, to say the least, fatiguing. Not even the photographs of the family with which the book is thoughtfully embellished, persuade us to care about what the Verestchagins ate and wore, or whether they ate or dressed at all.

When the author leaves home for war, he has less time for self-contemplation and becomes more interesting. He took part both in the Balkan war and the later Tekke campaign. In the former he was closely attached to the great "white general," Skobeleff. Being no worshipper of heroes, outside of the Verestchagin family, he does not hesitate frankly to express his opinions of famous men. Thus his portraits are vivid, and seem to have that discrimination which makes historical value. He exposes official corruption with commendable fearlessness, and directly imputes to the negligence and greed of people in power many of the appalling horrors of war. The picturesque and impressive in nature affect him deeply, and the pageantry of moving hosts made up of a dozen semi-barbarous races does not escape him. His sense for dramatic situations is quick and correct, and he describes tragic incidents with spirit and effect. The pages are strewn with personal anecdotes more or less worth telling.

One of these, in view of Skobeleff's sudden death, bears quotation. Two soldiers had just been buried in an Asiatic desert, and the priest concluding the service exclaimed: "And the glory of man is as a smoke which vanisheth." Skobeleff, riding back to camp from the graves, said to an officer, Baranok: "See here, Alexei Nikititch, that pope was tipsy, but he told the truth when he said, 'The glory of man is as a smoke that vanisheth.'" Two years later the General was dining in Duzzeau's hotel at Moscow, and turning to Baranok he said, "Do you remember Alexei Nikititch—'And the glory of man is as a smoke that vanisheth?'" Four hours later Skobeleff was no longer among the living.

Force and Energy: A Theory of Dynamics. By Grant Allen. Longmans. 1888. Pp. xiv., 161.

WHEN Mr. Grant Allen was writing the preface to this small book on a great subject, he must have had very vividly before his mind the fact that critics are a thick-skinned and hard-hearted race. Not once, but twice and thrice, does he profess his expectation of being summarily put out of court, and his humble resolve to take his sentence meekly and for ever after hold his peace ; not briefly, but with great detail, and with much dwelling upon the peculiar circumstances, does he explain how he happened to publish this book, in spite of his extreme reluctance to come before the world with radically new theories on a subject of which he does not profess to be in any sense a master ; until, at last, the most relentless persecutor of paradoxers begins to feel some stirrings of mercy, and to resolve that, whatever may be said of the offence, the offender at least shall, for the nonce, be treated gently.

It appears that the essential elements of the

theory expounded in this volume were contained in a pamphlet printed for private circulation by Mr. Allen some years ago. The physicists to whom Mr. Allen sent the pamphlet—or those of them who communicated their opinion of it to the author—came to one of two conclusions, which to the author seemed, naturally enough, to be contradictory. Some told him that his theory contained nothing but what was perfectly well known; others, that his theory was in conflict with what was perfectly well known. Unfortunately, however, it is the peculiar distinction of paradoxers upon subjects of this kind, that they are able to combine these two qualities in one and the same theoretical venture. It is not merely that "what is new is not true, and what is true is not new," but that the self-same thing is neither new nor true. The way in which this feat is accomplished is not so mysterious as one might at first blush suppose that it must be; all that is necessary is, that one should have got hold of the general ideas of an accepted theory in an exact science, but not have grasped its precise significance. There are some men who, having reached this stage, think that the most hopeful thing to do next is to remove any imperfections that exist in their vague conception of the theory, by such convenient interpretation of it as may enable it to "solve the universe" with all desirable expedition. And so it comes about that when the result of their meditations is published, it is found that what they suppose a new theory is nothing but the old theory so imperfectly conceived and so vaguely expressed that it is not surprising that those who are well informed should hesitate whether the verdict should be "not new" or "not true."

This is just what Mr. Allen has done for the doctrine of the conservation of energy. It is impossible to say from internal evidence whether the author has or has not any conception of the fact that the great theorem of the conservation of energy is a theorem relating to something which can be numerically measured. At any rate, he says nothing anywhere about its measure. Disdaining to mention so subordinate a matter, and treating in the same way everything else which comes into the domain of numbers or of geometry, he strides on, scoring triumph after triumph in the profusion of capital initials spread over his pages, until the critic forgets the modest preface and repents of his momentary weakness. Does Mr. Allen not know that without exact definitions of the meaning of his terms, so that the things they refer to may be numerically measured in a definite way, his grand generalizations are nonsense? That, without them, to say that "the total amount of Power, aggregative or separative, in the Universe, is a constant quantity, and no Power can ever disappear or be destroyed," is mere empty sound? We do not, by any means, assert that the author is unaware of this; what we do venture to say is, that if he had undertaken to express his theories in that precise language in which any theory of dynamics must be expressed in order to be truly intelligible, he would have been better able to appreciate how much of their novelty arises from their vagueness.

It is not worth while to enter into detailed criticism of a book every page of which betrays its author's unconsciousness of the fundamental conditions of research in the department of which he is writing. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that there is not a single argument in the book which, so far as its mode of thought is concerned, might not have been written in the time of Aristotle. There are, indeed, plenty of good illustrations of modern doctrines; but the doctrines themselves are given the loose and metaphysical character which belongs to two thousand years ago. Surely, whatever tolerance physicists may be expected to extend to ingenuous innovators, they have a right to demand that he who wishes to reform their science shall betray some sense of the meaning of that great intellectual conquest—perhaps the most brilliant in the history of the human mind—which began with Galileo and reached its culmination in Newton. They may be willing to listen to the most daring novelties; but they can hardly be expected to give them much heed when the propounder of them writes in the pre-Galilean spirit, and does not even seem to be conscious of it. To Mr. Allen and his kind, nothing fitter can be said than these words of Clifford's: "It is true in all departments of human action that reform is the most precious and sacred prerogative of a citizen; but in order to have that prerogative one must be a citizen, not an alien; and one must act like a citizen in a legitimate and constitutional way."

Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ, uitgegeven door Dr. Paul Fredericq en zijne Leerlingen. Vol. I. Ghent. 1889. New York: F. W. Christern.

THE learned professor of the University of Ghent has at length issued the first portion of his long-promised collection of documents concerning the persecution of heresy in the Low Countries. It is a massive contribution to the history of the subject, forming an octavo volume of nearly 650 pages, and giving the text of 446 official papers or extracts from chronicles, with abstracts of their contents. The period covered is from the beginning of mediæval heresy in 1025 to the outbreak of the Reformation in 1520, and the conscientious exhaustiveness of the work may be estimated from the appended list of sources, MS. and printed, amounting to 233, and forming an invaluable bibliography of Netherlandish mediæval history. Only those who have undertaken a task of the kind can appreciate the persistent industry requisite thus to search out the fragments imbedded in masses of irrelevant matter, and to gather them together in orderly sequence, so that each may reflect light upon the others.

Yet the most generally interesting portion of Dr. Fredericq's work is to come. The five centuries which he has thus traversed contain the records only of scattered and unresisting heretics—Catharans, Waldenses, Lollards, and the like—who lay in hiding and suffered in silence. The succeeding three-quarters of a century will present to us the great awakening of the human intelligence, when heresy grew bold through numbers and became a political factor; when for every heretic who perished, ten sprang up from the martyr's blood; when persecution, stimulated to the utmost, had at last to confess its ineffectiveness to control the conscience of a whole people. In the annals of mankind there are few periods more inspiring to the lover of spiritual freedom than that in which the might of Charles V. and Philip II. proved powerless to check the development of thought, and physical force exhausted itself in the vain endeavor to control the moral forces. To illustrate this period in the same thorough manner, with the same absolute command of all the sources as is displayed in the present volume, will be a service of incomparable value to the student. This first instalment only renders us more desirous of the second, and we can but hope that Dr. Fredericq will not make us wait too long for it. Probably no epoch has been so thoroughly worked over by native scholars as that of the Reformation in the Netherlands, and it is not probable that much MS. material of importance remains to be discovered; but the documents are scattered through an endless series of volumes, transactions of learned societies, and periodicals beyond the reach of all but the most favored students. Such a guide through the labyrinth as Dr. Fredericq can furnish will be most gratefully welcomed by all who recognize that, if history is to be anything but romance, it must rest upon absolute facts.

Religionsgeschichtliche Untersuchungen. Von Hermann Usener. 1er Theil. Das Weihnachtsfest. 2er Theil: Christlicher Festbrauch, Schriften des ausgehenden Mittelalters. Bonn: Max Cohen & Sohn.

No festival of the Christian Church is so popular or so universally observed as that of Christmas; and yet it is a well-known fact that the early Christians not only did not celebrate the birth of Christ on the 25th of December, but had no birthday festival at all, the great holidays of the primitive Church being Easter and Whitsunday, the anniversaries of the resurrection and of the foundation of the Church. The investigation of the times and circumstances of the origin of the Christmas festival leads one upon ground which the theologian can hardly tread without assuming a polemical attitude, and such an attitude almost inevitably leads to a distortion of the truth. It is, therefore, a matter for general congratulation that this work has been undertaken by a layman, especially as that layman is the one man best fitted to cope with the difficulties of his task. Prof. Usener, some of whose work in the field of early Christian legend has been noticed in the *Nation* (vol. xliv., No. 1123, p. 15), has lately published under the above title the results of long and diligent study of the MSS. and other sources of information concerning the introduction of the Christmas festival.

Until the middle of the fourth century, Christmas was not separated from Epiphany, and Prof. Usener, therefore, devotes a large part of his book to the discussion of the festival of January 6. He proves, with his customary historical accuracy and philological acumen, that neither the story of the baptism of Christ nor that of his birth was an original part of any of the three synoptic Gospels, but that they (or the originals from which they are derived) began, like the lost Gospel of Marcion, with the beginning of Christ's teaching. The baptism of Jesus is referred to in the Acts of the Apostles, but St. Paul knows nothing of it, nor of his miraculous birth. It is impossible to follow here the details of Prof. Usener's arguments, or even to give a complete summary of his results, of which some are new, while others confirm those of previous writers. He shows, apparently with conclusive evidence, that the first part of our canonic Gospel was added at so late a time (probably early in the second century) that but little confidence can be placed in it. His investigation is, however, inspired by no hostility to Christianity, but by real love of truth, as is shown by his own words:

"As surely as it is a God of light and truth whom we adore, so surely are we doing true and acceptable service to God in purifying and cleansing from the human inventions which darken it the truth of the religion we profess. Where it is possible to know, it becomes immoral to confine one's self to belief and opinion. It is painful to give up the heavenly images of our youth, far more painful to disturb the faith of others. We must bear that like men, in the confidence that the divine kernel of our religion, freed from the human additions of fancy and dogma, will prove itself to coming

riper generations only the more efficient as a fount of salvation and a pinion to raise them to God."

Epiphany began to be celebrated as the anniversary of the baptism of Jesus early in the second century, and the celebration of his birth was soon united with that of his baptism. This double festival attained to great importance among the feasts of the Church, especially in the East. The first celebration of Christmas in Rome as a holiday distinct from Epiphany took place in the year 354, but the new festival was not accepted by the Church of Jerusalem before 451. The story that the day of the birth of Christ was discovered by the investigations of Julius I., undertaken at the request of Cyril, Bishop of Jerusalem, is a mere invention.

As it is difficult to discuss part of a problem without throwing some light upon the rest, no one will wonder that the discussion of Epiphany and Christmas leads Prof. Usener to mention other days of the Church calendar. So the *litania minor* before the day of the ascension is shown to have taken the place of the Roman *ambarvalia*, and the *litania minor* of the 25th of April that of the *Robigalia*. The observance of Candlemas (February 2), too, is of heathen origin, being a survival of the Roman *amburbale*.

As Part II. of his 'Untersuchungen,' Prof. Usener publishes, with a masterly introduction, a Latin MS. in the library of Wolfenbüttel, which contains a description by a presbyter named Alsso of the Christmas practices of the Bohemians at the beginning of the fifteenth century, and Alsso's notes on the Bohemian observance of St. John's Day. Prof. Usener adds parts of Johannes of Holleschau's *Largum Sero*, and a curious list of questions to be asked in the confessional concerning vulgar superstitions. This list is contained in a MS. of the library in Munich, and is unusually interesting to the student of folk-lore on account of the light it throws upon the superstitious practices and popular beliefs of the Bavarians. Prof. Usener promises to continue his contributions to religious history, and every student of religion, ecclesiastical history, or folk-lore must join in the wish that nothing may interfere with the fulfilment of his promise.

The History of Fairfield, Fairfield County, Connecticut, from the Settlement of the Town in 1639 to 1818. By Mrs. Elizabeth Hubbell Schenck. Vol I. New York: Published by the Author. 1889. Sq. 8vo, pp. 423.

It appears from the preface that in 1880 the author of this work was requested by a number of the inhabitants of Fairfield to write the history of the town. The present volume carries the record to 1700, and a second volume is promised. We desire to congratulate the town upon having so good an historian, and we trust that every inhabitant who can afford it will become a subscriber. But as a reviewer we must record our regret at the scale on which the history has been projected. That the author has read and observed much is evident, but nine-tenths of her book has only the most remote relation to the special history of Fairfield. She has written a history of Connecticut in the eighteenth century, but the local flavor is gone. There is indeed much told about the town, but it is so overlaid by the extraneous matter that one can hardly separate it. So far as we can judge, the local history is unimportant, or valuable chiefly to the natives. But that is true of most other towns in New England, whose annals are uneventful and very much confined to a genealogical interest. We regret that Mrs. Schenck has been unwilling to give more space to family history, for she is evidently able to do good work in this direction. As an example, we would refer to what she prints about the pedigree of Gov. Roger Ludlow.

We can only say that the book probably contains all that can be found respecting Fairfield, and that the reader will be well repaid for perusing the whole contents attentively, unless he has already made himself familiar with the general history of the period. The second volume is to contain, undoubtedly, more particular records of lands and persons in the last century.

Practical Heraldry, or an Epitome of English Armory, etc. By Charles Worthy, Esq. Scribner & Welford. 1889. 16mo, pp. 250.

With all tenderness for a writer upon a subject which attracts but a small audience, we fail to see the object of this publication. Heraldry is a completed science, and new handbooks are justifiable only when they present some happy method of arrangement or condensation, or are enriched by new illustrations and examples from rare manuscripts. Mr. Worthy's book has none of these merits, being diffuse and unmethodical, while his illustrations are simply execrable. The only novelty is the insertion of some instructions as to the preparation of a pedigree. In regard to these we can only say that no man entitled to such a pedigree as he imagines, would be so ignorant of general matters as to need a guide to such preliminaries. No one, who, like most of us, is of a family unrecorded in Heralds' College, can get any useful information out of the book. Mr. Worthy intimates the possibility of a second edition; we advise him to revise his book, to remodel it, procure some new woodcuts from a good artist—and then to leave to his executors the task of issuing the volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balg, G. H. Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with especial reference to English and German. Part 6. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Brownell, W. C. French Traits: an Essay in Comparative Criticism. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Bruce, P. A. The Plantation Negro as a Freeman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Bunner, H. C. A Woman of Honor. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Cobb, S., jr. The Painter of Parma. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Compton, W. C. Cæsar's Seventh Campaign in Gaul. London: George Bell & Sons.
Gagnebin, Madame. A Happy Find. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.25.
Garrison, Gertrude. The Wrong Man: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Gibson, R. J. H. A Textbook of Elementary Biology. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Gilchrist, Frederika Beardsley. The True Story of Hamlet and Ophelia. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Gosse, E. History of 18th Century Literature. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Halévy, L. A Love Match. John Delay. 30 cents.
Hardy, E. G. C. Plinii Cæcilii Secundi Epistulæ ad Traianum Imperatorem cum ejusdem Responsis. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.
Hare, Dr. J. I. C. American Constitutional Law. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Hawthorne, N. Tales of the White Hills, and Sketches. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Heimburg, W. Gertrude's Marriage. Worthington Co. 75 cents.
Janau, E. French Commercial Correspondence. For the Use of Schools. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Janvier, T. A. The Mexican Guide. 4th ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Jefferies, R. Field and Hedgerow: Last Essays, collected by his Widow. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Jusserand, J. J. English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.
King, H. T. Essays. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Leach, O. The State and Local Government of New York, with the Text of its Constitution. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Le Cato, N. J. W. Aunt Sally's Boy Jack: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Lectures on the Augsburg Confession, on the Holman Foundation. First Series. 1866–1886. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $3.
Lee, Mary C. A Quaker Girl of Nantucket. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lester, H. F. Hartas Maturin: A Novel. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Macquoid, Mrs. K. S. Miss Eyon of Eyon Court. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Maupassant, G. de. Afloat (Sur l'Eau). Illustrated. George Routledge & Son. $1.50.
McCosh, Rev. J. First and Fundamental Truths: being a Treatise on Metaphysics. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
McNutt, C. F. Broken Lives. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Messmer, J. J. Red Carl. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.25.
Middlemass, J. The Maddoxes. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Miller, Annie Jenness. 'Twixt Love and Law: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Mills, C. De B. The Tree of Mythology, its Growth and Fruitage. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Montague, F. C. Life of Sir Robert Peel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Morris, L. The Epic of Hades. 26th ed. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Murray, D. C., and H. A Dangerous Catspaw. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
My Prisons: Memoirs of Silvio Pellico. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Naurouze, J. La Mission de Philbert. [Les Bardeur-Carbansane: Histoire d'une famille pendant cent ans.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Newell, C. M. The Isle of Palms. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Noel, Hon. R. A Modern Faust, and Other Poems. Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
Our Legacy. Boston: Am. Unitarian Association.
Perez, B. The First Three Years of Childhood. Edited and Translated by Alice M. Christie. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Proceedings at the 15th Annual Session of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, 1888. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 7, 1889.

The Week.

THE last veto message of President Cleveland, that of the Direct-Tax Bill, is a document which will be cited in history as a worthy rounding-off of his Administration. In every way it is characteristic of him as a President who, on important occasions, was as fearless in defending the best interests of the people as he was free from all taint of demagogism. The bill was a thoroughly bad one, and owed its being solely to the appetite born of the large surplus in the Treasury. It pretended to be a proposition to refund to the States the direct tax legally and constitutionally paid by them to the Government in 1861. There was no more reason for paying this back to the States than for returning to them the money which they pay to the Government in customs duties. The effect of the bill would have been to bestow upon the States and Territories named $17,000,000, in a way which the President forcibly and accurately calls a "sheer, bald gratuity." He shows very clearly that such a bestowal would be unconstitutional, and argues with great force against the unfairness and unjust discriminations of the bill, and the disturbing idea which it would introduce by going against the principle that the power of taxation by the Government should only be used in "cases where its necessity and justice are not doubtful." It was equally noteworthy and characteristic that the Senate should at once pass the bill over the veto almost as soon as received, by a vote of forty-five to nine. That fact also will be recorded in history as revealing the recklessness and fondness for extravagant legislation which most distinguish the Senate of the present day. It should be said that even the extreme partisanship of Senator Edmunds was not strong enough so to overbalance his judgment as a constitutional lawyer as to induce him to vote with the majority. He was one of the nine who sustained the veto.

Secretary Fairchild's ways in Custom-house administration are inscrutable. Consequently we shall attempt no explanation of his sending into Congress, on the last day of his term of office, charges of wholesale corruption, still unsupported by any proof, against the Custom-house officers of this port, and of Philadelphia, and of San Francisco. Of these establishments he has himself been for three years the official and responsible chief. It was his duty, *and his principal duty*, to see that they were manned in a proper manner, that the duties in each of them were honestly collected, and that persons guilty of fraud in them were arrested, indicted, and tried before Federal courts. Not one prosecution has he instituted. No proper inquiry by a competent tribunal into the condition of these great Government offices has he made. Instead of this, he has begun to publish to the world within the last three months that President Cleveland's administration has absolutely failed in its principal function, and that it leaves the chief Government offices honeycombed with corruption. Of course, Senator Ingalls himself could desire nothing better than this as an excuse for "a clean sweep" in every department of the Government. What President Cleveland and the Democratic managers have been thinking about—supposing them to look ahead at all—in letting the Secretary go on with his "statements" and explanations we cannot imagine. It would have done the Administration great honor to have overhauled the custom-houses three years ago, by competent investigators, and reformed them, if reform they needed. But think of making no reform at all, and simply hurling insult and denunciation at the principal Government employees just as the Democratic President is packing his trunks to leave the White House! Has the like of it ever been known in political history?

One of the most important and gratifying features of the inaugural address is its silence upon a subject which occupied a large space in the similar address delivered by Mr. Harrison's last Republican predecessor. Gen. Garfield spoke at length of ignorance in the voter, and especially of illiteracy in the South; declared that the nation was "under special obligations to aid in removing the illiteracy which it has added to the voting population"; and affirmed that "all the constitutional power of the nation and of the States, and all the volunteer forces of the people, should be summoned to meet this danger by the saving influence of universal education." This was a committal of the Administration to the policy of Federal aid to education in the South, as proposed by the Blair bill. Mr. Harrison has been earnestly importuned to make a similar declaration in favor of action by the nation in the matter of education in the South, but he has refused to do so. "If in any of the States," he says, "the public security is thought to be threatened by ignorance among the electors, the obvious remedy is education," and he adds: "The sympathy and help of our people will not be withheld from any community struggling with special embarrassments or difficulties connected with the suffrage, if the remedies proposed proceed upon lawful lines and are promoted by just and honorable methods." That the new President means by this expression only what Gen. Garfield called "all the volunteer forces of the people," and rejects the idea of Federal legislation in that direction, is made clear by his significant omission even to mention appropriations for education as a means of reducing the revenue, although he does mention and recommend such other methods as enlarging the navy, subsidizing steamship lines, and lengthening the pension roll.

President Harrison's silence upon this question shows that reflection has only strengthened the sound view which he took in a speech upon the Blair bill March 25, 1884, when he said: "The only permanent reliance for the education of the masses must be upon local taxation in the States; every one concedes that. One dollar voted by the people of any school district for the support of common schools is worth $10 given out of the Treasury of the United States. It evinces an interest in education, and guarantees a careful and intelligent supervision. Only a local supervision and interest will bring these constituencies that are now so backward in the race of education abreast with other States. In my judgment, there could be no worse policy than to throw in a single year into those States $15,000,000 out of the National Treasury." The refusal of the new Administration to endorse the policy of Federal aid to education in the South leaves that mistaken scheme to be buried under the rapidly growing load of popular disapproval. It has been severely condemned by the leading educators of the country, including such prominent champions of negro education in the South as Gen. Armstrong of Hampton; it is now vigorously denounced by a large proportion of the leading Republican newspapers of the nation, and advocated by scarcely one; it was stoutly opposed by prominent Republicans from both the East and the West when last before the Senate; and the tide of educated public sentiment now sets steadily and strongly against it. There is good reason to hope that, when it next comes before Congress, it will be beaten by the Senate, once for all.

Rumors of "war" upon the new Administration fill the air in every direction. "Steve" Elkins is said to have returned from Washington in a towering rage because he offered the new President some advice which was not accepted. The Republican Senators are said to be full of wrath because their advice about the Cabinet has not been asked. "Tom" Platt is said to be brooding in secret and sharpening his "knife" for vengeance because he has been left out of the Cabinet. About Warner Miller there are conflicting rumors. One set represent him as serene, because he assured Gen. Harrison immediately after election that he did not wish a Cabinet position. Another set represent him as sad, but consoled by the reflection that he is no worse off than Platt is, for both of them are lying "outside the breastworks." Probably all the rumors about them and other Republican leaders are largely imaginary, but there is visible behind them all a tremendous determination in the minds of all those disappointed about the Cabinet to get even by securing a share in the offices about to be distributed. The Platt-Miller tussle over the Cabinet will now shift to the Custom-house, for example, and in

various other directions there is likely to be a scramble which will make the President think Cabinet-making mere child's play in comparison.

Whatever may be Col. Dudley's reputation outside the Republican party, his popularity in the party was obviously never so great. At the National Convention of Republican Clubs last week his name was repeatedly cheered, and he was thanked by special resolution for his services in aiding President Harrison's election. At the Spellbinders' banquet in Washington on Saturday evening, at which Col. Elliott F. Shepard, the most religious Republican in the world, presided, Dudley received equal honor. According to the *Tribune's* report, "Col. Dudley's name was cheered between every course by the enthusiastic Spellbinders." No reasons are given for this admiration, but possibly it is because Dudley has thus far succeeded in eluding all attempts to have him explain his famous "floater" letter. Why a fervid Christian like Col. Shepard should lead in paying such signal honor to a man who is accused, over his own signature, of "buying floaters in blocks of five" to vote for Harrison, and who refuses to say whether or not the accusation is true, we do not know. The only man whom the Colonel has ever rebuked for the use of money in an election is John J. O'Brien, and he rebuked him warmly, not for using the money, but for basely failing to use it. Possibly he and the Spellbinders are cheering Dudley's name because he did not put the money of good religious Republicans in his own pocket, but sent it on its pious mission to the pockets of "floaters."

In the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday week, Mr. Ainsworth, a stanch Republican, chairman of the Appropriations Committee which has been investigating the ceiling scandal, made the following remarkable statement:

"We all know that politics was here last year thicker than the panels above us in this ceiling, and this bill was introduced to this house for the purpose of getting something through that would take out a pine forest that sustained the dangerous ceiling, and the question was, Shall we put it into Mr. Perry's hands? Then politics came up. Then the question was, Shall we put it into Andrews's hands? and politics came up. Then the question was, Shall we make a commission? and politics came up again. I consulted Senator Sloan, and he thought Mr. Perry should do the work. We canvassed the House to see if we could carry it with Mr. Perry's name in it, and we found we could not. And the only reason a commission was attached to this bill was for the simple purpose of taking care of the politics that was in the job on the eve of a Presidential election. Isn't that true? It was an unwise thing to do it. We ought not to have done it. If politics had been allowed to take care of themselves, and the charge of the construction had been given where it ought to have been given, to Commissioner Perry, the incoming President would be a Democrat, and we would have no occasion to go to the inauguration of Gen. Harrison next week."

How could the $100,000 or more which was stolen on the ceiling job have secured Gen. Harrison's election? Let us review the history of the job briefly and see. Mr. Ainsworth says truthfully that a commission was decided upon in order to let "politics" in. The bill creating the Commission passed the Assembly and remained in the hands of Gov. Hill for thirty days. He gave it a great deal of thought, and did not sign it till he knew who was to constitute the Commission, and who was to be put in charge of the work. There was, in short, a perfect understanding between the Democratic Governor and the Republican managers in the Assembly, as to the way in which the job was to be executed. The Commission, composed of three Republicans and two Democrats, all members of the Assembly, from the beginning to the end paid no attention whatever to the work, leaving it entirely in the hands of the Superintendent of Public Buildings, Mr. Andrews, who is a Democrat and a subservient agent of Gov. Hill. When the job was finished, it was discovered to be an outrageous swindle, by which the State had been robbed of at least $100,000.

The Assembly, after trying vainly to stave off investigation, had to let some of the truth come out. Mr. Ainsworth's committee, in spite of the most strenuous exertions of its chairman to keep the full truth from being known, was obliged to report that there had been fraud, and that the Commission and the Superintendent had been guilty of gross neglect of duty. The Assembly, in a spurt of virtuous indignation, called for the removal of the Superintendent. The Board of Trustees of Public Buildings, which has the power to remove him, is composed of Gov. Hill, Lieut.-Gov. Jones, Democrats, and the Speaker of the Assembly, Mr. Cole, who is also Chairman of the Ceiling Commission. They have thus far refused to remove him. Here are "politics" in bewildering profusion, and about equally divided between Democrats and Republicans. We have Mr. Ainsworth's word for it that the great result of the combination was the election of Gen. Harrison. He ought to have added "and of Gov. Hill." His explanation of the ceiling job is nothing less than a confession that it was concocted by the Governor and the Republican managers for the mutual benefit of Hill and Harrison. The State was robbed of $100,000 for the benefit of a "deal" by which the Republicans were to defeat their own candidate for Governor, and the Democratic candidate for Governor was in return to defeat the Democratic candidate for President. It is not the first time that such a "deal" has been hinted at, though it is the first full confession of its actual existence. That Gov. Hill would consent to enter into such an agreement, nobody who remembers his aqueduct "deal" can doubt. He did precisely the same kind of thing at that time, and the men who represented the Republican party in that agreement to plunder the State are the men who stand foremost in this State in that section of the Republican party which is now showing that it has the upper hand of the new President.

Two noteworthy deliverances on the subject of pensions have been made recently by Union soldiers. One was by Gen. J. D. Cox of Ohio, who, in an address at Chicago on Washington's Birthday, made an earnest protest against the demand for indiscriminate pensions and the cheapening of patriotism which such a policy involves, saying: "When I think of this, I long for some trusted leader to plant the colors at the front, that we may rally on them as in the crisis of a great battle. I long for a voice, potent as Sheridan's on the road to Winchester, crying like his: 'Face the other way, boys! Face the other way; *that* way lies dishonor.'" The other address was made by Joseph W. Fifer before the annual encampment of the Illinois Department of the Grand Army in Springfield, last week. "We have an overflowing treasury," he said, "and a surplus increase of over $100,000,000 annually, a burden scarcely felt by the people; and the Government that would not, under these circumstances, provide liberally for its defenders is not fit to exist, and should be blotted from the family of nations. *If the Government paid $1,000,000 daily for pensions, the nation as a nation would be just as rich at the end of the year as it was before, as the money would still be in the hands of our own people.*" Unfortunately, Jacob D. Cox is an ex-Governor, who has no influence with the controlling elements in the Republican party, while Joseph W. Fifer is the newly elected Governor of his State, chosen after a campaign in which a demand for more liberal pensions was one of the chief rallying-cries of the successful party.

Attempts to have the law of libel amended in the interest of the newspapers are being made in various States, notably Massachusetts, Maine, Michigan, and Ohio. That it needs amendment there is no question. The bill introduced in Wisconsin is the best we have seen. It does away with the legal presumption of malice, which in nine cases out of ten is absurd, forbids the recovery of any but actual damages sustained where actual malice is not proved, and forbids the bringing of any action for libel unless the plaintiff shall have asked for a retraction or correction; but it makes the retraction or correction pleadable in mitigation of damages, and bars all suits begun by lawyers for a contingent fee. This last provision would keep a very large proportion of the libel suits off the calendar of the courts. The Wisconsin bill is very much preferable to the Massachusetts and Pennsylvania bills, in that it does not make retraction or correction a complete defence. The Massachusetts bill would really leave every man in the community at the mercy of the Billy McGlory journalists, who are in the business (and proclaim it loudly) for money only, and do not care how they get it. They would print any story about anybody that would be likely to increase "sales," and then get off scot free and increase sales still further by printing a correction, probably a jocose one, a day or two later. For instance, there is much more money to be got by saying that the Rev. Dr. Toogood has eloped with his cook and then "correcting" it,

than there is by saying nothing whatever about Dr. Toogood or his cook. Consequently, on accepted journalistic principles, the Doctor would be made to elope with the cook just as often as sales were "slack." The true plan is to leave every man who thinks himself libelled his remedy at law, as he now has it, but saddle him with every condition necessary to insure good faith in bringing the suit, and then let correction or retraction, coupled with the character of the journal sued, have its proper weight with the jury, which it generally has.

The woman-suffrage question came before the Maine Legislature on Thursday on a proposition to give the sex the ballot in municipal elections. The matter has aroused considerable interest during the preliminary discussions, a notable feature of the case having been the presentation of a number of remonstrances against the proposed change from women. Ex-Gov. Robie, the leader of the House, made a long speech in favor of the bill, but it was defeated by a vote of 90 to 40. The friends of the cause will be somewhat disappointed at the poor showing which it made, because it indicates that the large vote cast by women at the Boston school election last December has not strengthened the movement as much as they hoped. It appeared possible then that the Republicans might take up this extension of the suffrage as a party measure, but the tone of the press in New England, as well as this vote in the Maine House, shows that no such step will be taken at present. On the eve of the decision at Augusta, the Republican organ published at the capital came out with an earnest protest against the bill, on the ground that "female suffrage would surely defeat its own avowed objects, and in the end render the government of cities, States, and nations more difficult and more perilous." The Boston *Journal*, the chief Republican newspaper in Massachusetts, is equally opposed to the change, and it is evident that for the present the movement in New England will be left to make headway without organized support from either of the great parties.

While it has become with us a question how to discourage and restrict immigration, the leading nations of South America are vying with each other in offering inducements to colonists from Europe. The result is a very marked increase in the number of newcomers, in the last few years, in Chili, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic. The last named country received upwards of 175,000 immigrants in 1888, and confidently looks for more than 200,000 in the current year. The nationalities represented are mainly Italians, Spanish, and French, in the order named. French emigration to the Plate River is astonishingly on the increase, so much so as to win the anxious attention of economists like Leroy-Beaulieu, who are asking why this great diversion of French labor should not go to French colonies, as it notably is not going. What troubles the Argentines, however, is that so small a portion of the immigrants—only about 10 per cent.—devote themselves to agriculture. They see clearly enough that it is only the rapid development of their natural resources that can enable them to pay for the vast system of internal improvements now under way. Over 5,000 miles of railway were under construction last year, and 3,000 more are planned for 1889; but this means an addition of $75,000,000 to the national debt. Ten thousand houses were built in Buenos Ayres in 1888, and the city now has a population of nearly half a million; but this means, just as does the enormous premium on gold, a feverish commercial speculation, which is distinctly in no need of encouragement. So strongly does the Government feel that more labor is wanted, not for railroads and harbors, but for farms, that it is seriously proposing to restrict immigration, of Italians at least, to those who will give themselves to agriculture.

Brazil, in like manner, is coming forward to take our place, if we definitely abandon it, as an asylum for the overcrowded and oppressed of Europe. From an average immigration of but 27,390 a year for ten years, the figures leaped in 1888 to 130,000 in the two ports of Rio and Santos alone. The incoming tide is not alone directed, as before, to the provinces of the south, but to those of the north and of the centre as well. A part of this quickened immigration seems to be due to the abolition of slavery. Europeans were reluctant to go as laborers to a country where the bulk of manual labor was servile. Now all laborers are equal before the law. But much also must be attributed to the provisions made by the empire to attract foreigners as settlers. Every immigrant coming with a family and proposing to follow agriculture is given free transportation from the port at which he disembarks to the point where he is to settle, with free support for eight days thrown in. If he prefers to join one of the Government colonies, he has support and wages guaranteed to him until the time of his first harvest. Bureaus of information have been established in various cities of Europe to make known the advantages of Brazil to intending emigrants, though rigid care is taken to prevent such scandals as have been seen in connection with Italian emigration, by the prohibition of any commissions to the agents.

The point which the London *Standard* raises against Parnell, and by which other people in London seem to be impressed, is that Parnell has himself to blame for his sufferings because he did not bring an action against the *Times* to disprove the authenticity of the letters. But this notion cannot have originated with anybody who has considered the difficulty, not to say the impossibility, of proving a negative. To the assertion that he signed a certain letter, Parnell could only oppose his naked denial, unless he knew the history of the letter—who produced it, and, in fact, *all* of the *Times's* reasons for thinking the signature genuine. This would have supplied, as it did subsequently supply, materials for exculpatory evidence. But the *Times* all along declared that it would not under any circumstances reveal the source of the letter, inasmuch as this would cause the murder of the person supplying it. But could not Parnell, in his suit, have extracted this information in cross-examination? He had no reason to think so. In the O'Donnell *agt.* Walter suit, the counsel for the *Times* declared in court that the proprietors would submit to the legal consequences, whatever they might be, of a refusal—that is, would, if necessary, let a verdict go against them and pay damages—sooner than say who gave them the documents. What Parnell had reasonably to fear was that damages awarded under such circumstances would be nominal, or, in other words, that the verdict would not vindicate him. For the chances were probably a hundred to one that a jury of London shopkeepers, after having been stuffed for a year or two by the *Times* with stories of Irish crime, and of the general wickedness of the Parnellites, would treat the excuse of the *Times* as a natural and proper one; would feel that "a great journal" like the *Times* might be trusted to act in such a matter in good faith and with proper caution; and send Parnell out of court with nominal damages, an enormous bill to his lawyers, and an additional stigma on his character for Tory journalists and orators to rub in at their leisure.

Pigott's suicide somewhat simplifies the situation in London, as each side accused the other of paying him to run away. The Irish—see Davitt's cable to Sullivan—said the Tories had bribed him to "clear out," while the friends of the *Times* maintained that the wicked Labouchere had done the same thing. He has vindicated the reputation of both by killing himself, because it is hardly probable that, corrupt as he was, he could have been hired to commit self-slaughter. The life of a blackmailer which he has led for the last twenty years, must, as Mr. Bryce is said to have remarked, have been an awful one—a punishment in itself. If it be true, too, that when Houston came to hire him to discover something about the Parnellites, he found him in the depths of poverty, with his wife lying unburied in the house for lack of money, one can hardly help pitying the old scoundrel. The more one learns about him, however, the worse does the case of his employers become. What the manager of the *Times*, Mr. Macdonald, and the astute solicitor, Mr. Soames, ought to do under the circumstances, it is hard to say. Americans, when beset by difficulties of this sort, "go to Europe till it blows over"; but where can a European go when he becomes an object of general ridicule and contempt? Mr. Smalley of the *Tribune* telegraphs that Mr. Buckle, the editor, is believed to be blameless—that he did all he could, including kneeling before Mr. Walter, to prevent the blunder of printing the letters; but he found that luminous intelligence absolutely inexorable. But this again, as to Mr. Buckle, is contradicted by Mr Labouchere.

THE CLEVELAND ADMINISTRATION.

THE late Administration met handsomely the most trying test to which it was subjected. For years half the people of the United States had been taught by their political guides that, if the other half should get into power, they would ruin the country. A large proportion of them had come to believe this. Very many white people at the North actually feared that, if Mr. Cleveland should be elected, "the Confederacy would be in the saddle"; that attempts would be made to pay the rebel debt and to pension the rebel soldiers; and that, by reason of all this, national prosperity would be destroyed, and their own property would not be worth half what it had been under Mr. Arthur. Many black people at the South really supposed that they would be put back into slavery. In short, in a country almost evenly divided in opinion, a large share of those who constituted one political organization regarded those who composed the other as foes to the nation, who would play havoc with all its interests if they should ever get control of the Government. This was a most terrible state of things, for, if these apprehensions were well founded, popular government had already proved a failure. It is the greatest credit of Mr. Cleveland's Administration that it has restored the ancient faith in our institutions, by demonstrating that either party can administer national affairs with success. The white Republicans of the North have suffered none of the ills which they feared, while the colored Republicans of the South have never seen an equal period since the war in which so much progress has been made in extending their educational advantages and promoting their general progress. Every Republican in the country to-day views the future with an equanimity which he never possessed before Mr. Cleveland became President, and by his wise and conservative course showed that patriotism and ability are not monopolized by one party.

Mr. Cleveland has materially advanced the cause of civil-service reform. The overthrow of the spoils system was not a thing to be achieved by a proclamation of emancipation and incorporated in an amendment to the Constitution. It must needs be a gradual process, making slow advances, step by step, as public sentiment extorted unwilling concessions from the hostile politicians. The passage of the Civil-Service Act, in a spasm of death-bed repentance, by the Forty-seventh Congress, after the stinging defeat of the Republicans in 1882, was one such step. Another most important one was made by Mr. Cleveland when he established the rule of allowing efficient incumbents holding under a four-years' term to serve out that term. From Jackson's day until Cleveland's, a "clean sweep" of such officials had been held proper. It had been made when the last previous change of parties occurred with Lincoln's accession in 1861. In 1885 the Democrats had been denied all chance at the Federal offices for a quarter of a century, and all the spoilsmen in the party wanted Cleveland to follow Lincoln's example and "turn the rascals out"—rascal meaning a Republican incumbent. He refused to do it, and long after the inauguration of a Democratic President hundreds of important and lucrative offices, scattered all over the country, remained in the hands of Republicans—each, as the months and often the years passed before the incumbent's term expired, an impressive object-lesson. These lessons have sunk deep into the public mind and have left an enduring impression. Neither Benjamin Harrison nor any other President will ever make a "clean sweep" of office-holders, good, bad, and indifferent, because Grover Cleveland broke up the practice. This is a great service, rendered at a cost of private comfort such as the liveliest imagination cannot easily exaggerate.

The Civil-Service Law has been, on the whole, well enforced, and large additions have been made to the classes under the rules, although the most important of these additions—that of the Railway Mail Service—was far too long delayed. In other relations to civil-service reform Mr. Cleveland was less successful. Whether consciously or not, he seems early to have conceived a notion of applying a sort of rude local-option principle to the subject. That is to say, where, as in New York city, in Brooklyn, and in Massachusetts, he found public sentiment pretty well educated on this question, he would live up pretty well to the spirit of his voluntary promises to the civil-service reformers by such acts as reappointing Postmaster Pearson of this city and three or four Republican postmasters in Massachusetts; appointing a new postmaster in Brooklyn, who, although a pronounced Democrat, proceeded to conduct the office strictly on business principles; and selecting a pronounced civil-service-reform Democrat for Collector of the Port of Boston. On the other hand, in States like Maryland and Indiana, he gave the spoilsmen almost as free a rein as Andrew Jackson had done two generations before, and appointments of the most disreputable sort were made in the Baltimore Custom-house and the Indianapolis Post-office. This was as serious a mistake from the political point of view as from that of the public interest. The partial concessions to the spoilsmen never overcame their disgust that the surrender had not been complete, while they dampened the enthusiasm among reformers which exhibitions of independence in some quarters had aroused. The result was that Mr. Cleveland lost strength with both elements. Even in Indiana, where there was supposed to be least sentiment in favor of reform, and where consequently least attention was paid to it, the Democrats lost several Congressional districts in 1886, after filling the offices with spoilsmen of the Aquila Jones stripe; and Mr. Cleveland failed to carry the State in 1888, although he had carried it in 1884, when the Republicans held all the offices. Not the least misfortune of these and like offences was the fact that they obscured the value of the real service performed in the general refusal to apply the "clean-sweep" rule. But it must always be remembered that what was hoped for by the most sanguine was beyond reasonable expectation. There are limits to the capacity of one man for resisting the "pressure" of a party which had polled for that man nearly 5,000,000 votes, which wanted twenty times as many offices as there were, and which wanted them quick.

> "What's done we partly may compute,
> But know not what's resisted."

Mr. Cleveland has rendered great service in resisting the tendency towards paternalism in government. This tendency had been steadily gaining strength for a long period, and had gone so far in 1881 that Gen. Garfield, in his inaugural address, advised the assumption by the Federal Government of a share in the work of education in the States. Mr. Cleveland revived the true doctrine. In his veto of a bill appropriating $10,000 from the national Treasury to buy seeds for some Texas farmers who had suffered from drought, he said, after a reference to the power and duty of the general Government: "A prevalent tendency to disregard the limited mission of this power and duty should, I think, be steadfastly resisted, to the end that the lesson should be constantly enforced that, though the people support the Government, the Government should not support the people." In accordance with this principle, he vetoed the Dependent Pension Bill, and thus thwarted the raid of the pension agents upon the Treasury. The belief that he stood ready to administer a similar blow to the Blair bill prevented the final passage of that measure, until now the sentiment of the country has pronounced against the policy of Federal aid to education. The many vetoes of private pension bills not only represented opposition to the idea that the Government is a sort of benevolent society, but also illustrated the remarkable conscientiousness which Mr. Cleveland brought to the discharge of all his duties. It will probably be held in future that the wholesale use thus made of the veto prerogative was ill-advised, as tending somewhat to cheapen it both in popular esteem and in influence over Congress. On the whole, however, Mr. Cleveland greatly benefited the nation by his consistent attitude of opposition to legislative extravagance and recklessness.

Mr. Cleveland has given the country striking exhibitions of courage. Such was the veto of the Dependent Pension Bill—the first objection ever raised by a President to a general pension measure; an objection raised by a President who thereby subjected himself to the charge of having been elected by rebels and copperheads, and of thus venting their spite against Union soldiers; an objection which every consideration of personal and partisan advantage operated to withhold. Such, too, was the message to Congress of December, 1887, declaring for tariff reform, and necessarily making that dreaded question the issue for the campaign in which he was the predestined Democratic candidate, and, in the opinion of Democratic politicians, sure of success if he only kept silent. Mr. Cleveland failed of re-election, but the display of manly independence and devotion to the public interests

which so many politicians think caused his failure, has not been lost upon the people, and will not be forgotten.

That there were more aberrations from the path of duty during the last half of his term than during the first half, must be admitted. The reason is clear. During the first two years Mr. Cleveland was thinking how to be a good President during the term for which he had been elected; thereafter he was trying to secure a chance to be a good President during a second term. In his letter accepting the nomination in 1884, he had foreshadowed what actually occurred in his own case. "When we consider the patronage of this great office," he then said, "the allurements of power, the temptation to retain public place once gained, and, more than all, the availability a party finds in an incumbent whom a horde of office-holders, with a zeal born of benefits received and fostered by the hope of favors yet to come, stand ready to aid with money and trained political service, we recognize in the eligibility of the President for reëlection a most serious danger to that calm, deliberate, and intelligent political action which must characterize a government by the people." Mr. Cleveland would have been a better President if he had not tried to get a second term. But, as it was, he has been one of the best Presidents we have ever had —a model of industry, an exemplar of honesty, a representative of common sense, an embodiment of courage; in short, an excellent type of those homely virtues upon which the future of the republic depends.

SECRETARY BAYARD.

THE time has not perhaps come to do justice to the retiring Secretary of State. Few persons who have ever occupied the office have suffered more obloquy. Few have had greater difficulties to contend with. Few have suffered in silence under greater or more galling misrepresentation. No one, we venture to say, from the time of Thomas Jefferson, first Secretary of State, has been governed by purer motives, more patriotic impulses, more self-denying reticence and fidelity to the high interests under his charge. The measure of his ability cannot be determined now to the satisfaction of all. So much of heat and rancor has entered into the foreign complications of the past four years, and especially into the fishery dispute, that a calm judgment is not now to be looked for; but we are persuaded that Mr. Bayard's vindication will not be long deferred, and that when it comes it will be lasting. We believe that when we shall be a little further removed from the smoke of strife that has clouded Mr. Cleveland's Presidential term, and when (if ever) the Irish vote shall cease to be a peculiar prize in the field of party contention, Mr. Bayard's administration will be generally regarded as one marked by sound judgment as distinctly as it has been by high purposes.

In drawing any comparison between Mr. Bayard and other recent heads of the State Department we must bear in mind that the fishery question had been at rest for more than thirty years, except during a brief space prior to the negotiation of the Treaty of Washington, and that in this negotiation it was altogether subordinate to the greater issues growing out of the war of the Rebellion. The *Alabama* claims so overtopped everything else that fishing rights and fish tariffs were thrown into the balance, the one against the other, with scarcely a note of opposition. The Halifax award produced some discreditable murmuring—it is always discreditable for a party who has submitted a case to a tribunal of his own choosing, to whine over the verdict. So completely, however, had the fishery dispute been forgotten when Mr. Bayard came into office, that few people knew that such a thing had ever existed. The whole nation had to be educated upon it, and, naturally enough, the party in opposition seized upon it to make trouble for the party in power.

This is not the time or place to review Mr. Bayard's negotiation with Great Britain in detail. What we wish to direct attention to —what, we are convinced, future generations will most concern themselves about—is the fact that Mr. Bayard strove, against great pressure, for peace and good will among men and among nations. It is one of Mr. Webster's chief titles to glory that he negotiated the Ashburton Treaty. Then, as now, extravagant claims were made to the "rights" in dispute. Then it was territorial instead of maritime jurisdiction that constituted the body of the contention. Probably some persons can be found now who think that Mr. Webster gave up too much territory west of Lake Superior for the sake of a more immediate advantage to the State of Maine, but all such considerations are sunk in the noble achievement of peace and amity between two great nations. It is the true and ineffaceable judgment of both countries, and of other nations as well, that Mr. Webster is entitled to the thanks of mankind for bringing to a peaceful and honorable close a dispute of much acerbity and danger, and that his great influence was given to the stilling of passions and the prevention of bloodshed.

Now, it must be said for Mr. Bayard—and this nobody will deny—that he has carried the country through an angry dispute which has lasted his whole term of office without a breach of the peace or anything akin to it. He was confronted with this difficulty when he first came in. He turns it over to his successor in no worse plight than he received it, and this, considering the opportunities and great provocations for mischief, is no small achievement. We think that the treaty which the Senate rejected was a good one, and that if it had been negotiated in the same identical words by a Republican Secretary, it would have been ratified. But, be that as it may, it stands to Mr. Bayard's credit that he has preserved friendly relations, without dishonor, with Great Britain and with Germany, in the midst of unwonted clamor, and in spite of the strongest temptation to reap partisan advantage from the passions of the hour.

This is Mr. Bayard's chief claim to the gratitude of his countrymen; but when a closer investigation comes to be made into the records of his office, it will be found that he has administered his office with stricter conformity to the principles of civil-service reform than any other man in recent times who has held it—than any other in recent times who has held any Cabinet office, with the exception of Mr. J. D. Cox and Mr. Schurz. Whatever may be the judgment of his contemporaries on his foreign policies, his administration of the consular service and of the Department at Washington will command the hearty respect of all those who are opposed to the spoils system in politics.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S INAUGURAL.

THE inaugural address of a new President is a part of the ceremony of introduction to Congress and the people. As it has no official place, it is never referred, as messages are, to committees of the House or Senate having charge of the several subjects considered. It has scarcely any influence on legislation, but is always looked for with interest as indicating the personal views of the President on a small variety of current political topics. Usually the inaugural address invokes attention to the virtues of morality, temperance, obedience to law, Christian charity, and toleration; and these passages are always much prized by the mass of the President's political supporters. He would indeed be a bold President who should omit to pay this tribute to virtue. President Harrison has done his full duty in this regard. Whatever his administration may bring forth, he has started on as good a basis as can be imagined. Like his predecessors in office, he has also a high degree of confidence in the future of the republic. In short, he is equipped with broad and generous ideas which harmonize with the inclinations and cheer the hearts of all good citizens.

When we come to look at particulars, we find that Mr. Harrison is in favor of protection to home industry on the plan of the fathers, that he favors steamship subsidies, at least upon North and South lines, that he believes in a more liberal system of pensions, that the revenue should be reduced without "breaking down our protective tariff or seriously injuring any domestic industry," that we should not be too economical, and that our navy should be increased and improved. On the subject of foreign relations, he holds that European Governments ought not to acquire new lodgment on this Continent, and especially not on any line of water communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans; also that our treaty rights and commercial rights in Samoa ought to be respected and enforced. It is gratifying to know that the President has "altogether rejected the suggestion of a special executive policy for any section of our country." We shall not ask who made the bad suggestion, or in what manner it could have been enforced under the Constitution. It is enough for us that President Harrison rejects it altogether, thereby saving himself and everybody else a deal of trouble. On the subject of civil-

service reform, the President's utterances are not as decisive as we could have desired. He says in effect that he does not wish to promise more than he can perform. There is a degree of frankness in this which we can commend, provided he really does perform all that he can. As regards the Civil-Service Law, however, he is more emphatic. He says that the heads of departments and all other public officers will be expected to enforce it fully and without evasion, and that he hopes to do something more to advance its principles, as the present law empowers him to do.

Since the issue that divided parties in the recent campaign was the tariff, we examine that part of the inaugural address somewhat more attentively. Here we perceive the confusion of ideas that marked Mr. Harrison's campaign utterances on that subject. Protection appears to his mind not as a means to secure an end—namely, the building up of certain specified industries—but as a good *per se;* and this, he tells us, was the idea of our forefathers. We are now, he thinks, reverting to the policy of the fathers. He says:

> "The revival at the end of the century of the same patriotic interest in the preservation and development of domestic industries, and the defence of our working people against injurious foreign competition, is an incident worthy of attention. It is not a departure but a return that we have witnessed. The protective policy had then its opponents. The argument was made, as now, that its benefits inured to particular classes or sections."

The fathers, we venture to remind Mr. Harrison, took the view that protection was a tax levied upon all the people in order to give certain industries a start, to naturalize them, so that they might within a brief time go alone and do without the tax. Nor did it ever occur to the fathers that such a tax was a help to the wage-earning class. That is a late discovery. Mr. Harrison, of course, did not intend to falsify history in this particular. He has simply taken the campaign speeches of his own side as the truth without seeking to verify them. The fathers would have been much amazed if they had been told that protection was to be everlasting and on an increasing scale because it was a good thing in itself—as much as if they had been told that the war of 1812 was a good thing in itself and ought to be prosecuted after the terms of peace had been settled. "It is not a departure but a return that we have witnessed," says the President. When did we depart and when did we return? It does require some charity to read this calm statement, and then to recall the successive steps that have been taken during the past quarter of a century to pile up protective duties, until they have reached the pinnacle of 47 per cent. average on dutiable articles. The President is speaking of the end of the century as marking a return. Is it a return to the tariff of 1789, averaging 8½ per cent., or to any other that anybody can name? Ah, Mr. Harrison, any "return" that could possibly take place would be towards lower duties, and if you do not know this, you should ask your new Secretary of the Treasury to point out the year in which protection stood at as exorbitant a rate as now.

THE CABINET.

We presume few well-informed persons have seriously doubted, since Gen. Harrison's nomination, that Mr. Blaine would be his Secretary of State. The evidence of a bargain to that effect in the Convention, as a condition of the nomination, is as strong as evidence of that kind can ever be. Mr. Blaine, in fact, represented a much larger proportion of the party than Gen. Harrison did. He was, as a politician, the natural product of twenty years of party history after the war. His career and qualities illustrated the growth of the money power and the speculative spirit within the party, under the influence of an inflated currency and high tariff and in the absence of all serious criticism or opposition. His audacity, his good humor, his fondness for coöperative ventures, his horror of rebel brigadiers, and his contempt for reformers, were admirably suited to the party temper, and made his nomination sooner or later inevitable. He lost the election in 1884, in spite of the Irish vote, because he could not keep the small minority to whom his ways were odious, and who held the balance of power. But the attachment of the bulk of the party to him was never seriously shaken. Consequently it was a necessity that if it was held dangerous to run him again in 1888, some arrangement should be made to give him a high place in the Administration. That Gen. Harrison was cognizant of and a party to this arrangement we have no doubt. Some of the Mugwumps, who went back to the fold last year, could not bring themselves to believe it during the canvass, but it was none the less true, as they now see. Blaine was offered the State Department a few days after the election, a little sullenly perhaps, but loyally and punctiliously.

As to the amount of influence he will have, it is, of course, useless to speculate. We believe he has not thus far been consulted about anything. President Harrison has probably been somewhat nettled by the predictions that Blaine would "dominate" in the Cabinet; and it may be the Maine statesman will accordingly be confined strictly to his own Department. Eight years ago this would, perhaps, hardly have been possible. Blaine was younger then, and in much better health than he is now, full of what the Irish call "divilmint," and eager to make some more money. Time and disappointment have told on him; his natural force is considerably abated, and he is better off pecuniarily. We may, therefore, reasonably expect a less "brilliant" foreign policy, and in fact a delicate man's shrinking from avoidable troubles of every description. Whether he can long abstain from instructing President Harrison how to carry on the Government, remains to be seen, but that President Harrison will resent anything of the kind is tolerably certain.

Mr. Windom is another of the statesmen of Garfield's Cabinet who lost his place through Guiteau's crime, and to whom the party may, therefore, reasonably think it owes another opportunity. His administration of the Treasury from March, 1881, until Judge Folger succeeded him in November of the same year, was in all ways creditable. He went back to the Senate, and served the remainder of his unexpired term, but was not re-elected in 1883, having somehow lost his hold on his State. The principal agency in this disappointment was, it is said, the distribution in Minnesota of a photograph of a very fine house he had built himself in Washington, which, it was held, was grander than a true friend of the people would be willing to inhabit. At any rate, since then he has lived in New York, and occupied himself with New York enterprises, notably the Arcade Railroad, the bonds of which he has unsuccessfully tried to sell in various European capitals. Consequently he may now be considered, to all intents and purposes, a "Wall Street man," and how his appointment can, under these circumstances, be made to satisfy the West, we do not see; but if the President sees it, it is, of course, sufficient. The office of Secretary of the Treasury is yearly losing the importance it possessed during and for some time after the war, owing to the rapid disappearance of the public debt and the settlement in one way or another of the currency question. The Secretary is gradually ceasing to be a Minister of Finance, in the European sense—that is, a man who has to use his wits to find ways and means of meeting the public liabilities and preventing monetary disorder. He is becoming more and more an ordinary administrator, charged with the task of simply seeing that a great revenue is collected by honest agents, and that the drafts on it of extravagant heirs are duly honored. Great financiers are, in fact, out of place either in a nation or in a household which does not care how much it spends. The disposition of the surplus pending the action of Congress is no doubt a charge of considerable difficulty. Apart from this, Mr. Windom will find his task a simple one. The principal part of it will be, or ought to be, the overhauling of the customs service, which Mr. Fairchild claims that he has left in a most unsatisfactory condition.

As regards the other members of the Cabinet there is little to be said. Gen. Tracy is the only one about whom much is known in these parts, but he is the right man in the wrong place. He would have made an excellent Attorney-General; what kind of Secretary of the Navy he will make, time only will tell. Mr. Wanamaker, as has been generally expected, gets the Post-office, under conditions which President Harrison must know, and, knowing, must deplore and feel ashamed of. That Mr. Wanamaker will administer the office respectably we have little doubt, and that this will after a while be used as an argument, even by clergymen and religious newspapers, in favor of allowing Cabinet offices to be purchased by contributions to campaign funds, we

have just as little. Nearly all corruption begins under some harmless guise. Votes are always bought for the good cause; decisions are always sold to the right side, and we finally get to the comfortable conclusion that not only is God with the big battalions, but that He makes political debauchery one of His instruments for good. The way the mind of a religious editor or a political clergyman sometimes plays round a proposition of this sort, is a very interesting bit of intellectual gymnastics.

REPUBLICANISM AT THE SOUTH.

One of the chief political aims of the incoming Administration is the development of a strong Republican party in the South. Lincoln assumed the Presidency by virtue of an election in which not only had his party failed to secure an electoral vote south of Mason and Dixon's line, but not a single ballot had been cast for the Republican ticket in ten of the old slave States, while in most of the other five the Republican votes scarcely rose above the dignity of scattering. Harrison received no electoral votes from any of the former slave States; and while the Republican party has become an active force in several of those States near the border line, its vote in most of the cotton States last fall was extremely small. Moreover, the party is even weaker than was indicated by the number of ballots it cast in some of these States, because the votes it actually polled included scarcely any which were cast by men of education, property, and standing—the sort of men which a party must have to give it power.

It is as desirable as it is natural that the Harrison Administration should seek by all legitimate means to strengthen the Republican party in the South. Sectional parties are not good for the nation. The North and South alike will be benefited by a recasting of lines which will cause the men of intelligence, property, and standing in the South to divide their support between the two parties in the same way as men of this class at the North do. One may go even further, and say that it would be better for the Democratic party throughout the nation to have a strong Republican party built up in the South. The Democrats have lost a good deal more than they have gained by having the South solid for their party, and could well afford to exchange two or three States in that part of the country which they have held the last dozen years, for two or three Western States which might before this have inclined their way if the solidity of the South had not deterred them from such a change of base.

In considering how to build up the Republican party at the South, President Harrison has one great advantage. An experiment has been tried which shows with perfect clearness how not to do it. Eight years ago, just as the last but one of the Republican Senators whom the South had sent to Congress during the reconstruction era disappeared, there came upon the stage a man who was hailed as the first in a line of successors who were to restore the party in the South to a power even greater than it had wielded in its palmiest days, during the early years of Grant's first administration. William Mahone was welcomed with outstretched arms by the Republicans of the Senate, and Mr. George F. Hoar, claiming to speak for the people of New England, burst forth into loud strains of joy over the evidence which this Virginian's coming furnished that the South was "turning its face towards the morning." Two years later Mahone was joined by another Virginian, and Riddleberger stood forth before the country as another representative of a rejuvenated Southern Republicanism. The Arthur Administration lent all possible favor to the experiment. The Federal offices of Virginia were turned over to Mahone, and he was given all the support he could ask from the standpoint of practical politics. The Union League Club bestowed upon him the favor of its countenance—and of its treasury. Leading Republican newspapers endorsed him as a great leader.

Eight years have passed. Mahone's term has expired, and the seat which he occupied has been filled for two years by a Democrat. Riddleberger's term expired at noon on Monday, and a Democrat succeeds him. Mahone is a thoroughly discredited man. Everybody recognizes him to have been a political boss of the most odious type, and nothing more. Riddleberger has for years past been a standing nuisance in the Senate through his drunken habits, and on the last night of the session had to be removed from the chamber by force because he was so disorderly. The Republican Senators rejoice at getting rid of a cheap politician who has disgraced the body to which he belonged, and securing in his place a gentleman. Republicans everywhere are happy that the party has no further responsibility for either Mahone or Riddleberger.

The end of it all renders ludicrous in the retrospect such anticipations as were entertained by men like Senator Hoar; and yet such an end was seen by clear-sighted men to be inevitable from the outset. Mahone gained power in Virginia on a platform of repudiating the State debt. Dishonesty was thus the corner-stone of the political structure which he reared. The corrupt methods of the spoilsman, naturally enough, were the only sort which such a man knew how to use. His idea of building up the Republican party of the South was to attract voters by demagogism and to buy them with offices. Northern Republicans would have ridiculed the idea that a party could be built up in the North by such means. The result of the Virginia experiment should prove sufficient to show them that there cannot be two standards of political morality in a country. If the Republican party at the South, under Harrison, is to succeed, it must begin by being decent, and elect to office other men than repudiationists and drunkards.

THE DEBATE ON "STANDARD OIL."

The debate in the Senate on the oil-transportation clause in the Inter-State Commerce Bill on Wednesday and Thursday of last week was one of the most instructive of the session. It arose on an amendment to the bill inserted by the House, providing "That it shall be unlawful for any common carrier, subject to the provisions of this act, to carry refined oils and other petroleum products, cotton-seed oil, and turpentine for any shipper, in tank or cylinder cars, who shall own, lease, or control the same in any manner, except upon the condition that said carrier shall charge the same rate for the transportation of said products in wooden packages or barrels, in car-load lots, as in said tank or cylinder cars, the said tank and cylinder and said wooden packages and barrels being carried free in each case." This proposition was supported by Senator Sherman in a running debate filling three or four pages of the *Congressional Record*, in which the Ohio Senator was at his best. It is seldom that we find anything in the pages of that publication more logical, pointed, and convincing. In dealing with the Standard Oil Company Mr. Sherman was respectful and even friendly in the terms of his discourse, but nevertheless firm in his resolve to expose and, if possible, break down their practical monopoly in the distribution of oil throughout the country. In this matter he has failed for the present, the Senate having voted against the amendment of the House; but the discussion has awakened so much interest and attracted so much attention that the question cannot be looked upon as settled.

The facts in the case were brought out in an official way, in the case of Rice vs. the Illinois Central Railway, before the Inter-State Commerce Commission. The Standard Oil Company supplies its own tank cars and gets them hauled by the railroad companies, so that the rate for carrying its oil is less by perhaps 20 per cent. than the charge for oil carried in barrels. Other shippers of oil are either unable to pay for tank cars or are prevented from getting them, since the builders refuse to make any except for the Standard Company, lest they lose the trade of that powerful organization. After hearing the arguments and testimony, the Commission held that "it is properly the business of a carrier by railroad to supply the rolling stock for the freights he offers or proposes to carry; and if the diversities and peculiarities of traffic are such that it is not always practicable, and consignors are allowed to supply it for themselves, the carrier must not allow its own deficiencies in this particular to be made the means of putting at unreasonable disadvantages those who make use, in the same traffic, of the facilities it supplies." This interpretation of the law left it somewhat a matter of doubt how much, if anything, should be allowed by the railroad as a rebate to the Standard Company for the use of its cars. Of course it makes no difference to the Standard Company whether it gets its oil hauled for 20 per cent. less than the shipper in barrels, or whether it pays equal rates and gets a rebate of that amount for the use of its tank cars. The doubt seems to have been removed by a subsequent decision, quoted by Senator Cullom holding that no rebate could be allowed for the use of tank cars, but the decisions of the

Commission are not law; they are only prima-facie evidence for the use of litigants. The amendment of the House to the inter-State bill was intended to remove all doubts and delays, by providing that the railroad companies shall either supply their own tank cars, or carry in barrels for exactly the same rate as they carry in tanks, per pound or gallon of oil.

It was objected on the other side that nearly all railroad companies hire rolling stock more or less, and pay for its use, and that to deny this privilege in the case of tank cars would be to make an unjust discrimination. Senator Harris of Tennessee put it strongly in this way: "I say, if one producer has invested a half-million dollars in tank cars and rolling stock, and another producer has not invested a dollar in any such thing, and the carrier is compelled to charge exactly the same price per gallon for transporting oil between these points, you have by law worked out a gross inequality and discrimination in favor of one and against the other." This argument would have been stronger if Senator Harris had answered the point made by Senator Reagan a moment before, that it is the prime and foremost duty of the railroad to supply itself with the means of transportation, and offer the same to all shippers alike. There is hardly any kind of freight upon which discriminations might not be devised if the Harris doctrine is allowed to prevail.

The most forcible objection to the House amendment was made by Senator Cullom, viz.: that this was special legislation engrafted upon a general law—legislating about oil and oil cars when the Inter-State Act dealt only with principles, leaving details to the Commission and the courts. As to oil transportation, Mr. Cullom read from another decision of the Commerce Commission, that of Scofield vs. the Lake Shore Railroad Company, that "the preference thus given to oil shipped in tank cars as against oil shipped in stock cars in car-load lots is, we think, unlawful, and must be regarded as forbidden by the act to regulate commerce." This was all that the House amendment sought to enact, and being presumably the law now, although it had not been so pronounced by a real court, Mr. Cullom was opposed to meddling with the matter at all by legislation.

To Mr. Cullom's objection that this was special legislation, Mr. Sherman replied by quoting from the first report of the Inter-State Commission, in which it was shown that there were "outside organizations" engaged in the business of transportation between the States, as for example tank-car companies, who were just as much tempted to disregard the principles of equity and justice as the railroad companies, and that the purposes of the Commerce Act could not be fully reached without bringing these secondary agencies under the same rules. In other words, the original act had been defective because Congress had lacked information. If the facts had been known in the beginning, they would have been provided for in the beginning by some clause like the pending amendment. Replying to several Senators who contended that the Standard Oil Company had reduced the cost of oil to consumers, and that the proposed amendment would tend to defeat the benevolent designs of the great Trust, Mr. Sherman trampled that nonsense out of all shape, showing that human nature is the same in the Standard Oil Company as everywhere else; that in matters of business it takes all it can get, and that if its competitors are crushed out, there will be no restraint upon its exactions. The House amendment was tabled by thirty-four yeas to eleven nays.

THE APOLOGY OF THE LONDON TIMES.

THE apology which the London *Times* has published for its performances in the matter of the Parnell letters has been generally pronounced unsatisfactory. It was as follows, after quoting and endorsing what the Attorney-General had said in court:

"Moreover, Mr. Parnell having, in the witness-box, stated that the letters attributed to him were forgeries, we accept in every respect the truth of that statement. In these circumstances we deem it right to express our regret most fully and sincerely at having been induced to publish the letters in question as Mr. Parnell's, or to use them in evidence against him. This expression of regret, we need hardly say, includes also the letters falsely attributed to Mr. Egan, Mr. Davitt, and Mr. O'Kelly. We must add that we firmly believed the letters to be genuine until the disclosures made by Pigott in the course of his cross-examination."

Of course this seems very tame, considering what the injury inflicted has been, but anything stronger or more emphatic would have been out of place. A man may properly make an expression of deep and heartfelt sorrow for great injuries which he has inflicted under a rash impulse, or under the pressure of a sudden and excusable mistake. But when you have pursued a man for two years with an accusation of complicity with assassins, based on forged letters; when you have treated his denials with scorn, and have loaded him with insult about three times a week during the whole of that period; when you have steadily refused to furnish him with the means of vindicating himself, by giving him the history of the documents; when by way of evidence you have offered him nothing but the testimony of "experts" that he lied when he denied his signature; and when you yourself, after all is over, have to confess that you never found out, even for your own satisfaction, where the letters came from, what can you *say* by way of atonement? What sufficient apology for such deliberate and persistent wrong was ever put in writing or expressed in speech? What was the form of excuse which inquisitors made when they found they had broken a man on the wheel by mistake? If that could be found, it would furnish the *Times* with a good model. In its absence we can think of nothing better than the apology the Montana lynchers made to the widow when they found they had hanged the wrong man for horse-stealing. "Madam," said the spokesman, "we must admit you've got the laugh on *us* this time." As matters stand, we think the *Times* has done well to say as little as possible, and to say it quietly and unostentatiously.

The sole duty the conductors have to perform in the matter is one which we can hardly expect from human nature, and that is to help Parnell in making preparations to bring to justice the editor, manager, and solicitor—Messrs. Buckle, Macdonald, and Soames. We ought, perhaps, to include the youth Houston, who supplied them with the letters, but there appears to be a general disposition to let him run—he is only twenty-two—as an inexperienced lad. Mr. Parnell, and the whole Liberal party behind him, owe it to themselves, and to everybody in all parts of the world who has sympathized with and supported them through this ordeal, to see that the men who played this nefarious game are punished in every way known to the law. That three such persons as they have shown themselves to be, should have been left in charge of such an engine of oppression and cruelty as the *Times*, is doubtless the fault of that rather absurd and pompous person the chief proprietor, Mr. Walter; but his responsibility is, of course, only remote and indirect. The three above named are the chief actors in the crime, and the exhibition of fatuity they have made ought not to be allowed to extenuate their offence any more than their calling themselves "a great journal" ought to shield them from the proper pains and penalities.

Some such calamity as this has been impending ever since Mr. Delane and Mr. Morris passed away, and the control of the paper, in fact as in law, passed directly into Mr. Walter's hands. It is, we believe, he who manned it with the wiseacres who have brought him and it so near ruin. Mr. Macdonald's exhibition of himself in the witness box, as a petulant, conceited, and rather silly person, must have been a curious revelation to the London public, who thought that Wisdom herself sat up at night in the *Times* office and saw the paper safely to press. His evidence showed that he considered it a master-stroke in journalism to print facsimiles of he letters on the day of the second reading of the Coercion Bill. After testifying, with almost asinine simplicity, that "six months, more or less, were occupied in investigating the bona-fide character of the documents," he, on his cross-examination, continued:

I may take it that on the 18th of April you were satisfied that the letters were genuine? Yes.

How long previously had you satisfied yourself? I believed the letters were genuine from the beginning.

Without any inquiry? Yes.

From their intrinsic qualities? Yes; from their internal qualities, from their contents. I thought the facsimile letter would be the sort of letter Mr. Parnell would be impelled to write under the circumstances.

Did you think the "make it hot for old Forster" was the sort of thing Mr. Parnell would write? Yes. Mr. Parnell frequently makes use of the expression "make it hot."

In Kilmainham Jail? Yes. Kilmainham Jail was at that time managed in such a way that the mere fact of Mr. Parnell's presence there would offer no impediment to his writing such a letter.

That is your opinion? It is a matter of proof.

You satisfied yourself of the genuineness of the letters some time before you published the facsimile? Yes.

Why did you select the 18th of April for the publication? Because I thought it was a proper occasion.

Why? I thought it was a suitable time to make the public acquainted with the character of men who were prominent in public affairs. There were discussions going on in Parliament which made it an appropriate moment to publish the letters.

Discussions about what? Upon Irish affairs. Every journalist chooses his moment.

You chose the moment when the division on the second reading of Mr. Balfour's Crimes Bill was to take place? Yes.

Of course it makes little difference in what terms a man of this sort apologizes when he is found out.

We trust that, in the general uproar, the two "experts" who were waiting to testify that Parnell's signatures were genuine will not be overlooked. The Attorney-General tried to get their evidence in before Pigott was examined, but failed. They must now be thanking an overruling Providence for their escape from an exposure which would have been ignominious as well as droll. They seem to have overlooked the fact that traced writing gave their "science" nothing to work on except unsteadiness in the writing, and that all their lore about the comparison of the formation of letters would in this case have been wasted. They are probably now lying as quiet as possible, waiting for the storm to blow over.

A GERMAN VIEW OF ENGLISH ECONOMICS.

Prof. Cohn of Göttingen has an article in the January number of the *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung* on "The Present Condition of Political Economy in England and America." The title is in some respects misleading. The article says almost nothing about America and very little about the present day. It is, nevertheless, a valuable one, not merely on account of the many really acute things which it contains, but still more for what it indicates as to the point of view of the critic and the mental attitude of the German school.

One noticeable thing which distinguishes it from similar articles a few years ago, is the infrequency of allusion to the historical method. Cohn himself never committed the error of undervaluing abstract reasoning in the way that some of his associates did; but it is significant of a change of attitude among the Germans that Cohn should really say what he thinks. It has become obvious that the so-called historical method, as typified by Roscher, could not do what was claimed for it; that it was unfruitful in discovery, and only of moderate use in criticism. Inductive methods in political economy, as originally conceived by the German school thirty years ago, were very much like inductive methods in physical science as conceived by Lord Bacon—a sort of complicated system of bookkeeping wherein every fact should be entered in an economic ledger, but where there was no available means of arranging the facts in such a way as to make any use of them. Like Lord Bacon, the German historical school talked about induction beautifully, but their discoveries generally were made by an abandonment of their own method. The important change has been that they recognize the fact themselves. Cohn even criticises Jevons, and quite justly, for a failure to understand the relations of induction and deduction in political economy. "With all his mathematical exactness, Jevons makes the stupid logical error [professor of logic though he was] of confusing statistical methods with his mathematical method, when the two are precisely the opposite. The arithmetical side of statistics and the mathematical strictness of deduction are wholly different from one another. In making use of the much abused word 'exact' in application to both of them, he only lays bare the ambiguity of the word itself."

What then, it may be asked, is the difference between the English and the German schools at the present day? It has ceased to be one of method; it has become one of aims and of assumptions. The quotation from Carlyle with which the article is headed is significant: "One thing I do know, never on this earth was the relation of man to man carried on by cash payment alone. If at any time a philosophy of laissez-faire, competition of supply and demand, started up as the exponent of human relations, expect that it will soon end." The Germans object to the English school on the ground that it disregards moral elements in its postulates, and treats of material wealth as the main object of human pursuit. The difference of method has become comparatively small. Menger and Sax, with the whole Austrian school, have followed in the footsteps of Jevons. Cohn himself has used more abstract reasoning on the theory of prices than any English or American economist. In his care for verification he simply follows the example of the best of the English political economists, and breaks away from the traditions of the so-called historical school, whose generalizations were usually not verified at all. It is not to the method of English economists that he takes exception, but to their subject-matter; not to the use of deduction, but to the exclusion of moral considerations.

In one sense this objection is well-founded; in another it is not. It is true that a great many writers of the English school have given cause for these criticisms; but we doubt whether there is any justice in applying them to the school as such. As long as the science remains an abstract one, its propositions take a conditional form. If free competition exists, certain results will follow. The man who studies these results scientifically cannot be said to glorify wealth any more than the student of pure mechanics can be said to glorify brute force. It is only when people draw unwarranted consequences from their abstraction, and say that, because they have assumed that free competition exists, it generally does in fact, and ought to, when it does not, that they lay themselves open to severe criticism. For some reason it seems hard for the German to comprehend that the abstract science can be pursued without the practical errors resulting from it. The so-called Manchester school in Germany has carried these mistakes to their very worst consequences.

One instance where Cohn does conspicuous injustice is to Walter Bagehot. Bagehot was a man who thoroughly understood the facts with which he was dealing. He knew that he was reasoning within limits; he made no secret to himself of the limitations, but within the sphere where his assumptions were correct his results were wonderfully trustworthy. Cohn seems to think that Bagehot claimed more for his science than it actually accomplished, and contrasts him unfavorably with Mill in this respect. To us the contrast seems rather to the advantage of Bagehot. Mill, it is true, said a great deal more about the moral element and brought it considerably more into his reasoning; but the result of partially introducing morals and partially reasoning from another set of assumptions—making the two as it were into a kind of emulsion—is not scientific method, though it may be popularly useful. Nor has it stood the test of experience. A large part of what Mill wrote was cast aside by himself and must be cast aside by any thinker to-day; whereas, Bagehot's writings, whether in the form of articles in the *Economist*, of books on society, or essays on scientific method, are almost as valuable now as they ever were.

When a German writes on political economy, he almost always has a wide scheme of social philosophy in view. An Englishman generally has not. He is concerned with getting the explanation of certain facts which are before him. Bagehot could write social philosophy when he tried—witness his 'Physics and Politics'—and he did it remarkably well. But even in that case, he was concerned with explanations rather than ideals. He is much more intent on explaining the conditions which determine survival than on answering the question whether the results are for the good of the human race. He is not a philosopher any more than Darwin was a philosopher; he is a specialist dealing with his specialty, and anxious to make his explanations fit the facts. What conclusions philosophers may draw on the basis of his reasoning, is no concern of his.

With English political economy thus independent of philosophy, the work of a man like Ingram counts for very little in the history of the science. His address before the British Association, criticising past results from the point of the Comtist philosopher, aroused some discussion; his article on Political Economy in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' has reached a still wider circle of readers. But on actual economic thought its influence has been trifling. When he criticised economic methods as crude, he proposed to substitute the yet cruder methods of sociology. To speak of his work as in any sense whatever "*epochemachend*," is quite misleading. The fact that Cohn, in spite of his great familiarity with English writers, makes such an error, shows how hard it is for one nation to comprehend the political thought of another.

GUDBRAND VIGFUSSON.

The announcement comes from England of the death, at Oxford, of Gudbrand Vigfusson, the Scandinavian scholar, in his sixty-third year. Since the appearance, in 1855, of his first essay, Dr. Vigfusson's career has been, in his chosen field, one of altogether unprecedented literary activity. Text after text, whose preparation for the press has necessitated the most painstaking persistence and critical skill, has appeared with his name singly or as principal collaborator; extended lexicographical work has been done; essays have been written embodying a wider knowledge of the ancient literature of the North as a whole than has been possessed by any previous historian, and frequent contributions have been made to the proceedings of learned societies and to periodicals. In the death of Vigfusson not only England, but the world has lost one of its most indefatigable workers and the foremost Icelandic scholar of the day. Vigfusson's career is remarkable as well for what it saw accomplished as for its exemplification of the love of learning for learning's sake. His work was such as to command the attention of a public comparatively limited, and the recognition and emoluments that fell to him were, from the nature of the case, restricted in amount; but neither his interest nor his enthusiasm was allowed to flag, and his literary productiveness was continued almost up to the day of his death.

Vigfusson was born in 1827, at the farm-

stead Frakkanes, on Broadfirth, in the west of Iceland. His father, Vigfus Gislason, was a peasant, rich in pedigree, like most of that sturdy class in Iceland, but poor in purse. After the preparatory course at the high school, then at Bessestad, Vigfusson went to the University at Copenhagen, in 1850, as a stipendiary of the Arna Magnusson foundation, which, since its institution in the last century, has done such inestimable service for the general cause of higher education in Iceland. In Copenhagen appeared his first literary work, 'Timatal,' written in modern Icelandic as a contribution to a collection of essays on the history of Iceland published, in 1855, by the Icelandic Literary Society. This treatise, while primarily intended only to furnish a complete chronology of the events recorded in the Icelandic sagas, really marked an epoch in the history of the old literature. Though the antiquity of the sagas had scarcely been seriously doubted, their claim to credence and their reliability as history had been called in question. In Vigfusson's essay all the sagas specifically Icelandic are considered, and the time they cover, the so-called "saga age," from 830 to 1031, is viewed in the light of the common material, which is found so to support and circumstantiate itself that incidentally one of the most potent arguments for the intrinsic worth of the old traditional material is formulated, once for all. Vigfusson's chronology has been in one or two instances superseded; as a whole, however, it is accepted as indisputably correct.

Other works now followed in rapid succession. In 1858 appeared the first volume (the second volume in 1878) of the 'Biskupa Sögur,' lives of the bishops of Iceland, in collaboration with Jon Sigurdsson. In 1860 were published volume xxvii of the 'Nordiske Oldskrifter,' containing several shorter sagas, all edited by Vigfusson; 'Fornsögur,' three old sagas, in collaboration with Professor Möbius of Kiel; and the first volume of the Book of Flatey, 'Flateyjarbok,' in connection with Professor Unger of Christiania. The 'Flateyjarbok,' now for the first time rendered accessible as a whole, is, in its completed form—a second volume appeared in 1862 and a third in 1868—one of the most valuable and well edited collections of historical sagas extant. It contains among its many sagas, short and long, one of the two accounts, called by Vigfusson the northern, of the discovery of this continent by the Norsemen.

Vigfusson's next work was an essay printed as a preface to the folk-tales of Iceland, which had been assiduously collected by Jon Arnason. In it he reviews the whole subject of Icelandic folk-lore, and forms thus one of the most important parts of the work. His next volume was the 'Eyrbyggja Saga,' of which Sir Walter Scott once wrote out a careful abstract; it appeared in Leipzig in 1864. This same year Vigfusson was called to England to enter upon the work which was to occupy him for many years, and which now stands the principal monument to his fame. Richard Cleasby, an Englishman of means and scholarly tastes, in his rambles about Europe had conceived the idea of a dictionary which should open up to the world the then practically inaccessible stores of the old Icelandic language and literature. Aided by an Icelandic amanuensis, in Copenhagen, some rather desultory work had already been done to carry forward his project, but Cleasby's death, in 1847, left the collected material in a chaotic condition, with really little accomplished. His heirs, however, came to the rescue with pecuniary aid, the Delegates of the Clarendon Press were interested in the undertaking, and Vigfusson was ultimately called to Oxford and assigned the task of completing the work. The dictionary did not appear as a whole until 1874, twelve years after Vigfusson entered upon its completion. Although his name occupies a subordinate place upon its title-page, it is, in reality, Vigfusson's work, and not Cleasby's, whose material, indeed, it was found in every case necessary to revise and even, in some instances, to discard as useless. The Cleasby-Vigfusson dictionary has done more, perhaps, than any other work to stimulate an interest in the study, in both England and America, of the language, and through it the literature, of Norway and Iceland. Its scope is the broadest, as it not only aims at full definitions, but at etymologies and abundant references; some of its explanations are short essays on history, law, and mythology. Vigfusson's genius is seen in the dictionary at its best. His knowledge of the old literature is, even for an Icelander who has made it his life study, simply stupendous in its minuteness and range. It must not, however, be overlooked that he had undertaken a more than herculean task in attempting to work out alone an exhaustive dictionary of a whole language. His etymologies are frequently only to be used with the most extreme caution, and his knowledge of the literature, if the condition can be imagined, was often too ready for an absolute accuracy of citation from a sometimes treacherous memory. As a whole it stands, nevertheless, as a monument of indefatigable labor and broad scholarship. It is safe to say that no other man could have performed the task so well.

Vigfusson's next important work was, again, a remarkable one. It was a much needed critical edition, based in part upon new material, of the most important of the family sagas of Iceland, the so-called 'Sturlungasaga,' issued, in 1878, in two volumes, from the Clarendon Press. What rendered it, however, particularly valuable to the student of Old Norse literature was the excursus, which the author calls the Prolegomena, prefixed to the first volume. These modestly named "observations" really constitute a detailed, if a short, history of the origin, authorship, purport, and literary value of the whole prose and poetical literature of the North, and in wealth of material and suggestiveness of idea far transcend anything at all on the subject that has preceded it. It is in the Prolegomena that Vigfusson first promulgates his now well-known hypothesis of the age and origin of the lays of the elder Edda, which, with one or two exceptions, he refers to Norse poets in the Orkneys and Shetlands at a time subsequent to the settlement of Iceland, and in which he sees a parallel development, in that part of Norse territory, to the prose saga in Iceland. Unfortunately, to the support of this and to not a few other no less daring suppositions Vigfusson can bring only ingenious surmise instead of the necessary evidence; and while he, no doubt, from his superior knowledge often sees further and more minutely than his less gifted fellow-laborers in many of his clever attempts to account for phenomena hitherto considered unaccountable, he can scarcely be soberly followed.

Vigfusson's next book, this time in collaboration with Mr. Frederick York Powell, with whom he was thereafter associated, was issued the succeeding year from the Clarendon Press. It was an 'Icelandic Prose Reader,' containing a variety of texts, with grammar and notes, designed for use as a text-book. The most ambitious work after the dictionary, and altogether the most remarkable for its breadth of purpose and the learning it involves of all the author's literary criticism, the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale,' was the next to appear, in 1883, in two volumes, from the Clarendon Press—an exhaustive collection of the whole body of Norse poetry as contained, not only in the classical literature, the Eddas, the poems of the scalds, and the strophes scattered through the sagas, but as exhibited in the later literature of the Middle Ages, before the religious epic, in verse, but not poetry, had driven out almost everything else before it. With the poems themselves are complete prose translations into English, countless textual emendations, reference and explanatory notes without end; in many instances is given a lengthy excursus on literary history, rhetorical figures, whose overwrought complexity forms one of the chief stumbling blocks to an intelligibility of much of the scaldic poetry, chronology, and mythology. The whole is an elaboration of the suggestions in the Prolegomena, and carries still further the ideas of origin and authorship there first advanced. In it an attempt is made, for the first time in Old Norse poetry, to follow the comparative historical method, manifestly the only correct one if evidence, external and internal, is at hand to substantiate its assumptions. In the poems of the elder Edda, particularly, as they have come down to us, there is, unfortunately, no such evidence; and although Vigfusson's suppositions are supported by a familiarity only limited by the boundaries of the literature itself and by a poet's appreciation of the spirit of the original, qualities that have never been united to a like degree in a critic before, much of his theory is, and will long remain, only theory. That he has, on the other hand, often read deeper and truer than his critics, there can also be no doubt, and many of his daring suggestions will be found, in the light of subsequent discoveries, to be in reality but the foreknowledge of genius.

The 'Corpus Poeticum' is one of the greatest critical works in the literature of any language, and it very fittingly marks the culmination and virtually, at the same time, the end of Vigfusson's remarkable career. But one book succeeded it, 'Sigfred-Arminius, and Other Papers.' This last published work forms part of a number of short essays by Vigfusson and Powell issued, as a contribution from Oxford, in honor of the Grimm centenary, in 1885. As the title indicates, the principal paper is an attempt to identify the German Siegfried with the Roman Arminius. There are, however, of necessity, phonetic questions involved in the discussion of such a point, and what it suggests, that bring the author upon ground where he is not firmly footed, and the thesis cannot be accepted as proved. In addition to the foregoing, it is safe to assume that a mass of unpublished material will be found. For several years Vigfusson had been engaged upon the compilation of the 'Origines Islandiæ,' suggested in the Prolegomena, which is reported to be so nearly completed that it can be issued this year. It will be a fitting final tribute to his native land of one who has been proud to uphold the greatness of its unparalleled past.

Personally, Vigfusson was a quiet and unassuming man, who loved principally the companionship of his books, and regarded but little the formal requirements of society. To those who knew him well, and where he felt there was a genuine sympathy based upon mutual tastes, he was, however, a genial associate and the stanchest of friends. He lived a life of seclusion at Oxford, where twice distinction sought him out: in 1871, when he was made an honorary M.A. of the University of Oxford, and again in 1877, when the University of Upsala, at the celebration of its fourth centenary, conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of

Philosophy. His particular claims to distinction and scientific recognition are based principally upon his work as literary critic and lexicographer. He was not a philologist, in its restricted sense, as is frequently proved by his etymologies and by the grammatical abstracts appended to the dictionary and to the 'Icelandic Reader.' About the phonetic refinements of the "young grammarians" he knew little and cared less, and modern scientific grammar, foundation and fabric together, was to him, accordingly, a sealed book. That he had his shortcomings as critic has already been pointed out. He is frequently too imaginative and sanguine to fortify himself as impregnably as modern criticism demands. His service, none the less, has been inestimable, intrinsically and for the stimulus of its suggestion, to the cause in which he labored. All in all, he is the one man in his generation who has done the most for the world's knowledge of the literature of the ancient Scandinavian North.

THE STUART EXHIBITION.

LONDON, February 10, 1889.

THE exhibition of the Royal House of Stuart, at the New Gallery, which opened with the new year, continues to be crowded with visitors daily. It is so eminently successful that there is some thought of its being followed by a Tudor Exhibition next winter. This is the first time that this complete collection of relics of the Stuart House has been shown together. Some portion of the objects exhibited here were at the Glasgow Exhibition this summer, but here we have pictures, personal relics, coins, medals, miniatures, seals, and autographs, all relating to the Stuarts and their faithful adherents. Among these objects there are things beautiful in themselves, works of art, ornaments and jewels, exquisite needlework, and also quite ordinary implements of daily use, interesting only because they have been touched or used by the royal fugitives, or connected in some way with the fortunes of the Stuarts. The authenticity of the relics may be depended upon. The Committee has been very rigorous in refusing anything of doubtful provenance, and in most cases the catalogue contains the history and pedigrees of the exhibits. It is clear, also, that the loyalty of the followers of the House of Stuart held these things belonging to them as almost sacred, and would not have parted with them for their intrinsic value, which in many cases would be but small. The chief promoters of the exhibition have been Lords Ashburnham, Wharncliffe, and Crawford, Mr. Magniac, Mr. James Doyle, and Mr. Scharf, of the National Portrait Gallery, besides many others.

Very noticeable for pure, clear painting are the portraits of James V. and his Queen Mary of Guise, parents of Mary Stuart, two half-length life-size figures in a balcony. The Queen is holding a pink and resting on a parapet; the King is touching a Holbein jewel hanging round his neck. The case containing drawings and miniatures of Mary Queen of Scots is particularly attractive. Every one is more or less conscious of having some clear idea of the fascinating woman whose charm was so fatal both to her admirers and to herself. The earliest portrait here is at the age of nine and a half, by François Clouet, or Janet, called Clouet III. This is a drawing on white paper in red and black chalks. There is a similar portrait near it of Francis II. of France at the age of four. At the side of the head of Mary is the inscription, "Marie royne descosse au le age de neuf ans et six mois Lan 1552 au mois de Juillet." This drawing of Mary is at too early an age to have any very marked individuality; the close-fitting coif, jewelled all round, and the rich ornaments of the dress, so carefully drawn, indicate how dexterous the artist was. These drawings in red and black chalk (of which there are other examples here, Magdalen of France, Francis II. as Dauphin, and still another inscribed "le roy françois Segond) belong to the collection of Castle Howard.

The most authentic portrait of Mary is the very fine miniature, by Janet also, lent by the Queen, from the royal collection of Windsor. This is a highly finished portrait, three-quarters length, in a pink dress slashed and embroidered with gold and pearls. The white collar is of the Medici shape; the hair is turned back in the usual Mary Stuart fashion, with a cap embroidered with pearls at the back of the head. This must have been taken while Mary was still in France. She looks about fifteen. One can understand that her face must have gained in refinement and mobility with womanhood. The cheeks are here fat, the expression remarkable for a submissive and rather shy look in the eyes; the long aquiline nose adds to the air of duplicity which one recognizes in all her portraits. The hands, with tapering fingers, are very characteristic. The other later miniatures of Mary are less careful, and all of much later date. "Le Deuil Blanc" is also supposed to be a portrait from life by Janet. The Queen is in white mourning for the Dauphin; a close-fitting French cap, showing the curling hair, surrounds the face, a wimple of white lawn falling from the ears covers the shoulders, and is gathered in folds under the chin, showing the dark dress beneath the transparent veil. Two photographs from other drawings of Janet in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris show that Mary's reputation for beauty must have been greatly due to her vivacity and intelligence and power of fascination, rather than to actual beauty of features. The hair, of which the Queen sends a lock, is of a beautiful golden hue, as in Janet's miniature, and her complexion is said to have been dazzling. There are several portraits of Mary, full length, ascribed to Zucchero, to whom she may have sat; but their genuineness as to painter or sitter is confessedly doubtful. The memorial portraits of the Queen, of which there are very many here, are interesting, especially the one of P. Oudry, lent by the Earl of Darnley, and the one lent by the trustees of Blair's College, containing in the background a representation of her execution from the notes of Burleigh's agent, an eye-witness of the scene in the hall at Fotheringay.

Among the relics is the book of hours Mary used on the scaffold, referred to in the account of the circumstances given to Cecil. "All the assembly, save the Queen and hir servantes, sayde the prayer after Mr. Deane as he spake it, during which prayer the Queen sat upon hir stoole, having her agnus Dei, crucifixe, beades, and an office in Latynn. Thus furnished with superstitious trumpery, not regarding what Mr. Deane sayde, shee began verie fastly with tears and a lowde voice to praye in Lattin." There are other books of hours illuminated, and an especially beautiful psalter given by the Queen to Mary Seton, one of the "Queen's Maries." The handbell of silver gilt she was permitted to retain at Fotheringay Castle, mentioned in the inventory of her goods as a "Closchite," is here. According to the fashion of her time, it used to stand on her writing-table. We see also a silver draught-board she gave to Mary Seton. Some leading strings embroidered by Mary for her son, James VI. of Scotland, show her great skill at her needle. Other larger pieces of needlework with which she beguiled the weary hours of captivity are likewise here; we remark especially two curtains, a counterpane, and a valence worked on green velvet by Mary and the Countess of Shrewsbury, while the Queen was at Tatbury in charge of the Earl of Shrewsbury, who treated her with "such care and concern" that she felt safe in this captivity, and worked all day at these complicated embroideries.

The most beautiful of the relics of Mary Stuart is the Limoges ciborum and cover, known as the "Cup of Malcolm Canmore": it is in copper gilt, elaborately enamelled in champlevé. On the bowl are six Old Testament subjects in medallions; on the cover likewise six subjects from the New Testament. This ciborium is said to have belonged to Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, 1056-1092, and was given by Mary to Sir James Balfour of Burleigh, one of her stanchest adherents. There is also a Limoges tazza, painted by Jean Court dit Vigier, with the arms of Queen Mary and the Dauphin crown, besides many personal trinkets, rings, seals, clothing, etc. There is a portrait of Darnley as a youth, which is convincing as a likeness of a very pretentious weakling: vain, headstrong, and unhealthy is the impression one carries away. A miniature of Bothwell, with a scar on his cheek, fiercely looking round at the spectator, would go far to prove that in his case history has represented him as he was. In the gallery are letters from Mary's own hand, though some are not considered authentic. The most interesting is the one written to Henry III. of France six hours before her execution, in which she begs the King to gather from her attendants the details of what has passed, and commends her son to his care.

Of the so-called Vandyke portraits here exhibited many are replicas, or copies of a later date even. It is unfortunate that the committee were unable to secure the originals, and accepted so many copies in place of them. The large canvas of Charles I., Henrietta Maria, and two elder children is a replica of the Queen's picture now at Windsor, the first portrait Vandyke painted in England. The three heads of Charles I. painted and sent to Bernini in Rome to guide him in his bust of the King are here in the original by Vandyke, lent by the Queen. They are too well known from the engraving to need comment. There are portraits by Lely and Dobson, also of the unfortunate King, showing him less romantic and distinguished-looking than in the Vandyke portraits. Of these latter the Earl of Warwick sends one of the several versions of the King mounted on his famous white charger going under an arch bareheaded; Monsieur St. Antoine in red holds the King's helmet. This is not nearly as fine as the National Gallery portrait of the same size. Of Henrietta Maria there are many pictures. The most beautiful is a three-quarters length in a blue satin dress, leaning on a table with her right arm, and holding roses in her lap with her left hand. An *amorino* flying overhead is about to crown the Queen. The jewels fastening the blue satin sleeves over the white lawn undersleeves are gold doves with breasts of dark precious stones. This seems to have been a favorite portrait, for we have a replica of the same in green dress here also. In strong contrast to this pretty, rather insipid, face, with large eyes *à fleur de tête*, is the aged portrait of Henrietta Maria, by Claude Le Févre. The face, worn with suffering, is in three-quarters, and the sad, faded eyes gaze towards us with a wistful passing look. The mouth has all the severity of a bigot in its stern, thin outline. She wears a black lace on her head, a falling white collar and cape over her shoulders; and in her left

hand she holds a book, 'The Advantage of Death.' It is a portrait which tells a sad story of a long life of expiation and sorrow. A case in the same gallery contains the clothing worn by Charles I. at his execution, the prayer-book he used on the scaffold, the two shirts still blood-stained. We are told that on account of the extreme coldness of the morning, the King, not desiring to be considered shivering from fear, put on a second shirt. A very fine one with lace and tiny knots of ribbon; his embroidered glove, a piece of his beard, a lock of his hair—all these relics have been carefully treasured by the different families to whom they have belonged, and are now exciting more attention than anything else in the exhibition.

Of the children of Charles I. there are innumerable portraits and miniatures, as also of Charles II. and Catherine of Braganza in a variety of fancy attitudes. In one the little lady is represented as St. Catherine with her wheel and palm. Sir Peter Lely has in this instance considerably lengthened his sitter to the conventional saintly stature. This portrait was painted for Lord Clifford of the Cabal, to whom the Queen presented also the earrings in which she sat. Charles II. at a ball at the Hague is one of the few good and interesting pictures of this period here. Charles, in a flat-trimmed black beaver hat and black dress, is dancing a minuet with a lady in gold-embroidered dress with blue petticoat. The company is looking on, and we see in an inner room a supper table at which people are feasting, the King himself in the post of honor. Of the subsequent Stuarts, James II., Mary of Modena, Prince James Francis Edward, known as the old Pretender, and Princess Maria Clementina Sobieska, Prince Charles Edward and Princess Louisa of Stolberg, and Prince Henry Benedict, Cardinal Duke of York, there are innumerable portraits, in miniature and life size in oil, at many ages, in many attitudes—all very third-rate productions as art, interesting only historically. There is a portrait of Flora Macdonald, in the background of which is written a Latin inscription signed "W. Robertson," referring to the escape of Prince Charles Edward from his pursuers in the disguise of "Betty Burke," the supposed maid-servant of Flora Macdonald. There is a case specially devoted to relics of Flora, and there is a portrait of Charles Edward in the disguise of Bettie Burke. Of this prince, whose earlier days inspired so much enthusiasm and devotion, there are too many relics. Some are quite without value—for instance, a gridiron given him to hold while hiding in some kitchen in the highlands.

The diptych from Holyrood, formerly in the Church of the Holy Trinity, Edinburgh, merits very careful examination. It is supposed by competent judges to be by Van der Goes, although the learned Director of the National Portrait Gallery has discovered in an angle of Margaret of Denmark's head-dress, a principal figure in one of the compartments, four letters, P. R. A. T., which he supposes to be Pratt, as there are books and records showing the existence of two painters by the name of Pratt at Stirling in 1497 and 1502. The meaning of those letters is certainly doubtful. The manner of painting, the exquisite finish, the careful treatment of detail, the type of the angel blowing the bellows in the St. Cecilia compartment, the full harmony of color, and the firm drawing, all remind us forcibly of the picture of the Portinari family in Santa Maria Nuova at Florence, by Van der Goes. The diptych has suffered from scourings and skinnings, which in some parts have destroyed the last glazings, and injured the painting. The first compartment shows James III. of Scotland (1453–1488) and his son, afterwards James IV., both kneeling. The figures are half life-size. The King wears royal robes of red brocaded with gold, under a purple mantle lined with ermine, and an ermine cape. Before him is a desk, on which is an open book. His son, in scarlet and ermine, kneels bareheaded behind him with hands clasped in prayer. St. Andrew, in green drapery, his cross saltire behind him, is presenting the King to the Holy Trinity on the back of this panel. In this composition the head of God the Father is rather Byzantine in character. He is in a red robe, on a golden throne, holding in his arms the crucified and agonized Christ, emaciated and stiff as in so many Flemish representations of the moment when he was taken down from the cross. The Father's mantle is lined with blue; the throne is on the clouds, and golden light surrounds it; the Holy Ghost hovers above. The crystal ball of dominion is at the foot of the throne. On the other panel we have Margaret of Denmark, wife of James III., kneeling to our left, at a desk covered with red, emblazoned with her arms in a lozenge impaling Scotland. Her red bodice is embroidered with gold. She wears an ermine mantle and a black kirtle fur-trimmed. The book before her is open and very beautifully illuminated. A coif enriched with pearls, and her crown, are on her head; her dress, too, has a yoke of gold and precious stones. St. George in full armor stands behind the Queen, holding a banner and presenting her to the Holy Trinity. On the reverse of this volet, St. Cecilia sits beside a small organ, playing from a book of music before her. An angel at the back is working the bellows. In the foreground kneels Sir Edward Boucle, Provost of Trinity College, Edinburgh, for whom, it would seem, this diptych had been painted. One sees his arms azure, three buckles or, parti per chevron argent, on St. Cecilia's seat. It is supposed that in the saint we have the portrait of the foundress of the College, Mary of Gueldus, Queen of Scotland.

Mr. F. G Stevens has supplied the catalogue with historical notes on the pictures and relics, and information as to the provenance of each object. Mr. Grueber, Mr. Jenner, and Mr. Holmes have treated respectively of medals, manuscripts, printed books, and miniatures.

SICILIAN ARCHÆOLOGY.

PALERMO, January 25.

BUT for the irruption of the Normans into Sicily, the island would still be Magna Græcia, and even with the traces of that invasion it is more Greek than Italian in most respects. Invasions in general, and especially by western races, have in most cases brought into the east of Europe better conditions of civilization and firmer ideas of law; but in Sicily the remedy was perhaps overdone, for the effects produced in other parts of the kingdom are here by reaction much in retard. An officer of the Italian garrison said to me lately, speaking from an experience of different parts of the State, that Sicily was a century behind the other provinces. Certainly before the Italian Government took possession of it this was true, and to a degree it must still be admitted that the island is the most backward of all Italy, and modern civilization can only be said to have been established since the railways and bersaglieri have made the repression of brigandage possible. When I was first here, not many years ago, the road to Monreale, only five miles from Palermo, was not safe to travel, and was patrolled by squads of bersaglieri at intervals of half a mile; but I believe the present condition of the island to be as secure as that of any part of the peninsula.

The persistence of the antique habits and the intense conservatism of the Sicilians, and in fact of all the provinces of the ancient Magna Grecia, I believe to be due largely to the obstinate, stereotyped character of the Greek race, intensified, perhaps, by the admixture of the more Oriental elements, Saracenic, etc., which obtained here as it did not in the continental provinces. There is, however, a curious similarity between the Sicilian and the New Hellene—the absence of refined tastes and of adaptability of character; the want of practical common sense and appreciation of veracity; an extraordinary acuteness in the details of business and shortsightedness in the great affairs (traits common to both), as well as the active brain and alertness, so different from the north Italian. But there is a far greater indifference to progress than in Greece, and, so far as I can judge, not the same thirst for knowledge, which I should be inclined to attribute to the influence of the Catholic church, so different from the Orthodox, and so much more powerful in its control of the individual, and naturally in its repression of individuality, the most remarkable trait of the Greek of Greece proper. But the resemblance is still striking even to the casual observer, and to the traveller there is a reminder in the deficiency in the means of communication and accommodation, in which respect he is little better off than in Greek localities. The consequence is, that we know less of the archæology of Sicily than of any other part of Italy or of Greece. The great temples of Girgenti, Segesta, and Selinunte have been known for many years, but are only now fully excavated and fully visible, while the prehistoric traces are still unknown, or unstudied adequately.

It has been a moot question, therefore, among the Italian archæologists, whether the traces of the Pelasgic occupation which forms so important a part of the prehistoric record of Italy had ever extended to Sicily. With regard to one point, the site of the ancient Cephalœdium, now Cefalù, there has been a dispute, and I have just returned from an examination of the remains there, which has shown me how vague are the ideas carried away from any object of antiquity by even a scientific observer who has not been accustomed to classify and compare the class to which it belongs. I was doubly disappointed in the results of my search, first in finding nothing of what I had been led to expect by the account given me, and, secondly, in finding most valuable indications of which I had not suspected the presence. The site, to a student of prehistoric archæology, is an extremely interesting one, and though the evidences of a Pelasgic colonization are not conspicuous, they are sufficient and unique. The ancient city was built on a point of the hard limestone of which the hills about here are formed; this point terminated in a spit, behind which lay a long sand beach. From this nearly level site the ground rises slightly for a few hundred feet to the foot of a massive bastion of rock, an outlying spur of the main chain of hills in the interior, but separated from the nearest hills by nearly a mile, and presenting on every side except one an inaccessible cliff, constituting a natural fortification, to which access was only possible by one break in the cliff. This wall is from three to five hundred feet in height, and about a mile in circumference. Across the space where the break occurs, forming a curtain from bastion to bastion, is a high wall of mediæval construction, but in which are stones of ancient workmanship, evidently the restoration of an ancient defence,

Inside of this enclosure is a cistern of an extremely interesting character; and though the manner of its construction is not by any technical test certainly referrible to the Pelasgic epoch, I have found similar reservoirs in several ancient and abandoned sites, and am disposed to assign them generally to prehistoric builders. There is one in the central enclosure of the Larissa of Argos, of importance, but not of the magnitude of this. They are utilizations of the natural fissures or caverns in the limestone rock, enlarged rudely and cemented so as to hold water; and in this case the cement seems to have served until comparatively modern times, as mediæval structures over the opening at the top show it to have been used during the later occupation. It may be twenty feet wide and deep, even partially filled up as it is by rubbish, and nearly a hundred long, with (at the upper end, where the crevice narrows) a stairway made out of the solid rock apparently; but as there is no means of access to the passage, the rock above having fallen in and obstructed the descent, the examination was of the most unsatisfactory character, and must go for what it is worth. But further on, and in such a position in relation to the enceinte of the present, and necessarily of the ancient fortifications, if such existed, is a fragment of what I must consider a palace of excellent and marked polygonal construction; a wall with a rather elaborate doorway admitting to a passage or hall, inside which are, at right and left, two similar doors, both utilized in the construction of a mediæval house, and one of which still opens into a vaulted chamber of brick—the wall itself being also surmounted by a portion of the mediæval structure. It is to this utilization of the old work that its preservation is due. It is of the later Pelasgic work, with some architectural decoration of a simple kind and such as could be executed in the neolithic age—a doorway slightly narrowing upwards, and a straight lintel like the gates of Mycenæ and Alatri, but not higher than a modern house door. Intending to return the next day, when I hoped the sun would serve to photograph and measure the monument, I neglected to make any drawing or measurement; and as the next day the rain came on worse than before (we have had ten days of it), I had to leave it with no exact record. The quarters in the town were such that a needless prolongation of our visit was too severe a penalty to pay for my memoranda, and we came away in the rain the day after our examination. However, the attribution of the structure to the period to which I have assigned it is beyond question, from the character of the work, at once unlike the Phœnician remains in the island, and the early Hellenic of the Greek colonies, and even earlier work in Greece proper.

The lower city gives even more conclusive testimony, for the entire circuit of the ancient wall can be followed by the Pelasgic foundations, which are in the greater part of it still standing, overbuilt by Hellenic and mediæval work, but still showing at intervals grand fragments of the most solid and ponderous "cyclopean" (as the unworked stone is conveniently designated). Out from the rock on which the town is built gush, one on each side of the town, two rivulets of crystal water, furnishing the supply to the inhabitants. One, that in the largest use, issues in a huge pool of considerable apparent depth, but filled to a certain height by the fragments of the vases which ill fortune has sacrificed on the spot. I wondered if this was not a modern form of the ancient offerings made to the deity of the fountain; for the cleanliness of the place to which the water-carriers came was extraordinary for an Italian town, and there was not a trace of anything but potsherds to be seen in the pool. Of these the quantity was enormous, while none were thrown into the sea, as they might have been. The other fountain was in another sense still more interesting, for the original passage by which the founders of the city had provided for the water-drawers, with its walls of cyclopean structure, still serves for the maidens to go down to the stream; and a dozen of them, more or less, were chattering and crowding on the narrow stone staircase between the door and the water.

The conditions of existence in Cefalù are probably, on the whole, more closely coincident with those of the extreme antiquity of the Italic populations than in any locality we shall find in the realm. Nothing can have changed much except names and other words. The shipping of the town was drawn up on the beach as it would have been in B. C. 1000, and, so far as the lower town is concerned, there is no probability of any further modifications of the external condition than those which grow out of the change in the method of building consequent on the use of mortar; so that the original wooden house of the early Italic populations has become a rude and, to our sense, comfortless stone structure.

Those who visit Cefalù do so in general from an interest in the Norman cathedral of Roger I. (a structure of which an architect can speak more authoritatively than I), or to see its mosaics, which are extremely interesting and very early, probably the work of Byzantine artists. In ecclesiastical history the church is famous as the occasion of the suit in which Bishop Ardouin and the Emperor Frederick II. figure, and the record of which has been published by E. Winkelmann (Innsbruck, 1884) as an episode in the life of the Emperor. Cefalù was then, and still is, the richest diocese in Sicily, its revenues not having been secularized by the Italian Government, owing to its ranking technically as a parish; but its wealth was not then regulated by the same strict construction of the law as now it is, and the process of Bishop Ardouin is one of the curiosities of the literature of the Church of the Middle Ages. Winkelmann drew his text from a copy in the National Library at Paris, but the director of the museum of Palermo, Signor Salinas, in searching the archives of the cathedral during the present restoration, has discovered the original parchment record of the trial. As architecture, this and the other Norman churches in the island, though extremely interesting, have not to me the interest of those of the Norman dynasty at Caen, owing to what seems to be a corruption of the canons of the style—as if the Sicilian churches had been the work of journeymen, or of architects who had to follow a style which was not their own.

As a practical hint to those who come to Sicily, I may say that a visit to the town and cathedral had better be made by the early train from Palermo (the railway now being finished to Cefalù), with the return the same day, for a night passed in the hotel is far from desirable. The filth and primitiveness of the place make a short stay imperative.

W. J. S.

VOLTAIRE AND THE DUCHESSE DE CHOISEUL.

PARIS, February 16.

M. GASTON MAUGRAS, who has published several interesting volumes on Galiani, on Mme. d'Épinay, on the life of Voltaire at Ferney, in collaboration with M. Lucien Perey, gives us now a volume written by himself alone on the relations between the Duchesse de Choiseul and Voltaire. The book has been edited with much care, and has a most agreeable portrait of the charming little Duchess, taken from the original, which is in the possession of Count de Ludre—a pastel made at the time of the marriage of the Duchess, and given by her to her cousin, Count de Ludre, a *maréchal de camp* of the King's armies.

The Duc de Choiseul is well known; nobody better personified the amiable qualities as well as the defects of his age. Count Gleichen, the Danish Minister to France, paints him as "good, noble, frank, generous, *galant*, liberal, proud, audacious, fiery." He was full of wit, and very seductive, though not handsome. His wife can be opposed to those who charge the eighteenth century with universal corruption. Her virtue was never attacked, and she remained all her life a model wife. Walpole has much contributed to enlarge her reputation; he speaks often of her in his correspondence, and paints her, in the most charming terms, as the most amiable and graceful creature that ever came out of an enchanted egg. Mme. du Deffand said of her: "It is a pity she is an angel; I should prefer her to be a woman. She has only virtues—not a weakness, not a defect." When the marriage took place (in 1755) Choiseul was already thirty-five years old; his wife was only seventeen. Louise Honorine Crozat du Châtel had a dowry of a million of revenue.

She was passionately in love with her husband, and always preserved for him a sort of adoration; she believed him to be a great political genius. "I assure you," she wrote to Mme. du Deffand (May 13, 1770), "that he is the greatest man this century has produced. He is so good-natured that people become familiar with him, and do not remark the superior talents and the sublime qualities which his modesty covers; they will be recognized when he is no more, and he will be much greater in history than he appears to us." The Duchesse de Choiseul seems to have looked upon her husband as Lady Beaconsfield did in our time on Lord Beaconsfield. History has not quite ratified her judgment, but the definitive history of the eighteenth century has not yet been written. At the present moment, Choiseul does not appear to us a great political genius, though he certainly was a man of superior abilities.

Choiseul's sister played a great part in his life. She was a proud Amazon, and had great power over him; she looked more like a man than a woman. He married her to a Duc de Gramont, who was a great libertine and very disreputable; three months after the marriage she separated from her husband, but kept the title of Duchess and a magnificent revenue. There was, of course, a rivalry between Mme. de Gramont and Mme. de Choiseul; but they found a sort of *modus vivendi*, and contrived to live together in peace. Choiseul owed his great fortune to Mme. de Pompadour, as well as his marriage, which had brought him an immense fortune. His various properties yielded him as much as 700,000 livres of revenue. On the death of the favorite he was able to maintain himself in power till Louis XV. chose a new one, in the person of Mme. du Barry. He was one of those who were not willing to adopt this low mistress, whom the King had much difficulty in imposing on the court. Mme. de Gramont was very violent against Mme. du Barry. Choiseul tried as much as he could to prevent her from being presented; but Mme. du Barry triumphed, and her presentation took place on April 22, 1769. Mme. de Choiseul and Mme. de Gramont were not invited to the ceremony.

We read in an inedited letter published by Gaston Maugras that "Lycoris [Mme. du Barry] is fast approaching the moment when the Lord will bid her: 'Sede a dextris meis donec ponam inimicos tuos scabellum pedum tuorum.'" Among these enemies were the wife and sister of "the man so powerful to-day, and who to-morrow will perhaps be nothing." The prediction was verified. The King in person attempted to reconcile the favorite with Choiseul, to whom he was accustomed, and whom he did not like to lose. "You conduct my affairs well," he wrote to him; "I am satisfied with you; but beware of the givers of advice. . . . You know Mme. du Barry; she is pretty; I am pleased with her. . . . She has no hatred towards you; she knows your talents, and does not wish you ill." Choiseul was intractable. Mme. du Barry found her instrument in the Chancellor Maupeou, who was quarrelling with the Parlement of Paris. Choiseul had always supported the cause of the Parlements. On the 24th of December Choiseul received an order from the King which exiled him to Chanteloup, his country-house; twenty hours only were given him to make his preparations.

The exile of Choiseul was a *coup d'état*. Paris was thrown into real consternation. Choiseul's departure was changed almost into a triumph; the Duke and Duchess left the capital amid the applause of the people. The philosophers, who were protected by Choiseul, made a great noise, and Voltaire wrote verses in favor of the Minister, who had extended to him his powerful influence in Switzerland. Voltaire had quarrelled with Geneva, and had established himself at Ferney, in the *pays de Gex*, a small district between the Jura and Switzerland. He had established there manufactures of silk, lace, and watches; Choiseul had given his manufactures the benefit of free trade with the other provinces of France.

Chanteloup had been built in 1744 for Mme. des Ursins. Choiseul bought it in 1763, and had made an exchange with the King of the Marquisate of Pompadour, and various other estates, for the forest and castle of Amboise. (Under the Restoration, Chanteloup, which almost touches Amboise, belonged to the Duke of Orleans. The castle of Amboise is now the property of the Comte de Paris, while the greater part of the forest belongs to his aunt, Princess Clementine of Saxe-Coburg.) Chanteloup, with the immense forest of Amboise, was a splendid domain, and Choiseul lived in it in royal style. The first courtiers who asked for permission to go to Chanteloup received this answer: "I neither forbid it nor allow it." This was taken for a tacit permission, and a pilgrimage to Chanteloup became the fashion. The hospitality of the Choiseuls was boundless: there were every day three tables served besides the Duke's. To give an idea of the expense of Chanteloup, I will only say that every month the butcher had to kill thirty sheep; four thousand chickens were needed every year.

The struggle between the royal power and the Parlement continued. Maupeou, the Chancellor, began the war fiercely; he dismembered the Parlement of Paris and created new courts in many places; he abolished the venality of the judicial functions. On the 13th of April, 1771, the Parlement of Paris was definitively suppressed by order of the King, and a new Parlement, composed of the nominees of Maupeou, was installed. This change was applauded by the philosophers. Voltaire had often attacked the venality of the judiciary; the old Parlements had not been lenient to the men of letters. Voltaire tried in vain to separate the cause of Choiseul from the cause of the Parlement; he did not like to seem ungrateful to the former, but he praised Maupeou to the skies. Speaking of Choiseul, he said: "I am like France: I owe much to this great minister"; speaking of Maupeou: "M. de Maupeou has covered himself with glory; he has rendered the kingdom the most important service. Before six months have passed, everybody will bless the Chancellor for having rid us of three hundred *procureurs*" (June 24, 1771). Voltaire wrote a number of pamphlets in praise of Maupeou, and his enthusiasm inspired his enemies to produce these verses:

> "Ne t'arme plus, Fréron, des traits de la satire;
> De l'infâme Voltaire oserais-tu médire
> Après qu'en bas flatteur il brûle son encens
> Sur l'autel détesté du plus vil des Séjans?"

"Oh, what an abomination is this Voltaire!" exclaimed Mme. de Choiseul when she heard that he asked that a civic crown should be given to the Chancellor. In vain did Voltaire send the most amiable and flattering letters to Chanteloup: his protestations of friendship and devotion were despised, he was denounced as a traitor. In her correspondence, Mme. de Choiseul was very cautious; she never said a harsh word of Voltaire. She wrote to Mme. du Deffand: "Say to M. de Voltaire that falling from power does not deprive people of taste, and that we preserve the same admiration for him; but that the circumspection which our position requires does not allow us to have any commerce with such a celebrated man; that his silence is the greatest attention which he can show to our situation, and the mark of friendship on his part of which we shall be most sensible." From that moment Voltaire ceased to try to justify himself directly, but in all his letters to D'Argental, Marmontel, and others, we see him preoccupied with the Choiseuls, and trying to prove that there was no relation, no connection, between their cause and that of the Parlements.

Louis XV. died on May 10, 1774. Maupeou was immediately exiled, and the ancient Parlement was recalled. The Choiseuls returned to Paris, but he was not recalled to the Ministry. Louis XVI. did not like him, on account of his excessive prodigality. When Voltaire came to Paris, in 1778, the Choiseuls did not make him any visit, and Voltaire died without being reconciled with them. In 1784 the financial embarrassments of the Choiseuls became so great that they were obliged to sell their magnificent hôtel. They were soon afterwards obliged to sell Chanteloup. Louis XVI. generously lent four millions to the Duc de Choiseul. In 1785 the Duke became very ill, and died on the 9th of May. Faithful to the habits of all his life, he left very generous legacies to all his friends. The Duchess obeyed all his wishes, guaranteed all the payments, and herself retired to the convent of the Récollettes in the Rue du Bac, where she lived in a small apartment with a single servant. She paid 300,000 écus every year to the creditors of her husband till the Revolution. Her conduct during the Revolution was worthy of her. All her friends became the victims of the Revolution, and she herself was arrested in 1793. She was so much liked by the poor people of her quarter that they put in a petition for her release. She became ill in prison; her sister-in-law, Mme. de Gramont, died on the scaffold (April 17, 1794). Mme. de Choiseul was left to live in poverty, in the utmost isolation. She died on December 3, 1801, in a miserable house, without a relation, without even a friend to assist her. Her body was thrown into the *fosse commune*. And so ended a charming woman, who had been the queen of the most elegant and refined society, who had brought to her husband a princely fortune, and who had, in a time of great corruption, remained spotless and irreproachable.

Correspondence.

TWO MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: (1.) Our English cousins, when they see how silently and smoothly public affairs go on in this country, are sometimes inclined to attribute it to our system of government by committees. They will have a chance now to see how they like it. We can furnish here some fine specimens of organized anarchy, but nothing to surpass the new English County Councils.

The city of London, for all administrative purposes, except Education, Poor Laws, and Police, is henceforward to be under the rule of a council of one hundred and fifty persons, the majority elected in sections for three years, and the rest elected by the others for terms of six years. There is absolutely no leadership or guiding authority, all members being perfectly equal and independent of each other and of any power outside. They do, indeed, elect a chairman and a deputy chairman, but these are and can be nothing but presiding officers, like the Speakers of the Commons and of Congress, or the moderator of our town meeting. They also elect a nominal executive agent, but he will be only a tool in the hands of factions in committees.

The *Spectator* observes with regret that the Council has begun at once to act by Executive Committees. Of course it has—it could not possibly do anything else; and those committees must either be elected by the body or appointed by the Chairman—two methods of which it would be hard to say which is the worst. Says the *Spectator*: "The offset of that system is, that nothing is ever done vigorously, and that responsibility disappears." "The use of committees is the very secret of corruption, and makes administrative efficiency almost impracticable." If this is true, it is rather a serious reflection that this whole country, from the national down through the State governments to the smallest and last-made city, is governed entirely and exclusively in just that way. The *Spectator* suggests as an alternative the formation of a cabinet of seven persons dependent upon the support of the majority. But the advocates of the English parliamentary system maintain, and with justice, that the only defence and possibility of existence for a ministry thus exposed is to be able to hold the rod of dissolution over the constituent body. It is just this power which enables the English Ministry to keep its high character, and the effect of the absence of this power is wretchedly shown in the French Chambers to-day. In the case of the City Council it does not exist.

Another thing to be demonstrated is the effect of such an institution as this Council in running down the quality of public men. It begins with Lord Rosebery, Chairman, and Sir John Lubbock, Deputy Chairman; but where it will end is quite another matter. With the prospect of unlimited talk, the Council has proceeded to "hire a hall," and one member has already called another "no gentleman," while a third has characterized a fourth as a "traitor." And when after some years a pandemonium of extravagance and jobbery breaks out, it cannot even be charged to universal suffrage, because the Council is elected by the rate-payers—a restriction which

many persons here regard as our only hope of salvation.

It is a beautiful saying of La Rochefoucauld that there is something in the misfortunes of our best friends which is not wholly unpleasing to us; and those who enjoy the luxury of lamentation over our own shortcomings, may find fresh stimulus in watching the progress of the English County Councils.

(2.) Among the many wise provisions of the Federal Constitution, not the least is that for a single executive head, with power of appointment of subordinate officials. It was the only way to secure efficiency and responsibility in administration. Congress, however, as soon as it met, proceeded at once, after its kind, to deprive both the President and his Cabinet of all public share in the guidance of policy or legislation, and indeed of influence of any kind, unless exercised like that of any private interest—upon committees through the lobby—and so to paralyze both brain and hand. The result is curiously shown in the speculations of the last three months as to Mr. Harrison's Cabinet. Nobody imagines that it is a question of great national officials who are to exercise an important influence upon the policy or destinies of the country. It is only whether they shall be personal friends or political supporters who contributed to the election, or so selected as to "recognize the claims" of particular States or sections. A Cabinet position, like all our other offices, is not a question of something to do, but of something to get. The Department of State alone excites some intrinsic interest, and that is largely a nervous dread, lest, from its want of public responsibility, it may drag the country into some false position in foreign relations. Just think how different it would be if there was really a question of statesmen; if it was felt that when Congress meets next December, these national officials were to bring forward publicly plans for the management of their several departments, to discuss these plans with individual members in open session, and were held to answer questions and entitled to give opinions as to the details of administration and the effect of laws! Would not the public interest be of a somewhat different kind? G. B.

Boston, March 2, 1889.

THE PROPAGANDA OF FREE TRADE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondents have suggested several ways in which the light of free trade may be let in upon the darkness of protectionist farmers. My experience brings me to the conclusion of Mr. Jessup, who says in his note in the *Nation* of January 31 that the farmer is acted upon by local events and local causes. He does not think beyond them—too often he cannot if he would. If he is born a protectionist, a protectionist he stays. The same may be said, of course, of other classes. I am unable to recall a single person, in a wide and rather varied acquaintance of the past ten years, who has changed his views on the tariff question to any notable extent. Facts are quoted both ways; logic is something in which people do not often indulge, and an appeal to the doctrine of liberty is too abstruse to reach the mind of the average citizen. Among men, almost the only class you may hope to reach are those Mr. Jessup points out as the ones most worth reaching—the editors, advocates, jurists, clergymen, and legislators. And, unhappily, it is well-nigh useless to attempt to recast the material of the minds even of such as these, the most reasonable fraction of our population.

There is a field for missionary work, however, which has long appeared to me the most promising of any the free-trader can enter. I have not seen it mentioned by your correspondents. It is the schools, academies, colleges, seminaries, and universities. To illustrate: The report of the Commissioner of Education shows that there are about 44,000 students in those institutions of our country which are classed as universities and colleges. Next September some 10,000 of these will be entering on the second year of their four years' course. From the catalogues of their respective institutions the names and addresses of these 10,000 can be easily found. From the same catalogues can be learned their ages, approximately, the studies they are occupied with, and the names of the text-books they are using. Can a better point of attack be found? A central propaganda, like the Tariff-Reform League, can mail to these students from time to time a judicious selection of tracts, adapted, as far as may be, to their respective ages, to the character of the institution in which they are enrolled, to the State in which that institution is situated, to the text-books they use, and even to the professors under whom they may suffer. In every institution thus attacked could be found a professor, or at least an enthusiastic student, who would gladly inform the agents of the propaganda as to the better sort of fact and argument and appeal for each particular class, and as to the efficiency in actual practice of the various tracts and publications used. The 10,000 students taken up next September could be followed and beat upon with tracts through the remaining three years of their course. The majority of them will have become voters by November of 1892. They will not count for much in themselves; but if the leaven work to good effect, they will help materially to broaden the foundations of the party of unrestricted commerce. And they, moreover, are the men who will become the editors, advocates, jurists, and clergymen of the next generation. And on them, by following the plan suggested, not a single shot will fall aside of the mark, whether it be effective or not. By this same plan, if it be wished, can be reached, not one, but all, classes in the colleges and universities, and not alone those in the colleges and universities, but also those in every educational institution in the country of sufficient dignity to boast a catalogue.

Not much is to be expected even from this method, which is almost equal to direct personal appeal. It is a lamentable fact that the young academician is not of an inquiring turn of mind. At eighteen the minds of young men are already fast in the cake of custom. I maintain simply that here is a field where the point of attack is well open to view, and where the forces of ignorance and unreason are not yet well marshalled against truth and logic.

It may be a question if money can be obtained to carry on the fight in a quarter whence visible results may for so long fail to appear. But the ardent free-trader is commonly blown upon to an extent—is he not?—by the breath of liberty, and is often in a measure inspired by the idea of humanity. In either case, if he contribute, it is not in the hope of direct financial return.

If I may be allowed one further word, I would suggest that this propaganda of free trade, carried on in the way suggested, could be made to some extent self-supporting. The League can issue a "Library," extend it into other subjects, and obtain from its sale, in time, a partial return for the outlay.

John Cotton Dana.

Three Mile Ranche, Colorado.

A SIGN OF THE TIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You may be interested in a local illustration of progress made in the popular acceptance of civil-service reform. The present Postmaster here, a Democrat appointed by Mr. Cleveland at the close of the term of his Republican predecessor, is spoken of by leading and strong Republicans as one who, in view of his excellent service, should be allowed to finish the term for which he was appointed; and they have accordingly declined to sign the application of a Republican who is now seeking the office. It is something thus to make good the position assumed by Mr. Cleveland; but something better still is in the air. A very strong Republican tells me that he is ready, if the present Democratic incumbent continues worthy of the office, to solicit signatures to a petition *that he be reappointed for another term!* Verily the political atmosphere is getting purer.—Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

Eastport, Me., March 1, 1889.

PROHIBITION IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For more than a quarter century New Hampshire has had statutory prohibition, and, practically, free rum. In 1887 the Legislature passed an act probably the most direct in process and the easiest in application of any in the United States (N. H. Laws, 1887, chap. 77). It provides, in brief, that every place used for the illegal sale of any intoxicating liquor shall be considered a common nuisance, and that the Supreme Court, or any justice thereof, shall abate such nuisance by injunction on information filed by the Solicitor of the county, or upon petition of not less than twenty legal voters of the town or city in which such nuisance shall exist. To disregard this injunction is, of course, contempt of court, to be punished by fine and imprisonment, at the will of the judge. No jury trial is allowed; not only the seller, but the landlord of the tenement, is liable.

Spasmodic attempts have been made to enforce this incisive law. The failure has been ignominious and almost complete. The liquor-seller carries on his business unfettered; he sells week-days, nights, and Sundays: he sells to old topers and to schoolboys; he pays for no license, and his profits are enormous; not seldom is he counted among the "solid and influential men" in the community. Yet the prohibition sentiment seems to be gaining. The evil is so frightful in both its nature and its extent; its causal connection with nearly all the evils with which organized society has to deal, is so close and so apparent, that even those who hold most strongly to the non-interference theory are coming to regard this traffic as within the legitimate sphere of governmental control. Then why this disgraceful nullification of the most stringent laws? Because our town and municipal affairs are run by the political parties in the interest of the party machines, and not in the interest of the community at large.

The two parties are very closely balanced in the State and equally so in many of the towns and cities. Each party has its rum vote—the Democratic party the larger number, but the Republican too many to dare to enforce prohibition. Thus the rumsellers actually hold the balance of power, and in many cases dictate the policy of the city governments. Consequently our policemen can *see* nothing; our city marshals will *do* nothing; citizens do not enjoy playing informer and detective—it is not

in human nature to do so; the rumseller is our ruler. Is it possible to exaggerate this evil of politics in local affairs? Good citizens who differ on questions of national and State policy are thus made to offset their votes against each other, to the great joy of all the baser elements. For the exquisite pleasure of having a Republican or Democratic (as the case may be) janitor in the city hall, men consent (yes, *vote*) to give the saloon full swing and to see drunkenness and debauchery run riot.

This deplorable condition of affairs might easily be remedied. Let the law-abiding and temperance-loving citizens of each town and city form a non-partisan Citizens' League, not for one year, but as a permanent organization; let each member pledge himself to act and vote in an absolutely non-partisan way in all local affairs. Let this League nominate and elect (for in most of our towns the temperance people are in the large majority) officers who shall understand that the enforcement of the liquor laws is as much a part of their business as the lighting the streets. Let them be as sure of losing their offices if they do *not* enforce these laws as our officers are now if they *do* enforce them; then we can have actual prohibition—never until then!

But what are these select few who arrogate to themselves the exclusive title of "temperance workers" actually doing? Trying to push up into the Constitution the statute law that has been a dead letter these thirty years. They seem to be afflicted with a perfect monomania. The more useless *law* proves, the more loudly do they demand *law*. They fill churches from whose steps one can smell rum, and profoundly assert, "Statutory law is *functional;* constitutional law is *organic;* we must make prohibition one of our organic principles before we can succeed." They denounce as an enemy to all righteousness any one who dares question the advantage of their plan to the temperance cause, or the effect of such a policy on the dignity and authority of our Constitution. Yet, intemperate as they undeniably are, no one can doubt their sincerity or their purity of motive.

This last, however, cannot be said of all the agitators of this movement. The Republican politicians are strongly in favor of it, because they expect thereby to gain to their ranks the third-party prohibitionist votes without losing their own votes. The liquor-seller cares not what laws are *passed* so long as they are not *enforced* by the local authorities; but the third-party prohibitionist has no *raison d'être* after prohibition has become a "part of our organic law." It does not yet appear what action the liquor-sellers will take. The brewers will of course oppose the amendment; but there is no reason why the sellers should not prefer it to a high-license law, and it will not be surprising, after the vote, to find that they have actually favored it. G. W. A.

New Hampshire, February 24, 1889.

RHODE ISLAND IN BRYCE'S 'AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. James Bryce has recently published an elaborate work on the American people and their governments, in two large, compactly printed volumes. It has received high commendation from sundry quarters, and deserves all which it receives. It is certainly a wonderful study for a foreigner to make, and yet, possibly, only a foreigner could make such a study. On one of his pages, Mr. Bryce complains of the leniency of criticism in this country. He in fact says that criticism here really does not exist, and that we really need a "searching criticism, which should appraise literary work on sound canons, not caring whether it has been produced in America or in England, by a man or a woman, in the East or in the West," etc. It is to remedy this evil (for I quite agree with Mr. Bryce that we have no criticism), so far as Rhode Island is concerned, that I send this paper. Rhode Island is but a small State, it is true, and Mr. Bryce found little to say specially about her. But there being so little, it is specially desirable that that which is said should be said correctly.

It is stated (vol. i, p. 16) "that all the thirteen colonies owed allegiance to the British crown, and, from them all, causes were carried by appeal from the colonial courts to the English Privy Council." This is qualified in a footnote, thus: "In Rhode Island no appeal seems to have lain to the crown, and the power of legislation was, by the charters of 1643 and 1663, left to the colony, with the proviso only that the laws should be agreeable to those of England as near as may be, considering the nature and constitution of the place." This note is in error. Appeals did lie to the crown, and were often prosecuted there. The celebrated case, Remington vs. Brenton, was an instance, in 1712. A large number of appealed cases could be cited were it necessary. Under a general resolution of the General Assembly, the statutes of England were established as the law of the colony, in addition to its own special enactments, and so they were held for many years; but a decision of the Supreme Court in 1749 overthrew the general resolution, making a specific act necessary to give force to an English statute.

In speaking (vol. i, p. 51) of the duty which devolves upon the President of the United States to maintain a republican form of government in every State, Mr. Bryce cites the case of Rhode Island in 1842. He says: "In the Rhode Island case the President authorized the sending in of the militia of Massachusetts and Connecticut, but the Rhode Island troops succeeded in repressing the rebellion." This is an error. No such proposition was ever even entertained, much less authorized. The President of the United States has no power to order Massachusetts militia to invade Rhode Island.

It is stated (vol. i, p. 547) that "Brown University, formerly called Rhode Island College, founded in 1764, is in the peculiar position of having for its regulation four denominations, Baptists, Congregationalists, Episcopalians, and Quakers, equally represented on the governing body." This is an error. By the Act of Establishment the government of this University was placed in the hands of thirty-six trustees and a Board of (twelve) Fellows. The trustees were to be divided thus: twenty-two Baptists, five Quakers, four Congregationalists, and five Episcopalians. The Board of Fellows was to consist of eight Baptists and four of other denominations.

In speaking (vol. i, p. 533) of the case Trevett vs. Weeden, which seems recently to have come into general notice, Mr. Bryce says, "In 1786 the Supreme Court of Rhode Island decided that an act passed by the Legislature was invalid, because contravening the provisions of the Colonial Charter (which was then still the Constitution of the State), securing to every accused person the benefit of a trial by jury. The Legislature were furious, and proceeded to impeach the judges for disobeying their will. The impeachment failed, but the judges were not reëlected by the Legislature when their terms of office expired at the end of the year, and were replaced by a more subservient bench, which held the statute valid." Again (p. 244), concerning the same matter: "The Supreme Court of Rhode Island held a statute of the Legislature void, on the ground that it made a penalty collectible on summary conviction without trial by jury." And, further, in the same matter, in a footnote on the same page, "See as to this interesting case, the first in which a legislative act was declared unconstitutional for incompatibility with a State constitution, Cooley's 'Constitutional Limitations,' page 106, note."

Mr. Bryce has studied American institutions to small purpose if he has failed to discover that when a properly constituted authority has pronounced an act of a legislature unconstitutional and void, it comes not within the powers of that same judicial authority to reconsider its judgment, and give validity to an act which it has once declared was unconstitutional, and which had never possessed force as law. Hence no "subservient court" could have made a statute valid. However, whatever may be the practice in American courts, this is what Judge Cooley says is the effect of a decision of unconstitutionality:

"When a statute is adjudged to be unconstitutional, it is as if it had never been. Rights cannot be built up under it; contracts which depend upon it for their consideration are void; it constitutes a protection to no one who has acted under it, and no one can be punished for having refused obedience to it before the decision was made. And what is true of an act void *in toto*, is true also as to any part of an act which is found to be unconstitutional, and which consequently is to be regarded as having never, at any time, been possessed of any legal force." ('Constitutional Limitations,' 5th ed., p. 224.)

Mr. Bryce cites Judge Cooley in support of that which he has written. Judge Cooley is an admirable authority. There is probably no man in America whose name would carry greater weight. But possibly Judge Cooley may be in error. On the point above stated, that a court can make valid a statute which itself has before pronounced unconstitutional, Judge Cooley does not, I think, sustain him; but on all the other main points mentioned, I think he does sustain him, for Mr. Bryce has taken many of his sentences almost verbatim from Judge Cooley's note.

This note is in Cooley's 'Constitutional Limitations,' fifth edition, page 194, and Mr. Bryce will, of course, fall back on Judge Cooley as authority; hence I must controvert them both, and this I do. And now, since I can be no more than overthrown, if I am in error, I propose to include Mr. James B. McMaster of Johns Hopkins and Mr. John Fiske of Harvard. All these gentlemen are more or less deeply involved, for they have all fallen into practically the same error. It makes, indeed, a goodly company. In contradiction to all of them, I affirm, that the Supreme Court did not declare the act unconstitutional "because it contravened the Colonial Charter," nor, indeed, "because it made a penalty collectible on summary conviction without trial by jury." The court *did not declare the act unconstitutional at all.* It simply declared that it had no jurisdiction. The record of the case was printed in the Rhode Island 'Acts and Resolves,' October (second session), 1786, page 6, and these are the words of the decision as there recorded: "Whereupon all and singular the Premises being seen, and by the Justices of the Court aforesaid fully understood; it is considered, adjudged, and declared, that the said complaint does not come under the cognizance of the Justices here present, and that the same be and it is hereby dismissed." This is simply a denial of jurisdiction, and was so held by one of the judges, David Howell, Esq., in an argument in defence of the court before the General Assembly. These are his words: "The

Legislature had assumed a fact in their summons to the judges which was not justified or warranted by the record. The plea of the defendant, in a matter of mere surplusage, mentions the Act of the General Assembly as 'unconstitutional and so void,' but the judgment of the Court simply is, 'that the information is not cognizable before them.' Hence it appears that the plea hath been mistaken for the judgment" ('Trial of the Case,' p. 38).

Mr. Bryce makes this statement: "The term of the judges expired at the end of the year, when they were replaced by a more *subservient bench*, which held the statute valid." This is not the precise language of Judge Cooley. He says: "Their terms expired at the end of the year, and (the Legislature) supplanted them by more *pliant tools*, by whose assistance the paper money was forced into circulation." The terms "subservient" bench and "pliant tools" are hardly proper epithets to bestow upon a court before which there came no questions for decision concerning the forcing into circulation of this paper money. The terms of the judges did not expire at the end of the year, unless, indeed, these gentlemen meant to have written "the year *for which they were elected*." But they did not so write; and this expiration has some bearing upon the question. The question before the court was, not whether the General Assembly had a right to legalize the issue of paper money, or to make that paper legal tender. It was the question of imprisonment of men who declined to take the money for goods sold or for debts. The *penal statutes* were called in question. These statutes were enacted in May, June, and August, 1786; and they were all repealed in December of that same year. The court which made the decision was elected in May, 1786, for one year. When their successors were elected, the obnoxious laws had been repealed five months, so that neither a "subservient bench" nor "pliant tools" were required for their enforcement.

The legal-tender aspect of the case is not here considered. It has not been discussed by Mr. Bryce nor by Judge Cooley. The State made paper legal tender in 1786. No Rhode Island court ever sustained the act. The United States made paper legal tender in the time of the Rebellion, and the Supreme Court sustained the constitutionality of the law. If that decision is well founded, I do not see how blame can attach to Rhode Island. But, as I have stated, I do not here enter upon that discussion.

SIDNEY S. RIDER.

73 ALMY ST., PROVIDENCE, R. I.

COMMODORE SLOAT AND THE MEXICAN WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your recent notice of Bancroft's 'California,' your curious readers may find further information about Commodore Sloat's stay on the Mexican Coast, and how he got information of the war, in Dr. Wood's 'Sketches of South America and Polynesia,' published in 1849 by Carey & Hart. Dr. Wood was sent across Mexico from San Blas in order to procure information; his journey was very adventurous and dangerous. In the interior of the country he received the news of war, and sent an express back to Commodore Sloat; this reached him on May 17, 1846, and was the first news to him of the war. The English admiral had previously succeeded in getting intelligence long before our people did, but on this occasion we were ahead: the English were engaged in protecting bullion smugglers. G.

CYCLIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR:

"The criticule . . . is simply suffering from acute whim, more or less bilious, complicated with defective information, not to speak of an asthenic condition of the logical faculty. To bear him out in his antipathy, almost equally little with the versifier about Dr. Fell does he produce anything that can, even by stretch of courtesy, be complimented as a reason. And now he may be released."

(With apologies to "F. H.," from whose letter on the word "Reliable," immediately preceding that of J. and E. R. Pennell, the above paragraph is appropriated.)

The letter of J. and E. R. Pennell was a source of considerable surprise to me. As an active athlete, I claim some slight acquaintance with athletic nomenclature generally, and out of that knowledge I without hesitation assert that the word "cyclist," be it "English of the poorest kind" or most defensible, is English as spoken in cycling circles; further, I will assert that the word "cycler" is a stranger and only an occasional visitor with us. Not content with my own conviction, I raised the point last night at a large gymnastic club where I am a member, among the members of which we number, I should judge, some 300 to 400 riders. My view was unanimously confirmed by those riders to whom I put the question.

The reference to the proprietor of the *Cyclist* journal as "a small local job-printer and paper-hanger" is hardly ingenuous, to say the least. I have no personal interest in the paper, and, indeed, hardly ever see it, but may say that the proprietor owns two or three other class journals, has an office in London and works in the country, and turns out from the latter, in addition to his own publications, at least one weekly journal with a 30,000 circulation. The composition, presswork, and general handling of such a publication is not usually in the power of "a small local job-printer and paper-hanger." *Verb. sap.*

Yours faithfully, B. J. R.

LONDON, February 18, 1889.

Notes.

SCRIBNER & WELFORD'S spring announcements include Villari's 'Life and Times of Girolamo Savonarola,' translated by his wife, with the author's revision and enlargement; a new and enlarged edition of O'Meara's 'Napoleon at St. Helena'; the works of George Borrow; Select Essays by De Quincey, edited by Prof. David Masson; a new Commentary on Genesis, by Prof. Franz Delitzsch; 'Greek Influence on Christianity' (the Hibbert Lectures); and 'The Dead Leman, and Other Tales from the French,' translated by Andrew Lang and Paul Sylvester.

Bourrienne's 'Memoirs of Napoleon' is to be reprinted from the latest English edition by Chas. Scribner's Sons in four volumes, containing thirty-eight portraits. They have also in preparation a new edition of the Erckmann-Chatrian historical romances, and will publish directly 'Chopin, and Other Musical Essays,' by Henry T. Finck.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have arranged with Boussod, Valadon & Cie. for the exclusive publication in the United States of a sumptuous quarto volume, 'Pierre and Jean,' with illustrations by Ernest Duez and Albert Lynch. The plates will be printed by the French firm, to accompany the English text.

G. P. Putnam's Sons commemorate the approaching centennial anniversary of Washington's inauguration with a unique limited edition of Irving's Life of Washington, in five volumes quarto, comprising 200 illustrations—steel plates, and woodcuts inlaid in the text. Three hundred sets will be printed from type.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. publish immediately the 'Life of Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop of Oxford and Winchester,' by his son Reginald, revised with additions; the 'Imitation of Christ,' "for the first time faithfully rendered in rhythm"; 'The Spirit of Christ,' by Andrew Murray; 'The Counter-Reformation,' by Adolphus William Ward; and 'Thomas Hard, Priest,' by Barton Lee.

Thomas Whittaker promises directly a collection of twenty new sermons by Archdeacon Farrar.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have in press 'Decisive Events in American History: Burgoyne's Invasion of 1777,' by Samuel Adams Drake; and 'Every-Day Business: Notes on its Practical Details,' by M. S. Emery.

'Hints for Teachers of Physiology,' by Prof. Henry P. Bowditch, of the Harvard Medical School, will be issued directly by D. C. Heath & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have just brought out a cheap edition, in paper covers, of Tolstoi's 'Anna Karénina,' in Mr. Dole's version. They have in preparation a translation of W. Heimburg's 'Story of a Clergyman's Daughter,' by Miss Jean W. Wylie.

Mr. Thomas A. Janvier's 'Mexican Guide' for 1889 (Scribners) is the same excellent publication we have had occasion to commend in other years, with few changes beyond those made necessary by the progress of events Some unimportant errors may still be detected, and occasionally a failure to note late changes in Mexican laws—for example, the adjournment of the date fixed for making the metric system compulsory in the country; but none of these at all impair the great practical value to the tourist or intending resident of Mr. Janvier's highly satisfactory work.

The fifth volume of the Transactions of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers (New York, 5 Beekman Street) contains much interesting and valuable matter, and concludes with an index to current electrical literature, or rather a series of monthly indexes, the utility of which would be vastly increased by a general topical index.

A convenient phonographic instructor is afforded by the 'Book of Psalms' "printed in the easy reporting style in accordance with the Manual of Phonography by Benn Pitman and Jerome B. Howard" (Cincinnati: Phonographic Institute).

The latest addition to the series of accurate texts of the Hebrew Bible edited by Seligman Baer and Franz Delitzsch is the Book of Chronicles ('Liber Chronicorum,' Leipzig: Tauchnitz. 1888). The editing is by Baer and the preface by Delitzsch. A second preface, by the latter's distinguished son, Friedrich Delitzsch, consists of a discussion of the etymology of the name of the Assyrian King Tiglath-pileser (Assyrian *Tukulti-pil-ashri*). The conclusion is reached that it means, "My help is the son of the sanctuary."

The *Journal* of the Military Service Institution of the United States will hereafter be published bi-monthly, instead of quarterly, at Governor's Island, New York Harbor.

Mr. F. S. Arnot's modest account of his remarkable journeys in South Africa, given in the February Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, are a distinct contribution to geographical knowledge. In the course of seven years he crossed the continent from east to west, and penetrated to regions almost

wholly unknown and unvisited by Europeans, "without a white or even a black companion . . . or show of arms," and "never received any ill-treatment." He succeeded in reaching the country of the Garenganze, at the head waters of the Congo and Zambesi Rivers, the goal of Dr. Livingstone's last journey. Mr. Arnot won the confidence of King Msidi, who appears to be a man of the same stamp as Mtesa, the founder of the kingdom of Uganda. The son of a trader, he has become a powerful sovereign, ruling over a great territory to the west of Lake Nyassa. This he has divided into sections, each governed by a chief who "is represented at court by one of Msidi's wives, by whom all tribute is collected, and all visitors to the capital are entertained." This novel plan, according to Mr. Arnot, who stayed in the country two years, is very effective. In a region lying between this and the Atlantic the natives have succeeded in extracting rubber from the talamba root, which has proved of great commercial value. Mr. Arnot, it should be added, travelled as an independent missionary, and succeeded in establishing a station at Mukurru, the residence of Msidi. An excellent map accompanies this paper, which is followed by an account by Mr. T. F. Bevan of his explorations in British New Guinea.

No. 139 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society is almost wholly given up to proposals for a traveller's outfit in Eastern and Central Africa, by Paul Reichard, freely illustrated. The map of this issue is one helpful in filling out our scanty knowledge of the Amazon Valley; it shows a portion of the Peruvian department.

In the act of taking leave of a so-called winter (we speak for this part of the Atlantic coast), we can enjoy an article on "Der sogenannte Sommer 1888" published in a late number of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (Heft 3, 1888-89. New York: F. W. Christern). The "pious fraud of the almanac" exposed with a light touch, yet with tabular evidence, by Reinhold Kleemann, is, of course, the European "summer" season of last year. "It is a wonder," he says in closing, "that nobody has yet made Krakatoa responsible for it, for such explanations carry weight by their very unintelligibility, and are easy avoidances of confession of ignorance."

The American Society of Naturalists has adopted a report of a committee on the subject of "science in the schools"; recommending that instruction in natural science (chiefly by object lessons) begin in the lowest grade of the primary schools, and be continued thenceforward more and more systematically; that "an elementary (but genuine and practical) acquaintance with some one or more departments"—as, physical geography, phænogamic botany, and human physiology—be made a requisite for admission to college. The report briefly outlines the methods to be employed. The rudiments of human physiology and hygiene, even in the primary school, and of physics and chemistry in the highest grammar-school grades, are likewise urged as desiderata. The Society means to institute a propaganda to this end, and all must wish it success.

A centennial reunion of the alumni and matriculates of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill has now become possible, in the lapse of time, and is to take place on June 5 during Commencement week. There will be interesting exercises and class dinners; and a catalogue of all students from the beginning, with a complete history of the University, will be published.

Prof. Crane of Cornell University has been invited by the French Government to act as a member of the Committee under whose auspices is to be held next summer at Paris, in connection with the Exposition, the Folk-Lore Congress (*Congrès des Traditions Populaires*). The Committee is a small one, and is composed of scholars of various nations interested in the study of folk-lore.

—The first place in the March *Scribner's* is naturally assigned to the article of ex-Postmaster-General James on the Railway Mail Service. He sets forth with admirable clearness the growth and working of the system of travelling post-offices, and describes the demoralizing effect of partisan politics upon this branch of the public service with directness and vigor. Under the title "A German Rome," Mr. W. B. Scott writes an historical and antiquarian paper on the city of Treves. The other illustrated article of the number is that of William F. Apthorp on "Some of Wagner's Heroes and Heroines." It is a well-wrought piece of work, aiming mostly to show the ethical and metaphysical ideas which Wagner set himself to elaborate in his creations, with appropriate notice of their origin, growth, and changes, and will, of course, have a great timely interest, in New York at least. A baker's dozen of illustrations show the make-up adopted by some of the most famous Wagner singers in their different impersonations. In "Economy in Intellectual Work," Mr. William H. Burnham gives some old counsels driven home by the latest conclusions of physiological psychology. Mr. Janvier unloads a budget of Mexican popular tales, collected by him in his numerous trips to the neighboring republic; they are of slight texture and interest, though curious enough, some of them. Mr. Higginson and Mrs. Underhill furnish the poetry of the issue, and Henry James what is known as the "end paper." In this case, it is "An Animated Conversation," as Mr. James not too confidently calls it, where the talk flits in and out among the subjects of international relations, modern novels, French and English art, and international copyright, in a way which those accustomed to the author's style can easily imagine; his personal opinions on the topics mentioned will not be hidden from the judicious reader.

—The March *Century*, like most numbers of that magazine, has something to hit every taste. Mediæval art is represented in the paper on the two Gaddis, father and son, with a full-page reproduction of one of the latter's (supposed) works. The modern painters of whom Emma Eames Chase writes are Dutch, and the corners of their studios and other bits of Dutch interiors make pleasing illustrations. To the artistic taste, too, will appeal Mrs. Van Rensselaer's article on York Cathedral, with a dozen different cuts, outside and inside, of the majestic and beautiful pile. Mr. Kennan turns aside for the moment from his study of cruelty to take up that of superstition, and gives an account of an excursion he made off the main route to Siberia in order to visit the Grand Lama of the Trans-Baikal. The principal impression left by the portrait of the Grand Lama, given as the frontispiece of the number, is a growing wonder as to where the man could have stowed away his feet and legs—a wonder that might seem to him as strange as to us seems his at the sphericity of the earth as Mr. Kennan argued it out to him. Something more than an old proverb is illustrated in the careful account of experiments in the use of oil to still the waves of the ocean, and of the devices now employed and proposed to make the remedy more economical and effective, by W. H. Beehler. "Something Electricity is Doing" is more suggestive than descriptive, being made up mostly of hints at the industrial changes to be wrought by "taking the motor to the work instead of the work to the motor." The Lincoln biography reaches the completion of emancipation, up to which it has been working in the recent important chapters. Congressman Reed has a brief protest against the rules of the body in which he sits—not treating the subject with thoroughness, of course, but crying out as one himself in the toils.

—The most taking title in the March *Atlantic's* table of contents (at least for all who are not hopelessly under the spell of Prof. Hardy and Henry James) is "Personal Reminiscences of William H. Seward," by Samuel J. Barrows and his wife, each of whom served as the statesman's private secretary. If what these writers have to say does not fully bear out the expectations roused by their subject, it is only because it should not have been expected that they would have intimate or particularly important revelations to make. A pleasant picture they give us of the Secretary's personal affability, and considerable insight into his habits of composition and methods of work. Stuart F. Weld writes of the Isthmus canal as related to the policy of our Government, his aim being to show that the scheme of exclusive control is decidedly an afterthought, due to the appearance of Jingoism in the State Department in 1881-82. He also points out the changes wrought in international law by the Suez Canal, and argues that the guaranteed neutrality of that highway of commerce is a precedent that ought to be followed in the case of any route across the Panama Isthmus. In "Some Colonial Lawyers and their Work," Frank Gaylord Cook sketches the slow differentiation of the legal profession in colonial times, and dwells at some length on the great political and historical significance of the speeches (rather than strictly legal arguments) of Otis and Henry in the famous writs of assistance and parson's cause cases. John Fiske give more fruits of his historical studies in the Revolutionary period, this time detailing the grand military plan of the English to end the war in its second year, and the parts taken in it by Burgoyne and St. Leger at Ticonderoga, Bennington, and Oriskany. Of course, no one will skip Charles Dudley Warner's short paper on "Simplicity," or Whittier's poem on last year's extraordinary Christmas weather; and those who like a dialect story with something more than the dialect in it will not refuse it at the hands of Elizabeth W. Bellamy.

—The most memorable work of Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps is his 'Outlines.' This opinion of Mr. Furness's expresses the feeling of every true Shaksperian. When outsiders ask, "Why do we know so little about Shakspere?" the best answer is, "Because you have not read, or certainly have not marked and inwardly digested, Phillipps's 'Outlines,' especially the seventh edition." Seeing how all the world has been taxed for elaborating this monumental work, we are at once constrained to echo the saying of Furness, "It is not likely that any scraps of knowledge will be added to what is contained in these volumes." What shall the man do who cometh after the king? But had Phillipps lived a year longer, he would have added a good many such scraps. Witness the growth of the 'Outlines' year by year, even up to the last edition, our presentation copy of which is dated October 3, 1887. In our last conversation with him he said his favorite haunts were the New Record Office and the British Museum, and that he seldom entered either

without gathering up some Shaksperian fragments. He was, in truth, a magnet to such fragments, which attracted them out of hiding-places where no one would ever look for them. "No likelihood of any further scraps of Shaksperian knowledge"! What will Mr. Furness say to the following, which a lucky chance has just thrown in our way?

"In an indenture between the Right Honorable Sir Richard Saltonstall, Knt., Lord Mayor of London, and two other commissioners of her Majesty (fortieth year of Queen Elizabeth), and the parties deputed to collect the first of three subsidies granted by Parliament the year preceding,—bearing date 1 Oct. 1598, for the rate of St. Helen's Parish, Bishopgate ward,—the name of William Shakespeare is found as liable with others to that rate."

This scrap was unknown to Halliwell-Phillipps. He with other prophets and kings desired it long, but died without the sight.

—In the 'Outlines' there is but one statement concerning the local habitation of Shakspere in London. It is in these words: "At this time, 1596, he appears to have been residing when in town in lodgings near the Bear Garden in Southwark" (vol. i, p. 130, 7th ed.). Only this and nothing more. Thanks to the tax-record, we can say where his residence *was*, not merely where it "appears to have been." Mr. Phillipps gives no authority for his opinion concerning Shakspere's lodgings. We have legal proof that his abode two years after was in St. Helen's parish. Crosby Hall in St. Helen's parish is sometimes visited by Americans as the scene of assignation between Gloster (not yet Richard III.) and Lady Anne, and also the place where Catesby was to report to Gloster the progress of the plot for chopping off Hastings's head. It will be visited ten times oftener, thanks to our proof that Shakspere's home was close by that hall, and that, too, about the time, if not at the exact time, when "Richard III." was written. Indeed, the proximity of that Crosby Hall, of Gothic massiveness and oaken ceilings and historic associations, may have led to the selection of Richard as the subject of a play. No trace of the Bear Garden can be discovered. Crosby Hall is the best preserved mediæval building in the metropolis. The scrap we have raked from the dust of old oblivion, if known to Mr. Phillipps, would have become the starting-point of a new departure, "a small prick to a subsequent volume." His research was in many lines, but does not appear to have extended to tax-lists. But, once having caught the scent, he would have ferreted out every document on London taxes in the period of Shakspere's life there. Such a search is the duty of those on whom his mantle has fallen. The worm-hole of long-vanished days from which we plucked this gem we refrain from mentioning, till we learn whether it is known to any writer for *Shakespeariana*. The discoverer of the indenture did not tell anybody of his Kohinoor, but hid it in a place where nobody would look for it. Nor did we look for it, more than Saul looked for a kingdom when he went forth to seek his father's asses.

—The University of Cambridge has lately set up in several of the centres of trade in England examinations for what are called "Commercial Certificates." The first report of the examiners has just been published, and it gives a most depressing view of the state of business education in the country. Forty-nine candidates presented themselves for examination in twenty-three different places, and of these only eight passed. The quality of the papers seems to have been very poor. One question, on commercial terms and abbreviations, was hardly attempted by anybody. No candidate could draw a bill of exchange properly. "Very little power was shown of composing a simple letter in respectable English that should say what was wanted, and nothing more." "The spelling also left much to be desired in some cases, and the writing of a few of the candidates was so slovenly that they would have been rejected whatever the merit of their papers had been." The French and German were both found to be poor; advanced algebra and political economy good for nothing; no practical short-hand; weak geography and history. The English literature was "not of a high order"; the chemistry "inaccurate, and the practical work very poor"; the mechanical drawing "worthless." Even of the arithmetic it is reported that "none of the papers were of conspicuous merit, and the general average was low." Elementary algebra was better done, and some praise is given to single candidates for Spanish, sound and light, and heat and electricity. The English university examiner is not generally believed to err habitually on the side of over-gentleness of speech and judgment, but if the report of the Cambridge examiner is only half fair and just, it explains the preference of business men for German-trained clerks and secretaries, of which some complaint has at times been made in the English newspapers.

—In his address on occasion of the third graduation ceremony of the Imperial University of Japan, the President, Mr. H. Watanabe, presented a concise outline of matters related to that institution which will interest all who note the progress of the higher education in the far East. The College of Law, previously confined to the English and French divisions, has been enriched by the addition of a German division. Instruction in legal court practice is given gratis to students by eminent members of the profession in Tokio. Almost all of the graduates in law will receive appointments in the imperial legal courts. The law college now instructs more than eighty students. The curricula in the College of Medicine are now nearly complete, and include the addition of a new course of pharmacy. Lectures and practical instruction in nursing in the College Hospital were given by Miss Agnes Vetch, a scientifically trained English nurse. Advantages are now to be offered for the study of forensic medicine. Some months ago, on occasion of the visit of her Majesty the Empress to the University and its hospital, she inspected all the wards and operation rooms, and made inquiries as to the diseases of almost every patient. A grant of three hundred *yen* made by her Majesty at that time is devoted to providing extra accommodation for free patients, thus relieving the sick poor, and at the same time offering greater advantages to the course of clinical medicine and surgery. Original investigations conducted in the various institutes of the medical section have been published in the journal of the College.

—Perhaps the outlook of the Engineering College is the most satisfying. The construction of new engineering works and appliances throughout Japan is increasing to such an extent that the graduates of this College are insufficient to meet the demands for properly qualified professional men. Courses in sanitary engineering and the technology of arms and explosives have recently been added to curricula already very full. New buildings in the University compound just completed for the Engineering College are now ready for occupancy. Of the thirty-five graduates of this College, thirteen are in civil engineering, two each in mechanical engineering, naval architecture and electric engineering, one in architecture, eleven in applied chemistry, and four in mining and metallurgy. In the Literature College, only two students graduate, one in philosophy and the other in Japanese literature. In the College of Science many important researches have been carried out. Prof. Knott and his assistants have been busy with a determination of the elements of magnetic force in the empire. For the purpose of anthropological investigations, the *hyaku-ana*, or one hundred excavations, as they are popularly known, have been inquired into, with encouraging results. There were found between two and three hundred of these, and several human relics were obtained—gold rings, swords, old bits of earthen ware, etc. These are in Yoshimi; and elsewhere, many old tombs were searched and valuable archæological specimens procured. In furthering astronomical ends, the Japanese officials have made a wise move in the consolidation of the three Government observatories at Tokio into one. This is known as the Imperial Tokio Observatory, and is attached to the Mombusho, or Department of Education, with Prof. Terao as director. It is thus under the control of the University, and its site is that heretofore known as the Imperial Naval Observatory, in Azabu, whither the instruments and apparatus of the two other former observatories are removed. The principal telescopes are of the best German and English construction. The total number of students of the University, including elective and special students, is now about eight hundred, and more than two hundred scholarships, for the most part on the loan system, are available.

McCULLOCH'S MEN AND MEASURES.

Men and Measures of Half a Century. Sketches and Comments. By Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury in the Administrations of Presidents Lincoln, Johnson, and Arthur. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888.

THE reminiscences of great men are not infallible. "Chief actors" and "principal witnesses" the authors may have been, and still much of their testimony be hearsay, and many of the events which their eyes beheld have been seen through a distorting medium of jealousies, prejudices, unfounded suspicions, and angry, partisan denunciations. The writers were contemporaries, but the writings were not contemporaneous. Except in the case of hastily written, incomplete, imperfect daily journals, reminiscences are written generally long after the events, and by men who know so much about the things they are narrating that they never know when to distrust their memories and "verify their quotations." Thus, General Grant, in his political conversation in 1880 with a Methodist clergyman, said that a certain military order of General Hancock's in New Orleans had been a great mistake—an order which General Hancock should not have issued, and which he, General Grant, had been obliged to rescind. Here the main facts existed: there had been such an order, it had been deemed improper—General Grant had rescinded it; yet the record showed that it had been issued by General Sheridan, and had been rescinded at the request of General Hancock. It is fortunate for General Grant's own book that his military life had been written under his own eye several years before; that it had been subjected to criticism and correction before he himself began to write, and that his own work was subjected to the revision of so well trained a critic as General Badeau.

Mr. McCulloch's events, however, are seen through no distorting medium. A fairer, kindlier book was never written. It is refreshing indeed, in an age of detractious and sensational authorship, to find an able man treating so generously his rivals or opponents, and speaking so temperately of the mistakes and blunders and errors and wrongs which his judgment or his conscience condemns. The fault, indeed, of Mr. McCulloch's book, from a critical point of view, is the abounding kindliness and delicacy which govern his hand whenever he touches his contemporaries, living or dead. For instance, there are many anonymous sayings which would be much more interesting to the reader and valuable to the author if the name of the speaker had been given. Thus: "One of the ablest of the Republican Senators" said, alluding to the sentence in Grant's inaugural that he accepted the responsibilities of the office without fear, "You know, McCulloch, that I am not a religious man, but if I had been elected President I should not have accepted the responsibilities without fear. I should on my knees have asked God to help me." And another unnamed Senator, who viewed the fearful carnage of the Wilderness two days after the battle, exclaimed, "If that scene could have been presented to me before the war, anxious as I was for the preservation of the Union, I should have said, 'The cost is too great; erring sisters, go in peace.'" Both of these speeches reflected upon General Grant, and Mr. McCulloch, scrupulous as to the possible wishes of the speakers, withholds their names.

His appreciation of ability is circumscribed by no clique or faction or party lines, and his good words fall upon the just and the unjust. Of President Johnson he says:

"No public man in the United States has been so imperfectly understood as Andrew Johnson. None has been so difficult to understand. He had many faults, but he abounded also in admirable qualities. His love of the Union was a passion, intensified by the dangers to which it had exposed him and by his labors in its defence." "He was an honest man, and his administration was an honest and clean administration. In this respect it will bear comparison with any that preceded or has followed it. In appointments money was not potent. Offices were not merchandise. The President never permitted himself to be placed under personal obligations to any one. He received no presents. The horses and carriage which were sent to him soon after he became President were promptly returned." "If he did not declare that public offices were public trusts, his actions proved that he so regarded them. In some matters I doubted the correctness of his judgment, but I never doubted his devotion to what he considered his duty to the country, and the whole country." "By the Republican press and by some members of Congress he was denounced as a traitor, not only to his party, but to the country. His services during the war, in recognition of which he had been nominated for the Vice-Presidency; the bravery which he had displayed in his contests with the secessionists of Tennessee; the terrible trials to which his family were subjected by his fidelity to the Union, were all ignored, buried, forgotten."

Of Mr. Stanton:

"He died on the 24th of December, 1869, having made for himself a record for energy, promptness of decision, practicable ability, and inflexible devotion to the Government which entitled him to a very high rank among those who are justly honored for their services when the national life was at stake." "He relinquished a lucrative practice in the legal profession to serve the country when just such services as he was able to render were required, and he did serve it with unfaltering zeal and unremitted industry." "He was a great war minister, and his proper mission ended at the end of the war."

Of Mr. Seward:

"The statesman was much wiser than the soldier [General Grant]." "It was not cowardice, but prudence and intelligent statesmanship, that dictated the policy by adherence to which the French army was forced out of Mexico, Maximilian left to his fate, and the prestige of Napoleon III. severely damaged. Fortunate was it for the people of the United States, and for the cause of civil liberty throughout the world, that at the close of our great civil war the control of the Government was not in the hands of a self-confident soldier."

Of Mr. Chase:

"If I were asked to designate the man whose services, next to Mr. Lincoln's, were of greatest value to the country from March, 1861, to July, 1864, I should unhesitatingly name Salmon P. Chase."

Of Mr. Fessenden:

"He was one of the very few men of his day who merited the name of statesman." "He was not an orator, but a debater of the highest order, lucid, cogent, incisive." "In devotion to what he considered right he was as inflexible as steel."

Of Mr. Seymour:

"Horatio Seymour was one of the ablest and purest of statesmen." "No man in the country was better equipped for the Presidency."

Of Mr. Robeson:

"He was the best abused member of the Cabinet, but the abuse to which he was subjected neither soured his temper nor injured his digestion." "If instead of being Secretary of the Navy, he had been Attorney-General, he would have won an enviable national reputation."

Of Mr. Boutwell:

"He was, I am sure (being, in spite of his prejudices, a high-toned gentleman), gratified as he ascertained from day to day that the Department had been honestly administered."

Of Mr. Belknap:

"He had the reputation of being an able man and of good business qualifications."

Of Mr. Wm. E. Chandler:

"He had my entire confidence—in no one could it have been more safely reposed."

Of President Arthur:

"If any one of our Presidents merited a second term, he did."

Of Mr. Lincoln:

"He was unassuming, patient, hopeful, farseeing. He was also one of the bravest of men. In saying this, I do not refer to personal courage, in which he was by no means deficient, but to bravery of a higher and rarer kind—bravery which was steadfast under the criticism of his friends and the assaults of his enemies." "Throughout his administration Mr. Lincoln was wiser than his assailants, wiser than his friends."

And of Jefferson Davis:

"There have been few men more gifted than Mr. Davis, and few whose opportunities for intellectual culture have been better improved. I had not known him personally, but I knew what his standing was among the able men of the country, and expected to meet in him an accomplished gentleman. To those who knew him well, it is not necessary for me to say that I was not disappointed, and that I was most favorably impressed by his manners and conversation."

As a sagacious reader has remarked, "Mr. McCulloch has said too many good things about too many people." The only person to whom he has not done justice is the late General Rawlins, of whose appointment as Secretary of War he says, "General Rawlins had no special qualifications for the place, and had done nothing to merit the appointment." This was undoubtedly the opinion of many intelligent men at the time; but of General Rawlins, as of Mr. Lincoln, it may be truly said, the more we learn of him the better he appears. Certainly Mr. McCulloch, when he wrote that sentence, could not have read General W. F. Smith's article on Grant and Rawlins, nor the brave and noble letter which the chief of staff wrote to his commanding officer soon after the fall of Vicksburg—a letter which has no equal in the annals of friendship or of military life. Mr. McCulloch says that the success of Vicksburg had a decided influence upon General Grant, and that thereafter he believed in his own destiny. If the truth could be known, it would probably appear that the change was not due to Vicksburg, but to the letter of General Rawlins and the inexorable resolution with which he confronted his superior officer.

Yet it must not be supposed that Mr. McCulloch's courtesy and kindness have made his sketches of men valueless. On the contrary, the man of banks and business frequently dissects character with the hand of a master, and weighs merits and faults in the just and delicate balance which generally belongs only to an experienced critical writer. The analysis of President Johnson and General Grant, the delineations of their characters, the portrayal of their public acts and services, and the statement of their merits and defects, form the best biographical criticism that has yet appeared of those two men. It is not a criticism which the country is yet ready to adopt as to either of them; but when the prejudice and glamour of the day have passed, Mr. McCulloch's estimate will be adopted generally, and the future critic will admire the dispassionate calmness of a contemporary who, notwithstanding the friendly and unfriendly relations which existed between himself and them, was able to look at both sides of each character, and place an almost unerring estimate upon each.

The chief defect of Mr. McCulloch's book is, that, so far as public men and measures are concerned, it is neither reminiscence nor history. When he puts words into the mouth of a general during a battle without citing his authority, it is certain that he did not hear them, and uncertain where he found them. If his book had given only his reflections and observations at the time of the occurrences, it would be a valuable contribution to history, as showing how great events appeared to an unusually calm and intelligent observer, and would help the future historian to see them as they were seen. But, unfortunately, Mr. McCulloch's reflections do not stop there. Nor has he modified the old impressions by careful historical study. Thus, he says of General McClellan, that he "thought at the time that he merited the displeasure of the Government," but that subsequently, after he "had been better informed," his mind underwent a radical change, and he came to the conclusion that instead of having been relieved and retired, he should have been "honored for his generalship and continued in command." Mr. McCulloch also quotes a Confederate general "who served with distinction in the Army of Virginia," as saying, "There was no Union general whom we so much dreaded as McClellan."

Assuredly such statements as these are but a demonstration of the truth of Pope's immortal line. If there was any fact established in the year, 1888, when Mr. McCulloch's book went to press, it was that every Confederate general whose opinion is worth having held McClellan's generalship in unqualified contempt. The audacious movement of Lee *out of the defences* of Richmond, calmly and prudently considered before it was undertaken, was based on his contempt for his opponent's generalship. His operations in Maryland in 1862, the division of his army, the almost reckless advance upon Harper's Ferry, were again based on that contempt. We have also the articles of Generals Longstreet, Hill, and McLaws, and the words of Stonewall Jackson after his capture of Har-

per's Ferry. Even the guerilla Mosby in his book shows that Stuart's raid through McClellan's lines was a product of the same contempt, and he quotes with derision the false and pompous despatch to Washington, saying that some of the enemy's cavalry had gone somewhere, and that he had despatched troops to punish them. If he had telegraphed, "The young and energetic leader of the Confederate cavalry is riding where he pleases through my lines, but I have sent his old father-in-law with cavalry retarded by infantry to catch him if he can," it would have expressed the truth of the situation.

But the error is greater even than this. If Mr. McCulloch had given the world his first impressions and final convictions, and stopped there, no one could have found fault with that. But he then proceeds to give the reasons why injustice was done to McClellan, and why he should have been retained in command—*i. e.*, to write history. The history which he thus writes is nothing more than an abstract of McClellan's oft-repeated complaints and excuses. Of the almost infinite patience of Abraham Lincoln, of the kindly messages he sent to the semi-mutinous general, of the admonitory letters he wrote; of all the reproaches and abuse which were showered upon himself by his own political friends, and what he silently suffered and heroically endured, lest he should injure the cause of his country by mistakenly removing McClellan, Mr. McCulloch manifestly has never heard. The only justification for General McClellan is that which he himself offered at the time, the superior numbers of the enemy. We now know the relative strength of the opposing armies with as much certainty as we know the distance from New York to Liverpool; yet it is manifest that Mr. McCulloch has never seen the figures. Greatly to be regretted it is that so careful and painstaking a man should have published historical statements which were not based on historical research.

But the men and measures of half a century extend before and after the brief period of the civil war. In 1832 Mr. McCulloch listened to Jeremiah Mason as he addressed a committee of the Massachusetts Legislature in favor of a "bill authorizing the construction of a railroad from Boston to Salem"—a measure which was violently opposed, on the ground that a turnpike company was entitled to the exclusive traffic between the two towns. In 1888 he asks, "In what other country do manufacturers who are protected by tariff against foreign competition, combine by trusts and other agencies to prevent domestic competition?" and he comments: "There is no country of which I have any knowledge in which business of all descriptions is so steadily falling into fewer and fewer hands, in which combinations are so powerful, and individuals so powerless, as the United States." In 1833, when he left New England, the *North American Review* had been edited by Alexander and Edward Everett; in 1887 he notices, with the contempt of an upright gentleman, that it publishes the scurrilous trash of an anonymous coward. In his preface, and in the last pages of his book, Mr. McCulloch avows and reavows the conviction that "the greatest mistake which has been made by the Government of the United States has been in conferring upon foreigners the elective franchise," and that "by inviting to our shores to assist in administering the State and national governments men who consider it their duty to fight all governments, we have done much to make our grand experiment a failure."

Besides the men and measures of America, the book contains four chapters upon England, founded, of course, upon the author's six years' residence there. The subject is not a new one, but it is pleasant to have the first impressions of a mature and intelligent American mind, well trained in observation and deduction; and that Mr. McCulloch's certainly was when he first set eyes upon the soil of England. The same discriminating and appreciating spirit is seen in these chapters as in the American portions of the book, and the narration is in the same clear and simple style. An American schoolgirl might read his brief account of English society and life and customs with pleasure and profit, and learn that an English laborer on £1 a week can bring up a family comfortably with enough of food, and meat twice a week, his children in school and something laid by in the savings-bank; that a French village of 300 inhabitants could live well on the food that is wasted in one large American hotel; that a knight will speak of his wife as "my lady," and a duke of his as "my wife"; that London is "the most Sabbath-observing city in the world," and "Victoria one of the purest of women" and "most sensible of queens."

THREE BOOKS OF TRAVEL.

A Trip Round the World in 1887-8. By W. S. Caine, M. P. George Routledge & Sons.

Our Kin Across the Sea. By J. C. Firth, with a preface by J. A. Froude. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

Frau Buchholz im Orient. Von Julius Stinde. Berlin: Freund & Jeckel; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 238.

Mr. Caine shows wisdom as well as modesty when he states in his preface that he relies upon illustrations rather than on his literary powers for the success of his book. The illustrations are numerous and admirable almost without exception, and make amends for occasional slip-shod English and other defects of style. But if Mr. Caine is not a great writer, he says much that is interesting, much that is valuable, and he avoids in a most creditable manner the temptation to take the public into his confidence in matters of personal comfort and discomfort—a temptation to which many travellers succumb readily and with much resulting weariness to their readers. The book divides itself into two parts, the first dealing with Canada and the second with Japan, China, and India. Mr. Caine finds much to praise and admire in Canada: the incalculable benefits of a system of free education, not yet reached in England; the fact that an agricultural laborer can go to Manitoba, and in a few years save money enough to buy 160 acres of land, and in a few more years increase his capital ten or twenty-fold; and above all, for Mr. Caine is a strong temperance advocate, the fact that in Canada the cause of temperance is daily gaining ground, and that its inhabitants consume one gallon of liquor per head as compared with ten gallons in England. With all these things he is deeply impressed, as also with the magnificent scenery of the Rocky and Selkirk Ranges, much of which is reproduced in the illustrations, and with the delightful climate of Vancouver's Island, which he considers superior to Manitoba for farming.

Coming next to Japan, he says: "They make a great mistake who think that because Japan is a heathen country, it is, therefore, of necessity low down in the scale of civilization. In everything that makes a country happy, prosperous, and contented, Japan will compare favorably with any nation in Christendom." Mr. Caine thinks that the great Buddhist temples of Nikko rank with the finest religious edifices in the world, pagan or Christian, and that as specimens of carpenter's work they are quite beyond compare. He even goes so far as to declare that the Kutab Minar at Delhi is as beautiful as Giotto's Campanile at Florence. The ill success of missionary effort in the East is illustrated by the fact that after forty years of English government in Hong Kong, there are only 1,200 Christian worshippers out of a population of 160,000 Chinese subjects. This, Mr. Caine argues, is largely the result of the low moral tone of the English governing and mercantile classes. He moreover makes the very serious charge that throughout the East, wherever English influence sways the habits of the natives, intemperance is increasing instead of diminishing.

What strikes him most in India is the disproportionate distribution of wealth—the Rajahs and Princes being enormously rich, and the common people miserably poor, more so even than the inhabitants of southwestern Ireland. The rate of taxation in India is double that existing in England, and the people are constantly on the verge of starvation, owing to the uncertainty of the crops and the extraordinary density of population. Mr. Caine thinks the situation may possibly be improved by the admission of eminent natives to important positions in the Government, and he has hopes that, in view of the growth of manufactures, the time is not far distant when India will produce for herself all that she now buys from Manchester; but many of Mr. Caine's constituents regard India mainly as a dumping-ground for Manchester goods and missionaries, and it is to be feared that his views on these subjects will cause a shudder in Lancashire.

Mr. Firth, we learn from Mr. Froude's preface, is one of the oldest and most distinguished of the New Zealand colonists. He has risen to wealth and influence by steady industry and unblemished integrity. He has never meddled with professional politics, has kept clear of speculation, and attended steadily to his own business. He has been a merchant, has developed mines and railroads, and become a large landowner. In private life he is known as a gentleman and a man of honor. In public he has thrown the weight of his high character always on the side of measures best calculated to further the moral improvement of the population. He earnestly desires to see strengthened the bonds between the mother country and the colonies. Whether the means which he would wish to see adopted are at present available is another question. Mr. Firth has read much, thought and observed more; but he is not a man of letters, and his object is merely to set down in the plainest possible language his own observations and reflections. In the work before us he has described a tour through the United States, and though the subject is not a new one, the treatment of it by a New Zealander is a novelty.

After this flattering introduction by a noted historian, we feel somewhat modest about criticising Mr. Firth's book at all. But candor compels us to state that a large part of Mr. Firth's observations might have been got up with a little research in any good library, and without the expense and trouble of a trip through the United States. In fact, it has become very difficult for anybody not a genius—even a New Zealander—to have new impressions about one of the much-travelled countries of the modern world. With this limitation and restriction, we are quite willing to admit that Mr. Firth's is a readable little book. As to what Mr. Froude

vaguely calls his "economic heresies," they seem to us redeemed by their own vagueness, and his dream of a confederation of the English-speaking race all over the world is perfectly harmless. What we like best in the book is his report about what he actually saw—the behavior of the people in hotels and cars, their manners and traits. Here, as far as he goes, he is on solid ground.

As usual, much of what he says is not particularly flattering to our self-love. One point he notices which we do not remember to have seen treated by any of his predecessors, from Mrs. Trollope to Matthew Arnold—we mean the unwillingness of Americans to say "Thank you" for small services. It certainly is a marked distinction between Americans and English, and it would be interesting to investigate its causes. Is it because most Americans fancy that it puts the thanker in a position of inferiority? Is it owing to a general lack of high civilization and finish of manners? It cannot be for the reason that it is a finer and more democratic thing to be uncivil than to be civil, for what Mr. Firth says on this point is that "Thank you" are words rarely heard in "*this polite and courteous country*, even among equals, for any little service rendered. To inferiors or to servants I do not think I ever heard them applied." Such is one of the traits of the Great West—Mr. Firth does not seem to have travelled in the East—as it strikes a New Zealander.

Stinde's latest work is not a novel or one of the continuations of 'The Buchholz Family,' but merely a narrative of travel in Egypt, Palestine, Greece, and Turkey, ingeniously devised by its thrifty author to derive a little more profit out of the great popularity of his former publications. "Buchholz" has become a valuable trade-mark, to be utilized to its fullest extent. Aside from that, there does not seem any reason why the present volume should have been published. Viewed simply as a book of travels, it is neither better nor worse than the great mass of such writings annually turned out by the mob of tourists who write with ease, and read by nobody knows whom, unless it be the unfortunate critics. It is true, the author occasionally enlivens his narrative with a dash of the peculiar humor to which he owes his fame, and which is for the most part calculated for the latitude of Berlin only. Here and there one even lights on a translatable pleasantry, as when Frau Buchholz, in speaking of the unclouded Egyptian sky, says that it was beautiful clothes-drying weather; but a few such plums are not enough to make the otherwise rather heavy pudding digestible.

Realistic Idealism in Philosophy Itself. By Nathaniel Holmes. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THE best and shortest criticism that can be made upon these volumes is a comparison of the author's own language upon a theory which he rejects and one which he accepts. There are four theories, he says, which come under consideration: "The Biblical-Supernatural Theory," "The Materialistic-Machine Theory," "The Mystical-Idealistic Theory," and "The Realistic-Ideal Theory." The first three he repudiates; the last he adopts. The theory of materialism he defines and outlines thus:

"Matter has in it the potency of all forms of life. Mind has a physical basis and no other. Thinking is a physiological process, and the work done is measured by the consumption of brain-tissue. Feeling is a state of the nerves. Volition is reflex action, the turning of a balance on its hinge, or the motion of the drop in a spirit level. Memory is residual impression on brain structure, as if imprinted on wax, or is a well-hammered habit of the cell tissues. Consciousness is phosphorescent illumination, as when light glows from an electric candle. Judgment is an overweighing of conflicting brain-states, or of 'relational perceptions.' Reason is only the formal outlines of sense-impressions on the brain-tissue. There is no need of Will or Soul, and no proof of the existence of any: neither microscope nor spectroscope has ever discovered any. Art is a play of brain-tissues into imitations of sense-forms. The ideal is a dream of the fancy. Imagination is a vision-making play of neural states. Emotion is an excited state of the nerves. Morality is the utilitarian result of the mechanical working of the brain: vice and crime are the useless result. Religion is mere superstition: death ends all. Money is the *summum bonum*; but pure devotion to science, that leaves all the profits to patentees and speculators, is highly honorable. Physical science is all the knowledge worth knowing, and is the only redemption from Biblical supernaturalism. All beyond is unknowable and incomprehensible. Positive science is philosophy: all else is either theological vision or metaphysical moonshine."

Whether we agree with these statements or not, they are perfectly clear: there is no mistaking what the author intends the conception of materialism to be. Of his own theory, realistic idealism, he says:

"The theory is founded, as the universe itself eternally is, upon absolute and relative necessities. . . . Its summary category is that of Universality, Specialty, Particularity, and Totality or One-Wholeness. . . . The universal and essential Whole, as absolute Content and Form in eternal movement, is eternally and necessarily differenced, distinguished, and distributed into parts, aspects and special relations within the Whole: and the eternally active and absolute Causality therein involved is eternally and necessarily mediated through these special determinations of essence, form, and relation, as media, means, instrumentalities, and further differentiated into other specialties of essence and form, and into the particular substances, shapes, qualities, and properties of things in Nature; returning again through them and out of them into its own ever-continuous identity, whereby they vanish as such in a perpetual round or cycle of creation of new in the destruction of old. . . . Finite souls, in whatever degree, from the lowest self-conscious animal up to the highest human intelligence, are such specialties of essence and form, of soul and body compounded, in the sphere of external Nature; the internal soul being so specially constituted within the external body as to be in itself a special whole by itself considered, and a *quasi*-logical Notion (however incomplete), and, as such, a partial and dependent (not an absolute) unity or syllogism of synthetic Apperception and Judgment in a finite personality, sharing as such in the universal reason and life by a certain limited participation therein," etc.

The sentence is too long to finish. When giving the views of others the author is brief and sententious enough. It is when expounding his own that he falls into this interminable verbosity. He often has sentences twelve, fifteen, eighteen, or twenty lines long. The definition of the idealistic theory of morals is a sentence of thirty lines. All this reminds us of De Quincey's indictment against Kant: "He has sentences which have been measured by a carpenter, and some of them run two feet eight by six inches." But imagine two volumes of 500 pages each, the most of which is no more intelligible than the last passage we have quoted, much of it worse. The author belongs to that class of men who have rejected mythical Christianity, on the one hand, but have carried over against science, on the other, the hostility which they inherited from theology, and hence, in default of ability to reconstruct their philosophy in terms that would be satisfactory to either theology or science, they run off into parroting the phraseology of post-Kantian transcendentalists—terms that can neither be understood nor refuted. Scarcely anything but the introduction is intelligible. This, being largely an historical survey, is clear and interesting, although in some respects very radical; for instance, when the author would have some Caliph Omar destroy the whole literature of India and Greece as worthless to modern science and modern life. The chapters on evolution show no real appreciation of that doctrine. They practically amount to a complaint that Darwin and his coadjutors do not express themselves in the language of "Essence," "Form," "Power," "Necessity," "Actuality," etc. Evolution would have a different color for him if it could appear in scholastic verbiage. The tendency of the author's mind is very well reflected in the frequent use of such terms as "Quadruplicity," "Triplicity," "Essentity," "Isity," "living syllogism," "unical hyparxes," with a perfectly endless permutation of the charmed abstractions in Hegelianism. If philosophy comes to this, its fate will be pitiful, but deserved.

There is considerable learning in the work, but the author seems to have no sense of what is rational in language or thought, and, apart from occasional passages of an historical nature which reflect a sober judgment, and surprise us all the more at its obliquities when analyzing a problem, the largest portion of it can only be regarded as a specimen of philosophical dementia. It will be of no use to any scholar or student. Unless philosophy can perform its task better, we must give our allegiance to the sciences.

Modern Heliographic Processes: A Manual of Instruction in the Art of Reproducing Drawings, Engravings, Manuscripts, etc., by the Action of Light, etc., etc. By Ernst Lietze. D. Van Nostrand.

THE multiplication of books on photography without the excuse of a new discovery or a new application of an old one is carried to the point of becoming a nuisance, and merits only the most rigorous repression. When a compendium of what is known and to be practised is to be made, it should be done by a thoroughly scientific expert and made as concise as possible, for the practical matter to be taught is not voluminous, and the theoretical too well known to justify repetition by the uneducated.

'Modern Heliographic Processes' does not belong to the class of books that are required or to that of books which are amusing. It is an elaborate collection of all the known processes of reproduction by means of light, and its appellation is no bad indication of the scientific knowledge of the author, for it is a purely gratuitous substitution of the word "heliographic" for what time and general recognition have given the better word "photographic" to. It is an impertinence in this case to attempt to change the vocabulary already accepted. The book in question deals simply with light, and, in the case of almost every process described by the author, the light of a gas flame or an electric discharge has the same power of reproduction; while the term "heliographic" is already appropriated by a well-known process of printing.

The book is a swollen rehash of the most commonplace scientific facts, muddled in the most extraordinary manner, with practical explanations which are curiosities of statement. "The comparatively small susceptibility of the photographic plate to feeble light explains the reason why shadows, in photography [why not heliography?], are generally too dark," is a sample of the nonsense the author talks. The reason why "shadows, in photography, are generally too dark" is simply that the exposure is not long enough. The photographic plate is equally susceptible to any given

amount of light, whether concentrated or feeble, and the actinic force is the same in one case as in another. If an object in shadow has one-sixteenth of the light on it that is on another in sunlight, it will require sixteen times as long an exposure; and when a photograph is too black in the shadows, it is so simply because the exposure was insufficient, and the shadows in the work of a competent photographer are not generally too dark. Then, again, the statement that "the fact that colors exist which we cannot see, but which possess actinic power, and that certain colored rays of light, which possess a great illuminating power, produce but little chemical action, is one reason why photography represents many objects with a wrong distribution of light and shade," shows as complete a misapprehension of scientific relations and language as can be found in any of the blundering effusions of the whole tribe of writers on photography. It must be difficult to determine the character of a color that cannot be seen, but the "invisible red" of which the author talks appears to be definable; though it is not so easy to see what is wrong in the "distribution of light and shade" of the photograph which is due to colors that are invisible. What is alluded to is, of course, the unequal rendering of the values of colors in photography. Not one word of all the labored disquisitions of this book is worth the ink it has taken to print it, and the practical directions are worth much less than those of any good book by a practical printer, because in such works it is not the theory that is wanted, but the consummate experience of men who understand all the difficulties of the beginner. The illustrations are repelling, and recommend neither the operator who made them nor the process by which they were produced.

Life of Heinrich Heine. By William Sharp. [Great Writers Series.] London: Walter Scott; New York: Thos. Whittaker. 1888. 12mo, pp. 211, xvii.

THERE is room for a short English biography of Heine, but the present volume, although purporting to be a "life" of the poet, and nothing else, relegates mere biography to a secondary place, and devotes a disproportionate space to a critical description and estimate of Heine's writings. For such a task the author possesses the one great qualification of being an ardent, though not a blind, admirer of the writings which he has chosen for his theme, and which he seems to have diligently studied. Nevertheless, his criticism does not satisfy the reader, in that it fails to strike the right note with the intuitive precision which distinguishes Matthew Arnold's famous essay, and which atones for inaccuracy in minor details. Mr. Sharp would have made his book better if he had given us more about the poet's life. It was not more abundant in incident than poets' lives are wont to be, but there were enough episodes in his career to furnish forth a volume of such modest proportions as this one is with an interesting and attractive narrative. A useful feature of the book is the appendix of seventeen pages, giving a fairly complete bibliography of Heine's writings, including translations, particularly the English ones, as well as of lives and criticism, whether in books or in periodicals, and concluding with a long list of songs set to music, naming the principal composers in each instance.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer, T. A. The Crusade of Richard I, 1189–92. [English History by Contemporary Writers.] London: David Nutt. New York: Putnams.
Binet, A. The Psychic Life of Micro-Organisms. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Blake, W. W. The Cross, Ancient and Modern. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Blavatsky, H. P. The Secret Doctrine: The Synthesis of Science, Religion, and Philosophy. 2 vols. Chas. T. Dillingham. $10.
Böhm-Bawerk, Prof. E. von. Kapital und Kapitalzins. 2e Abtheilung: Positive Theorie des Kapitals. Innsbruck: Wagner.
Buck, Dr. J. D. A Study of Man, and the Way to Health. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.50.
Burgwyn, C. P. E. The Huguenot Lovers; a Tale of the Old Dominion. Richmond, 905½ E. Main St.: The Author.
Callendar, H. L. Manual of Cursive Shorthand—System of Phonetic Spelling. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press. 2s., and 6d.
Hailes, T. C. Manual of Drawing. Chas. E. Merrill & Co.
Hall, Rev. J. A. Glimpses of Great Fields. D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Keener, Prof. W. A. Selection of Cases on the Law of Quasi-Contracts. 2 vols. Cambridge: Chas. W. Sever.
Kent, C. Leigh Hunt as Poet and Essayist. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.50.
Lamartine, A. de. Jeanne d'Arc. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Levermore, Prof. C. H., and Dewey, Prof. D. R. Political History since 1815 (excepting the U. S.). A Syllabus of Lectures. Boston: W. J. Schofield. $1.25.
McGovern, J. Daniel Trentworthy: a Tale of the Great Fire. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Miscellaneous Words, Prefixes and Suffixes, with Latin and Greek Roots, in Common Use. New ed. J. S. Babcock.
Purves, Dr. G. T. The Testimony of Justin Martyr to Early Christianity. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.75.
Rein, Prof. J. J. The Industries of Japan. Together with an Account of its Agriculture, Forestry, Arts, and Commerce. Illustrated. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Ripley, Mary A. Essay on Household Service. Buffalo, N. Y.
Rousseau, J. J. Profession of Faith of a Savoyard Vicar. Peter Eckler.
Schouler, J. History of the United States of America under the Constitution. Vol. IV. 1831—1847. Washington: William H. Morrison.
Shirreff, Emily. The Kinder-Garten. Principles of Froebel's System and their Bearing on the Education of Women. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Shutts, G. C. Teachers' Handbook of Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Simonin, A. H. Solution du Problème de la Suggestion Hypnotique. Paris: E. Dentu.
Sims, G. R. Tales of To-Day. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Stephens, C. A. Living Matter: Its Cycle of Growth and Decline in Animal Organisms. Norway Lake, Me.: The Laboratory Co.
Stopes, C. The Bacon-Shakspere Question Answered. London: Trübner & Co.
Storey, M. Politics as a Duty and as a Career. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Strange Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
The *Critic*: A Weekly Review of Literature and the Arts. 1888. 2 vols. The Critic Co.
The *Daily News* Almanac and Political Register for 1889. Chicago: *Daily News*. 25 cents.
The Desmond Hundred. By the Author of 'A Nameless Nobleman.' Boston: Ticknor & Co.
The Encyclopædic Dictionary: A New and Original Work of Reference to all the Words in the English Language, with a Full Account of their Origin, Meaning, Pronunciation, and Use. With numerous illustrations. 14 vols. Cassell & Co.
The *Forum*. Vol. VI. *Forum* Publishing Co.
The Henry Irving Shakspere. Vol. V. Scribner & Welford. $3.
The History and Teachings of the Early Church as a Basis for the Reunion of Christendom. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
The Life of Blessed Martin de Porres, a Negro Saint. The Catholic Publication Society Co.
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The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following Statement of its affairs on the 31st of December, 1888:

Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....		$3,865,166 38
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888.....		1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,253,404 39
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....		$3,867,269 52
Losses paid during the same period.....	$1,998,897 36	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	687,287 98	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:	
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....	$7,501,315 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..	2,469,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....	569,947 20
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....	1,374,912 12
Cash in Bank.....	252,812 02
Amount.....	$12,167,986 34

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1884 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending December 31, 1888, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the seventh of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 14, 1889.

The Week.

THERE has been nothing revealed since the Republicans "returned to their own" in Washington which has so disgusted them as the discovery that there were, in the departments and elsewhere in the public service, many Republicans who had remained in office throughout the Cleveland Administration. How to get these men out and secure their places for a few thousand of hungry office-seekers, immediately became a pressing question. A solution appears to have been found, and it was very appropriately announced in the *Tribune* of Monday, under the guise of a Washington despatch. It is that the "holdovers" retained their places "usually by playing the rôle of 'informer' against their former official superiors and professing to be ardent Democrats," and consequently they are now to be found "among the men whose anxious faces haunt the hotel corridors." It is intimated that the President will make short work with them. Why make so much of a pretence as this for getting them out? Why not take the bold ground, frequently taken by Republican statesmen, that no Republican of self-respect would ever consent to hold office under a Democratic Administration, and any Republican who did consent is *prima facie* unfit for his place? That is much the easier way out of the difficulty.

The Cleveland *Leader* has an important communication from Washington touching President Harrison's intentions regarding the Civil-Service Law and the rules and regulations now in force. Shortly before the expiration of his term, President Cleveland extended the provisions of the law to the railway postal service. Some doubt as to the validity of this action has been entertained because, at the time the order was made, the Civil-Service Commission was in a disorganized state. An examination of the law will serve to remove this misapprehension. The Civil-Service Commissioners do nothing to give validity to the President's action. What they have to do is to "aid the President as he may request in preparing suitable rules for carrying the act into effect." The President may act without such aid if he chooses to do so. He may ask the assistance of private persons, or he may proceed without assistance from anybody. All that is incumbent upon him in order to give validity to the step is to "promulgate" it. The act of promulgating is simply the filing of the order in the State Department. It then becomes a public document, like a proclamation, or a statute, or a treaty. This mode of procedure was followed by Mr. Cleveland in extending the civil-service rules to the railway postal service, but by a clerical error the time named for the order to take effect was March 15 instead of February 15. The error is not very important, since the President of the United States for the time being is empowered to make modifications of the rules at any time, whether these rules were made by himself or by any of his predecessors in office.

The despatch to the Cleveland *Leader*, which seems to be stamped with authority, says that President Harrison has declared his intention not to revoke the order, but to modify it, so that it shall take effect June 15 instead of March 15, and so that dismissed employees may be reinstated without reference to the time of their dismissal. The order, as it now stands, says that a dismissed employee may be restored within one year. President Harrison intends to strike out the words "within one year." The effect of the two modifications will be to give opportunity until June 15 to restore any employees who were dismissed under the Cleveland Administration, and to fill any or all positions in the service in the old way, instead of by competitive examination. Civil-service reformers would, of course, prefer that the extension of the rules made by President Cleveland should stand. Removals and changes were made in the railway postal service under his Administration that ought not to have been made; but since two wrongs do not make a right, it would be much better that the *status quo* should be respected in so far as the railway postal service is now well conducted, and that when it is not well conducted the places should be filled not by personal favor and political chicane, but by ascertained merit. The Civil-Service Law, it should be observed, does not prevent the President from *removing* any employee. It merely regulates the mode of filling the vacancy caused by the removal. The modifications made or to be made by President Harrison, therefore, simply open the door until June 15 for filling vacancies in the old way. We shall not attempt to criticise the President's action in the premises until we see in what manner he uses the liberty which he gives himself.

The Kansas Legislature adjourned on Monday. At the exact moment of President Harrison's inauguration, the House, after singing "Praise God from whom all blessings flow," adopted a resolution "that we congratulate the nation upon the incoming at this moment of a Republican Administration, and a consequent era of prosperity and good government." On Tuesday occurred the failure of the Reading Iron Works, with liabilities of nearly $2,000,000, throwing 2,000 men out of employment. On Wednesday came the failure of the Excelsior Pottery at Trenton, N. J., employing 300 hands. On Thursday the Keystone Rolling-Mill of Reading, and the rolling-mills at Naomi and Gibraltar, Penn., shut down, throwing altogether over 600 men out of employment. On Friday the Findlay (Ohio) Iron and Steel Company, with the principal rolling-mill in that manufacturing centre, made an assignment, with liabilities of over $100,000. We wonder what the protectionist newspapers and politicians would have said to these happenings if Mr. Cleveland had been re-elected. Would not the air have resounded with cries against tariff reform and all its disciples and advocates? We can scarcely imagine a more favorable basis for denunciation of the Cobden Club, the London *Times* and *Spectator* and *Iron Era*, and all the imaginary and forged extracts from the British press.

These failures are not chargeable to tariff reduction either actual or threatened. The Reading Iron Works were engaged principally in making wrought-iron tubes upon which there is a duty of 2¼ and 3 cents per pound, equal to 71 per cent. ad valorem. That this duty is virtually prohibitory, is manifest from the fact that the total importations for the year 1887 were only $116,000 worth. It is worth remark that this is the second failure of this great tube manufactory, the first having occurred in 1881, when the duty on their product was 3½ cents per pound on all kinds of wrought tubes. On the occasion of the first failure, the creditors were compelled to take preferred stock in the reorganized company for their claims. This is now wiped out, together with the original capital, for, although there is an apparent excess of assets over liabilities, it is not likely that the sale of a plant which showed a deficit of $87,000 in one year's operations would realize anything near the sum at which it stands in the company's balance sheet.

Gov. Hill's share in the abominations of the ceiling job were dimly discerned in Saturday's developments of the Assembly inquiry. Mr. Andrews, the janitor whom the "dealers" put in charge of the work, testified that he made a contribution of $1,000 to the Democratic State Campaign Committee, $500 of which he deducted from the $3,500 of extra compensation which the Ceiling Committee, in violation of the Constitution, awarded him, and the remainder he collected from persons "around the Capitol." Mr. Andrews was a Hill Democrat, and had been put in charge of the ceiling job by Republicans. If Andrews gave this large proportion from his illegal salary, how much did the contractor give of his $100,000 illegal profits on the job? In making this contribution to the campaign fund, and by collecting other moneys to go with it, Andrews violated the Civil-Service Law, and should be removed at once for that offence. It should be borne in mind

that the power to remove him lies in the Trustees of Public Buildings, who are the Governor, the Lieutenant-Governor, and the Speaker of the Assembly. When Mr. Andrews confessed at the first investigation that he was incompetent and had grossly neglected his duties, the Assembly formally demanded his removal. Was the demand granted? Not by any means. The trustees obtained an opinion from the Attorney-General to the effect that they had not the power to suspend him while under fire. Will they remove him now in face of his own confession that he has violated the Civil-Service Law? Let us see. They can possibly obtain from the Attorney-General an "opinion" which will help them to protect him a little longer. Let it be remembered that the Speaker is also the Chairman of the Ceiling Committee, which preferred Andrews to Perry for the work, and that it was the Ceiling Committee, a majority of whom were Republicans, who voted to Andrews the $3,500 of illegal compensation from which he gave $500 to the Hill campaign fund. The truth of Mr. Ainsworth's declaration that the ceiling job elected Hill and Harrison, becomes more and more clear.

The cordial welcome which Mr. Cleveland is meeting from all classes and conditions of people in this city, makes the virulence with which he has been pursued down to this moment by a portion of the Republican press difficult to explain, as it is almost unprecedented to follow a retiring President into private life with vulgar abuse and ridicule. But, when one reflects on it, it is a very natural outcome of the spirit which the high-tariff men carry into all discussions affecting the tariff. An attack on the tariff is to them an attack on their property, and there is nothing which makes men so vindictive as an attempt to take property from them. In their eyes Mr. Cleveland, in getting hold of the Presidency and keeping the Republican party out of power for four years, really took money out of their pockets, and by his tariff message he began a movement which they fear will end in taking more. They therefore both hate and fear him, and consider any weapon lawful against him—including blackguard stories about his private life. One other thing in his career is gall and wormwood to them, and that is, that he is the first President since Lincoln who quitted the White House without leaving behind a single scandalous memory. No jobbery or fraud has been traced to the White House, or in its direction, while he occupied it. His friends have never had to apologize for or explain charges of self-seeking at the public expense, or the payment of personal obligations out of the public treasury; therefore, to his enemies he will probably remain a thorn in their side and a possible danger as long as he is alive and well.

The sudden and summary removal of Mr. Perry Belmont, our Minister to Spain, from the position which he has held only three or four months, emphasizes the personal pique of Mr. Blaine towards the member of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs who probed his Chilian-Peruvian diplomacy in the year 1881 to the extent of torture. In point of fact, Mr. Belmont fastened an untruth upon Mr. Blaine in that affair, and this ruthless act led the ex-Secretary to characterize Mr. Belmont as "no gentleman." Of course Mr. Belmont would expect to be recalled by the present Administration, but a mere recall would not serve Mr. Blaine's turn. His recall must needs be the first official act of the new Secretary. Nobody can doubt now, if anybody doubted before, that Mr. Belmont's probe produced a lasting sore.

Indiana has the honor of being the second State in the Union to enact a complete ballot-reform law. The Andrews bill, based upon the Australian method, has passed both houses of the Legislature, and has been signed by the Governor. It is a very voluminous law, containing many features of the Massachusetts law, and is as complete an application of the Australian system to American methods as has been formulated in any part of the country. It provides for the printing and distributing of all ballots by the State, for independent nominations by means of nomination papers, for an absolutely secret ballot, and for the use of no ballots save those supplied by the State. There is no State in the Union more in need of such a law, for there is none in which there has been more corruption at the polls. Under the new provisions, Dudley "floaters in blocks of five" cannot be followed to the polls to see if they vote as they have been bribed—an obstacle to Dudley's usefulness as a power which may drive him out of politics. It should be added, for the edification of New York Democrats, that the Indiana Legislature is strongly Democratic in both branches.

A rude sort of educational test for the suffrage has just been established in North Carolina, by the passage through the Legislature of a bill providing that all ballot-boxes shall be labelled, and that voters shall approach the polls one at a time, and place their several ballots in the proper boxes, none to be counted which get into the wrong boxes. The theory of this law is eminently sound; it is nothing else than the traditional New England idea, that no man should be allowed to vote unless he can read. The North Carolina statute, if adopted in Massachusetts, would not deprive of the suffrage a single man who now enjoys it, because no man can enjoy the suffrage in Massachusetts who cannot read the State Constitution—and so, of course, the labels on ballot-boxes. North Carolina has just as much right to establish an educational test for the suffrage as Massachusetts, and Massachusetts holds it unsafe for herself to allow any man in the State to cast a ballot who cannot pass an educational test. In like manner, Massachusetts men—even so intense a partisan as Mr. George F. Hoar—have always held, even when such a stand seemed against the advantage of their party, as was the case fifteen years ago, that no Territory like New Mexico should be admitted into the Union as a State where the census showed that a majority of the men could not pass an educational test, and consequently were unfitted, according to the traditional New England idea, to govern themselves and share in the government of the nation.

The danger about such a law as the new one in North Carolina is, that it will not be enforced impartially. It is charged that in South Carolina, where a similar system has been in operation for some years, illiterate whites are "steered" by the Democratic managers to the right ballot-boxes, so that their votes do not have to be cast out, while ignorant negroes are afforded no help, and stand six chances to one of making a mistake and thus practically losing the suffrage. In North Carolina, when the last census was taken, 23 out of every 100 white males above the age of twenty-one, and 76 out of every 100 colored males, were returned as unable to write, the percentage who were unable to read being slightly less for each race. A fair enforcement of the box law would thus debar from voting about one-fifth of the whites and more than three-fifths of the blacks, and it would be as greatly to the advantage of all the people in North Carolina if all such illiterates should impartially be denied the suffrage, as it is for the advantage of Massachusetts to deny all such illiterates a share in its government. The danger is that, where the whites control the election machinery, they will discriminate against the blacks. This danger always applies to any test for the suffrage. Apparently well authenticated complaints were made to us last fall that a judge of the United States District Court in New England, who is a strong Republican, discriminated against the Democratic party in the naturalization of foreigners, allowing anybody who was vouched for by a good Republican to slip through, while "holding up" a good many protégés of Democratic managers, who were equally deserving. The public opinion of the community is the only safe reliance for the overcoming of difficulties of this sort. A breaking down of old party lines on the race issue is impending throughout the South, and if the white Democrats in any county fail to enforce the new law impartially, an opposition party, led by whites, who can command a hearing, will be developed, which will secure fair play. Fortunately, with the steady extension of the school system, the number of voters of each race who cannot read the labels on the ballot-boxes will diminish steadily year by year.

The lower house of the Rhode Island Legislature has passed, by a vote of 41 to 25, a resolution to submit the question of repealing the present Prohibitory Liquor Law to a vote of the people. This large majority in favor of resubmission is strong evidence of the con-

dition of public opinion in the State concerning the law. There is no doubt that in the cities of the State the law is so complete a failure that a very large majority of the electors will favor its repeal, and it is believed that, if the Senate concurs with the House, as is probable, there will be a popular majority in the State against the law.

An interesting symposium upon the question of constitutional prohibition for Massachusetts has been published by the Cambridge *Tribune*, in which such high authorities as Prof. James B. Thayer, Col. T. W. Higginson, R. H. Dana, and William E. Russell take part. These gentlemen, who easily carry off the honors in the discussion, all unite in opposing the proposition for a prohibitory amendment. Their views are especially noteworthy, as nearly or quite all of them are supporters of the prohibitory law, which, our readers are aware, is being enforced with such signal success in Cambridge. Prof. Thayer is, in fact, the President of the Cambridge Association for the enforcement of the law, and has, he says, voted three times for prohibition in local elections. He says he is opposed to constitutional prohibition for three reasons, first, because it is a misuse of the Constitution; second, because "it is not the time to do the thing even if it should ever be done"; and third, because "prohibition in any form, except as a local and temporary policy, as a feeling of the way to something better, is but a poor mode of dealing with the liquor question." Col. Higginson says he shall vote against the amendment, although rather unwillingly, because it does not seem to him the best way of reaching the evil, adding: "Our present Local-Option Law appears to me far better, because, by the local agitation it affords, it educates the particular community which has got to enforce the law—that is, the town or city, as the case may be." Similar reasons are given by Messrs. Dana and Russell.

The Weldon Canadian Extradition Bill, which authorizes Canada to surrender to us fugitives from justice with or without an extradition treaty, is a new departure in modern international conduct. Treaties of extradition, as we now know them, with all their elaborate machinery, judicial and executive, are comparatively new contrivances. So late as 1827 the Provincial Court of Appeals for Lower Canada held that a fugitive accused of larceny in Vermont, and escaping across the border, could be surrendered without regard to the absence of a treaty covering the offence. But thirty-five years afterwards Lord Denman said in the British House of Lords that all Westminster Hall and the judicial bench agreed that, in England, there was no right of arrest or surrender of a fugitive from the justice of a foreign State, unless a treaty required it. Such limitations on the judicial power have not always been recognized in England. There are cases in the reports of Vesey and Taunton in which the judges said the Government might send a prisoner to answer for a crime wherever committed. The power was recognized under the common law and under international law. But while, in modern times, England has said she would not surrender fugitives unless there be a treaty and a law authorizing and requiring, she asked Spain, in 1874, to surrender to her Bidwell, the bank forger, and Spain made the surrender, even although no treaty required it, just as she arrested and surrendered Tweed to us when no extradition treaty existed. And so, the other day, Spain arrested Pigott on a telegraphic message, and before formal papers had been received at Madrid. Spain proceeds on the rules of courtesy and comity which prevailed in the olden times in Europe, when sovereigns deemed themselves, in such matters, members of one family, and a request of that character was promptly complied with without a treaty and without judicial intervention. The surrender of Arguelles to Spain in 1864 by order of Seward is the only exception to the American rule prevailing from the foundation of our Government, that the President cannot arrest and surrender, in the absence of a treaty, or a law authorizing and requiring. Seward justified the arrest and surrender of Arguelles on the plea that they were in pursuance of the law of nations, which is by our Constitution made a part of our Federal law, which international law the President is bound to execute as a part of the Constitution.

The Copper Syndicate, notwithstanding the alleged contract made with the large American mining companies to restrict production, appears to be still "in the trough of the sea," now up and now down, one day sailing fairly well and the next day on beam-ends. A telegram from Paris says that the Syndicate received from the mines in the month of February 10,000 tons, and sold only 1,397 tons. At this rate even the Bank of France would be ruined in the end. Such an output of metal calls for more than $2,000,000 per month to be absolutely locked up, and the interest on it lost, unless it can be recovered at the end of a doubtful speculation. No wonder that the depositors in the Comptoir d'Escompte made a rush for their money when the fact became known that M. Roschereau had lent $6,000,000 of its funds to the Syndicate, and then shot himself through the head. Probably this institution will be helped through the crisis by the other banks, which have had no share in the copper speculation, but probably the credit of the Syndicate will be so tremendously shaken that it can get no more advances on its growing load of copper. It is for the public interest that the Société des Métaux should go under at an early date. If it should succeed in permanently cornering the world's supply of copper, there would be monopolies, or attempted monopolies, in lead, tin, zinc, sugar, tea, coffee, wheat, cotton, and every staple article, on a world-wide scale, and human society would be divided into two classes, cornerers and cornered.

France has now got back the "scrutin d'arrondissement," or district-ticket system, which is relied on by the Republicans to save the Government from the Boulangists. The law was passed by both Chamber and Senate on the 13th ultimo, and the next elections will be held under it. Every district is to elect at least one deputy; and any district having more than 100,000 of population, one deputy in addition for any fraction of 100,000 over the first. The only effect of this will be to prevent Boulangists from getting majorities in whole departments at elections held to fill one vacancy. It will not change in any marked degree the character of the Deputies, which is the source of all the trouble. It has been ascertained by actual experiment that the two kinds of tickets send up exactly the same kind of representative. The Republic is now seeking refuge in the *scrutin d'arrondissement* from exactly the same evils from which it sought refuge under Gambetta in the *scrutin de liste*, or general ticket. The only remedy which has not been tried is a recast of the national character. The Republicans in the Chamber, who overturn ministries once a month to gratify individual spites or disappointments, are bad enough; but are they as bad as the Royalists, who pretend to greater enlightenment, but do not hesitate, whenever the opportunity offers, to vote in any way that will ruin the only government France has, damage the national credit, and precipitate a revolution of which nobody pretends to foresee the outcome?

The abdication of King Milan of Servia, if it has any political importance at all, will simply result in throwing the kingdom more completely than ever under Austrian domination—an almost necessary consequence of a regency which must last eight years, if the heir to the throne lives so long. Party spirit in Servia runs very high, and politics are still in the primitive stage in which statesmen are accused of plotting the assassination of their rivals. This state of things was of course aggravated by the King's mental condition, which for a good while has bordered on lunacy. During the past year he has been kept in continual excitement by his desire to get rid of his wife, by his fear of the Radicals, and by the manufacture, under his personal supervision, of a new Constitution. The Constitution had just been drafted by the Commission of Revision when he made up his mind, or what passed for his mind, to abandon the throne. The Constitution is to be laid before an extraordinary meeting of the Skupshtina to be elected in September next, and to sit in October. Our readers have already been acquainted with its general character. What will become of it now it would be hard to say. That will probably depend on the view taken of it in Vienna.

THE PARTY THINKERS.

All accounts from Washington agree that the pressure for offices was never so great as now. The *Tribune* calls it "tremendous." All the great improvements in communication, by land and sea, including the lowering of railroad and steamboat fares, and the extension of the telegraphic system, and the reduction in letter postage, and the rapid growth in population, combine to make the crowd of office-seekers in Washington greater than it ever was before. Senator Manderson of Nebraska says the list of applicants from that State would be "a directory of the State." Senator Ingalls says that all the offices in the gift of the Administration would be insufficient to satisfy the demands of the candidates from Kansas. There is probably hardly a Republican State west of the Alleghanies of which the same story might not be told. The rush of the "place-hunters," which is the very appropriate old English name for them, is almost like the march of the Barbarians on Rome.

How President Harrison will stand it, remains to be seen, particularly as the office-seeking pressure is accompanied with endless handshaking with men who come "to pay their respects." Should the infliction grow with the population, the time cannot be far distant when the physical powers of the President will be the chief consideration in making the nomination, and when the successful candidate will have to go into training, as for a prize-fight or boat-race, between the first Tuesday in November and the 4th of March.

The President has thus far only made his peace with a few of the men of action of the party—that is, the men who raised money for the canvass, or took charge of its distribution, or constructed and carried through the various "deals" to which the success of the Republican ticket was due in some places. He has still to enter on the far more difficult task of rewarding the thinkers of the party—that is, the men who explained its policy and aims to the ministers, and the deacons, and the Sunday-school teachers, and the editors of the religious newspapers. This is a large and not easily satisfied body. It includes such men as Col. Elliott F. Shepard, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, the Hon. Murat Halstead of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, the Hon. Charles Emory Smith of the Philadelphia *Press*, Prof. Charles E. Fitch, Professor of Journalism in Cornell University, and the Hon. Thorndike Rice of the *North American Review*. We cannot recall at this moment any party which has commanded the service of so much talent of the intellectual sort as is represented by these few names. What it owes to them cannot be estimated either in money or in honors, but we are glad to hear that they are willing to accept foreign missions in discharge of the party obligations to them, and, in the language of the market, "call it square." Of course to call for testimonials in support of such claims would be rather absurd; but if President Harrison cares for them, we believe he will be more than satisfied by the readiness of all to join in recommending each one. Mr. Reid has already testified in very strong terms to the commanding ability of Col. Shepard, and Col. Shepard has performed a similar office for Mr. Reid, and so have Mr. Smith and Prof. Fitch and Mr. Halstead, and so on. In fact, their endorsement of each other would bear a curious resemblance to the dancing figure known in the French tongue as "chassez-croisez." Mr. Rice has not fared so well as the others at the hands of his brethren, but this is doubtless because, as the editor of a monthly review, he lives in a more serene upper air than the daily journalists. But we question very much whether President Harrison is not really under greater obligations to him than to any of the others; for was he not the author of the article on "Maxims and Markets," in the *Review* of October last, in which he reported that famous conversation of his with an English statesman?

> "Said a great English statesman and political economist to me, at the time of the resumption of specie payments: 'Why, it is contrary to all laws of political economy.'
>
> "'The American people,' I replied, 'do not care much for the laws of political economy; they have been making their laws for some time, and only look to results. The results have spoken for themselves.'"

At any rate, they all want first-class missions, it is said, and Europe is waiting with considerable anxiety for the result of their efforts. The exact effect of the sudden influx of so much American mind into the diplomatic and court circles of that quarter of the globe of course cannot be foreseen, but every one must admit that it will be serious. The precise influence on Western thought of the flight of the Greek philosophers from Constantinople after the capture of that city by the Turks in 1453, has never been exactly defined, but every one acknowledges that it was great and far-reaching. And we may be sure the appearance of these journalists of ours in places like London, Vienna, Paris, Rome, and Berlin will have some profound and decisive influence on the intellectual and social conditions of those capitals.

In the meantime, we confess we consider the recent dead silence of Col. Elliott F. Shepard and of the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, in their respective journals, touching foreign missions, and the best manner of filling them, as an indication of too much delicacy of feeling. Of course no one would expect Col. Shepard to expatiate on his own fitness to represent a great Christian nation at the dissolute courts of London or Paris, but surely the Hon. Whitelaw Reid might do it for him in the columns of the *Tribune*. And, on the other hand, while the reticence of the *Tribune* touching the fitness of various persons, including Mr. Reid himself, to succeed Motley, and Adams, and Lowell, and Phelps in London is quite natural and creditable, why should Col. Shepard keep quiet about it, as far as regards Mr. Reid? If each of these gentlemen would speak his full mind about the other, it would not only be magnanimous and chivalrous, but would help Gen. Harrison greatly in making his choice; and Heaven knows he needs all the help he can get from any quarter.

CONCERNING THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

It is fair to suppose that the New York Custom-house will, according to long-standing usage, be one of the first things to occupy the attention of the new Administration. The Collectorship is one of the most valuable places in the gift of the President. The New York Custom-house is probably the largest and most important office of its kind in the world. "The greatest annual collection of customs duties at all the ports in the United Kingdom," we learn from the Centennial Handbook issued by the Naval Office, "was in 1859, when they aggregated £24,824,578, or $120,810,008. The receipts from the same source at the port of New York alone were, in 1882, $152,110,032." The amount of duties collected in this port in the year 1888 was $140,880,080, or nearly two-thirds of the total revenue of the United States Government.

It will be easily seen from these figures that the management of this great public office must be, if not the chief concern, certainly one of the chief concerns, of the Secretary of the Treasury whoever he may be. We are not going now to discuss the question whether an agency of such importance should or should not be treated as political "spoils" and bestowed as the reward of partisan activity. Our opinions on this point do not need to be restated here. The matter to which we respectfully ask Secretary Windom's attention, is one which it will answer our present purpose to discuss from the point of view of those who think that such places in the Custom-house as are not covered by the Civil-Service Law should be treated as the means of paying for party service. There is no Secretary of the Treasury nowadays, whether he holds the spoils doctrine or not, who will not agree that the officers of such an establishment, no matter for what reason they get their appointments, should be intelligent, honest, and faithful men of good repute in the community, who would dread dismissal for other and better reasons than the mere loss of their salaries. One of the first duties of every Secretary, therefore, should be, as it seems to us, especially if his predecessor has belonged to the opposite party, to satisfy himself that the New York Custom-house is efficiently manned and its business conducted in an orderly and proper manner.

This investigation is the more imperatively called for at Mr. Windom's hands because of the fact—an unprecedented fact, we believe—that Mr. Fairchild, in the last months of his term, made and presented to the Senate a number of reports going to show that the customs service at this port, as well as others of minor importance, was grossly corrupt and inefficient; that many of its leading members had been for some time past concerned in the perpetration of enormous frauds in the revenue in complicity with a number of dishonest importers, and that there existed and exists here a criminal combination, known as "the sugar ring," made up in part of Custom-house officers and brokers and in part of sugar refiners, the object of which is to cheat the Government in

the valuation of imported sugars. These statements have been supported by the dismissal without trial of several officers of long standing in the service and hitherto of good repute. No such account of the condition of the public service has, we believe, ever before been given by any administration on retiring from office. In fact, it involves so much condemnation of the officer making it that we are warranted in describing it as a confession of failure and incompetency such as would almost warrant impeachment, because it has neither been accompanied nor preceded by any such criminal prosecutions as the law commands in all cases of detected frauds in the collection of customs duties.

We would therefore earnestly and respectfully suggest to Secretary Windom that it is his first duty, under these extraordinary circumstances, to institute a searching inquiry into the condition of the Custom-house, as described by his predecessor, for two specific reasons. The first, of course, and most imperative, is, that he may satisfy himself that proper machinery for the collection of the revenue exists in the Appraiser's Department —the most important of all. This has been described by Mr. Fairchild as the chief seat of the alleged frauds, and in the last months of his term he made an attempt to reform it by substituting several new officers for old ones whom he had discharged. But it is obvious that the judgment of an officer who permits fraud to prevail unchecked through his whole term is not to be implicitly relied on with regard to appointments any more than dismissals. It may be, for instance, that Mr. Stearns, who has taken Mr. McMullen's place at the head of the Appraiser's Department, is a more honest and efficient appraiser than Mr. McMullen, but we cannot be satisfied on this point with the testimony of a gentleman who during four years of administration failed, by his own admission, to find McMullen out. We need public investigation at the hands of a competent commission, like Secretary Sherman's, which should contain, we would suggest, one lawyer in good standing, one experienced business man of this city, not engaged in importation, and one business man from the West, without prejudices for or against custom-houses. They should, however, all three be men sufficiently conspicuous to command public confidence.

The second reason for instituting such an investigation is perhaps of not such direct importance to the Government as the first, but its indirect importance is very great. Our Government, like every other civilized government, is interested in attracting to its service, and especially to its fiscal service, capable men of good character. Even the most ardent advocate of the spoils system admits this. What he says when pushed to the wall on this point is, that as good men are obtainable under the spoils system as under any other. Now, one of the greatest defects of the spoils system lies in the arbitrary dismissals which form so prominent a feature in its working. It gets rid of public servants in much the same way—barring the strangulation—in which they used to be got rid of in old Turkey, and in which they are still got rid of in modern Turkey, Spain, and Greece, and some other semi-barbarous countries. It kicks men out of office, no matter what their official value may be, if it finds it can turn the office to better account for party purposes. But one of the good features of the spoils system has been that peremptory dismissal, without cause assigned, does not convey an imputation on a man's character. To lose one's place in the Custom-house or Post-office has not hitherto meant that one was suspected of lying or stealing. It has been the custom, as well as the law of the service, whenever a man was accused of worse offences than drunkenness, or insubordination, or laziness, or absence without leave, or incompetency, to have him arrested, indicted, and prosecuted, or, in other words, to submit to a competent tribunal all charges reflecting on his integrity.

Now, we earnestly call Secretary Windom's attention to the fact that Mr. Fairchild has introduced into the service the practice of dismissing officers on charges of fraud without trial, and without giving them any opportunity to defend themselves. He has accused them of indictable offences in official reports which, as privileged communications, they could not attack in a court of law, thus sending them out into the world with a cloud resting on their reputation which must, in a large number of cases, seriously interfere with their obtaining other employment for the support of themselves or their families. It is hardly necessary to point out or expatiate on the effect this practice must, if not promptly extirpated, have in preventing respectable men, whose character is their chief capital, from entering the public service, especially in places in which character is so important as in the Appraiser's Department. A man possessing the qualifications, both moral and professional, needed for that department would be considered in the highest degree imprudent if he took a place in which, for instance, he would be exposed to the treatment Mr. Fairchild has dealt out to Mr. McMullen. If such treatment were to become part of the permanent official practice, the Custom-house would soon be manned in all its departments by the black sheep of the business world—men who had nothing to lose by slander, and to whom even a month's salary was of the last importance.

PHILADELPHIAN REFLECTIONS ON WANAMAKER.

Mr. Wharton Barker, who is a good old-fashioned Pennsylvania protectionist, takes, in the last number of his *American*, much the same view of the Cabinet in general as most intelligent and self-respecting Republicans do. We cite him, however, not as an authority on the Cabinet in general, but on Mr. Wanamaker, the Postmaster-General. We believe that what he says touching this particular selection expresses the sentiments of 90 per cent. of the respectable men of Philadelphia, the scene of Wanamaker's activities, both religious and secular. They believe, with Mr. Barker, that Wanamaker comes into office—"not upon his own merits, not as one equipped at all points for the direction of the vast appointment system of the postal service, but as the agent of Mr. Quay and the representative of Mr. Quay's purposes."

And this Mr. Quay is the man of whom the Philadelphia *Press* said in 1885, when he was talked of for the State Treasurership, that his nomination "would take the lid from off the Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb."

The "secrets" about Quay, before which Republicans would "stand dumb," are, we repeat, well known to scores of business men in Philadelphia. If they were not known to Wanamaker when he paid his campaign funds over to Quay, it would show that he was far too simple-minded and too remote from the currents of financial and political gossip to be fit to conduct his own great store, not to speak of the Post-office Department. The Philadelphia *Ledger*, which came to his defence against the *Evening Post* two months ago, was asked to say whether it thought Mr. Wanamaker was ignorant of Mr. Quay's character when he paid him the money; but that journal, which is much too respectable either to quibble or evade for anybody, has ever since kept dead silence about the matter—and in this case, as in many others, silence is confession.

The truth is, that Mr. Barker speaks the sober second thought of all that is best in the Republican party on this great scandal. General Harrison has committed the irretrievable fault of giving a Cabinet office to a man in return for money raised for campaign purposes, and not only this, but for money paid over to a politician whose dishonesty and corruption had already made him a byword in his own party. This is the first time such a thing has ever been done in American politics even by the worst men in our worst days. President Hayes incurred odium, of which he will never get rid as long as he lives, by rewarding with office the paltry scamps who were suspected of having dishonestly turned over to him the vote of the State of Louisiana, but the places he gave them were suited to their base obscurity. The elevation of Wanamaker is the first case on record in which a man has been invited to take a seat at the President's council board as his adviser on all the great national questions of war and peace, at the demand of a corruptionist, in return for money paid to a corruptionist. If we are not greatly mistaken, the case is aggravated by the knowledge which President Harrison now possesses of the circumstances under which Wanamaker tried unsuccessfully to raise $400,000 in the last week of the canvass in this city—circumstances which throw a flood of light on the man's real character. The mistake of giving him a great office is, we repeat, radical and irretrievable. It is one of those which cannot be corrected or wiped out. It has stamped the Administration with an opprobrium which will grow worse as the years go by, and will cling to President Harrison after he leaves office.

We say all this with sincere regret, because in every attempt President Harrison makes to purify the civil service of the

Government, and abolish its corrupt connection with party politics, he has, and will have, our heartiest sympathy and support. But the Wanamaker incident must inevitably weaken the moral effect, as an example and precedent, of everything he does to improve our Governmental machinery. The worst men will rejoice in it most as showing that even in his most solemn moments he was not superior to the motives which govern their own conduct.

There is another aspect of the case which, delicate as it is, must be touched on. Gen. Harrison, who has done this thing, is a very religious man. Wanamaker, whom Quay has forced upon him, is another very religious man. Almost all the outspoken and hearty defence of the selection of Wanamaker has come from clergymen and religious newspapers. Almost all the foul abuse which has been heaped on the *Evening Post* for being the first and loudest to protest against it, has come from lips trained to prayer and praise. The worldlings explain this to us with a smile by telling us that Wanamaker and his kind, "the Pharisees," as Judge Gresham calls them, debauch the clergy by their contributions to churches and Sunday-schools, and debauch the religious newspapers by their "ads." If this be not true, it looks so like the truth, there are so many facts which give color and plausibility to it, that it has obtained a lodgment in the popular mind which cannot be shaken. And we should like to ask those religious men, both clergy and laity, who are troubled by the decline of church influence in this city and elsewhere, and by the growth of agnosticism and indifference, and who meet every now and then to debate its causes, whether they have ever seriously considered the effect on doubters, unbelievers, and scoffers, of the spectacle, so frequent in our days, of corruptionists of every description using the church and the Sunday-school and the religious press as a sort of fortified camps from which to make raids on the things which all civilized societies hold dearest? If they have not, they cannot begin to ponder it too soon. It is to-day by far the greatest enemy with which the Church has to contend in this country. Nothing is easier for a large class among us than to give lavishly in checks to religious objects, and nothing more disheartening for those who are trying to raise the standard of political morality than to find these checks flourished in their faces as answers to charges of the most barefaced corruption.

A PRACTICAL COMMENTARY ON HENRY GEORGE'S LAND THEORIES.

In the latter part of 'Progress and Poverty,' the author urges that private property in land is unnecessary because there have been so many cases where a different system has been in operation. His argument is that public ownership is perfectly practicable, because nearly every country has tried it and given it up. He does not inquire why people gave it up, nor does he seem to think that this point has any material bearing on the argument.

It so happens that we have in the United States to-day one case, of considerable importance, where people are trying to manage real estate on mediæval methods. This is seen in the oyster beds of Chesapeake Bay, as regulated by the laws of Maryland. In a recent number of the Baltimore *Sun*, Mr. John K. Cowen describes the methods in force and their industrial effects. The existing condition he describes as follows:

"Certain ill-defined and ill-bounded parts of the Chesapeake and its tributaries and of other oyster grounds are set apart for dredging. Certain other portions are set apart for 'tonging,' and dredging therein is prohibited. There is also a right given to individuals to take up five acres of land under water forming no part of a natural bed of oysters; but the title to the five acres seems to be a license only, revocable at the pleasure of the State, and the licensee has no assurance of a permanent holding to warrant his going to expense and trouble. For any large purpose the '5-acre' legislation is practically worthless."

It will be seen that this is almost exactly the system of the mediæval village, with its ill-defined common, its ill-defined forest-land, and its extremely precarious rights of use of individual strips of the soil. We know from history what was the result to the mediæval village. The system prevented the population from getting a large and comfortable living from the land. Agriculture remained in the rudest condition. The soil was not improved, because nobody could afford to spend his energies in a way for which he himself personally could obtain no return. The only way to have the land properly and intelligently tilled, with a view to the future as well as to the present, was by private ownership. The communities which introduced this system prospered; those which refused to see its advantages fell behind. It was by a process of natural selection that private ownership of agricultural land was thus introduced. Without it, investment of capital was impossible. By the aid of such investment a larger population could be supported in better comfort.

It is striking how this history is repeating itself in the case of the oyster-beds of the Chesapeake. Prof. Brooks's report on the subject in 1884, supplemented by Mr. Cowen's observation, reveals the following facts:

(1.) That the oyster-beds of the State are being exhausted so rapidly that in a few years more this industry, in spite of natural advantages, will practically cease to exist.

(2.) That the system not merely is destructive in itself, but stands in the way of enormous possible development. The oyster fishermen have never earned much more than $2,000,000 a year, but it is no exaggeration to say that the Maryland grounds, under proper legislation, are capable of yielding tens of millions of dollars annually. New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut have laws which make intelligent and far-sighted oyster farming a possibility. Fifty thousand acres of barren ground in Long Island Sound have been made into productive oyster beds. Even when the administration of these laws has been intrusted to unwise authorities, it has not prevented the public as a whole from reaping the benefits of the system of private ownership. The production of the oyster has been multiplied a hundred fold. Meantime, the Maryland oyster men have been engaged in petty squabbles among themselves, and the whole industry has been falling behind. Prof. Brooks says that the departure of the oyster industry from Maryland to Connecticut in the near future is a certainty, unless Maryland adopts measures similar or equivalent to those which have in a few years raised the oyster grounds of that State from a position of insignificance to the front rank. Chief among these measures have been laws defining and protecting rights of private property.

(3.) While the attempt to keep these grounds as public property has prevented the proper development of the industry, it has also had an unfavorable effect on Maryland's State finances. Six hundred thousand acres of oyster ground in 1883 were paying only $70,000 a year in taxes, while the Governor of Rhode Island about the same time reported a return to his State of over $11,000 from 1,100 acres of oyster ground, none of which was naturally so valuable as that of Maryland. On this basis, the revenue of Maryland should have been $6,000,000 a year from this source instead of $70,000.

It is of course conceivable that new methods might be adopted and the industry developed by direct and positive State action, instead of through the aid of private capitalists, but the chance of success in this direction is small. "France," says Mr. Cowen, "tried this Government cultivation of oysters under the most favorable circumstances, the best scientific talent, a better organized civil service than ours, and with a popular opinion supporting State interference in industrial pursuits to an extent unknown among us; but the experiment failed, and failed for the reason that it must always fail, because, as pithily stated in one of the reports of the French Commission, the State is the poorest merchant in France."

We commend the study of this case to the land reformers. It is not an unfair instance. It does not stand alone. It represents a natural tendency in civilized society. With rude agriculture, rude mining, or rude oyster-farming, common ownership of land has been possible and has prevailed. But the moment the progress of invention made it profitable to apply capital to land, the legal system had to adapt itself to the new conditions. When permanent buildings were developed, permanent tenure of home lots became a legal necessity. When manure was invented, the same process was applied to agriculture. When mining machinery superseded primitive washing or digging, the same reform took place in the mining laws. The case of the oyster farms of Maryland is simply another instance of the universal law.

THE CHURCH AND THE THEATRE.

It looks as if Macaulay's Puritan were fumbling at the doors of the theatre which he so incontinently locked at the time of the Commonwealth, when we find a prominent divine publicly praising a certain play, and advising

people to go to see it—especially when, as is the case, it is a member of that denomination the Presbyterian, which stands most distinctly to-day for the Puritan tradition. It would be hasty to infer from this a recognition on the part of the lineal descendants of the Puritans that they have really been in the prison-house of the spirit, where Matthew Arnold located them, and that their ideal of life has been found out to be one of hideousness and immense ennui, as the same writer declared it to be. The Puritan never felt that to be true, or he would have ceased to be a Puritan, and the fact we cite is only another instance of the tardy acquiescence of the clergy in a practice which the laity have established in the face of constant clerical protests; for, just as there is no doubt that the churches represent the best elements of society, so there is no doubt that Mr. Daly is right in his frequent assertion that the best elements of society now patronize the theatre. The old ecclesiastical statutes against theatre-going remain unrepealed, though the younger generation of church-members have so little reason to know of their existence that they may be almost acquitted of violating them; and the attitude of the clergy is getting to be the one made familiar in the cases of other amusements—after protests unavailing, then winking at the evil, and, finally, a qualified permission of what they long ago ceased to be able to prevent.

This has a certain social interest, though it is an old story now; but much more interesting is the growing tendency to claim for the Church a large part of the credit for the admitted elevation of the stage in the last thirty years. That is to say, it is maintained that the resolute hostility of the Church to the theatre of a generation ago helped the public to discriminate between good and bad drama, forced managers to cater to a taste which was higher than prevailing standards, and so brought about the immense change to be noted in the English stage since, for example, the first edition of Lewes's 'Actors and Acting.' Look at the theatre of forty years ago, say the apologists, when church-people were standing aloof, and then see how things are changed to-day, when unobjectionable plays are witnessed by so many church-people. Indeed, it does not require a great stretch of the imagination to see a grand apologetic argument made out, fifty years from now, along the lines of those which are already familiar, setting forth the purifying and elevating power of the Church over a social institution, originally its own, but fallen into debasement, brought back again at last to harmlessness and even to its own service. The fact that such an argument is only beginning to be written, enables us to see the measure of truth and force in it better than would be possible after it had passed into the treatises on the "evidences."

That it would have an element of truth must be conceded. Hostility to that which is low in taste and bad in morals cannot but do good, and the more organized and powerful the hostility, the better the effect. But the hostility of the Church to a debased theatre is not the only hostility that institution has had to encounter, nor the most effective. It would be hard to name a distinctly ecclesiastical writer who ever whipped the theatre of the Restoration with such vigorous strokes as Macaulay's, or pricked it with such keen satire as Thackeray's; or one who had harder things to say of the degenerate stage of the middle of this century than Lewes—and none of these critics could be called exactly evangelical in belief. And the weakness of the denunciations directed against the theatre by the Church is, that they have been almost always sweeping and wholesale; that they have professed to see no possibility of improvement, and have gone in for root-and-branch methods. Now that attitude never can provoke amendment. The censor who points out a better way at the same time that he denounces the bad way, is the only one who will be listened to while he smites; others will be set down as mere scolds. And it is clearly to the faithful wounds of such friends, and to the general amelioration of manners and taste, that improved theatrical standards are due, rather than to the steady opposition and aloofness of the Church as such. That the Church has had a large part in bringing in the day of bettered manners and higher taste is, of course, true, and in this way it has indirectly done much to benefit the theatre; yet, even so, only as one of many conspiring influences.

There may be a hint in this line of remark at the processes which have been at work in building up the famous apologetical arguments for Christianity long since made up and in the books. They have been stated as fairly and intelligently by Lecky and Ulhorn and Brace as by any one, to the general effect, as is well known, that the great enlargement of the spirit of humanity which is admitted on all hands to have taken place is the direct and exclusive effect of the Christian religion. It was a favorite thesis of Heine that this conclusion was radically wrong, and Frederic Harrison takes up a frequent parable against it in our own days. We are probably too far removed from the facts ever to be certain of their exact causes and effects; but, if we may judge the past by the present, it may well be believed that the apologists have been too confident and exclusive. They have forgotten that the Church, wide and deep as has been its influence, does not, after all, embrace the whole of the activity of man and the development of society. At any rate we can see, in the case in hand, that they will be greatly overdoing their part if they assert for the Church more than a partial effect among the influences that have brought about the better days of the stage.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL MANUSCRIPTS IN FOREIGN ARCHIVES.

ALASSIO, February 14, 1889.

THE mention in a recent number of the *Nation* (No. 1226) of the project of Mr. B. F. Stevens for publishing photographic facsimiles of various historical and diplomatic documents relating to the United States in the English and other foreign archives, and especially the lack of attention bestowed by Congress upon his previous plans for printing and indexing, lead me to believe that the importance of this subject has not been sufficiently understood by cultivated Americans who are not active members of historical societies or habitual readers of historical magazines.

But before speaking of the wealth of documents relating to our historical period now existing in foreign archives, and unknown to Americans, or to all save a very few students who have had the money and the leisure to pursue their investigations in Europe, it may be worth while to say a few words about the present condition of archive study in general, and of what foreign governments have done in this respect.

The study of history, as well as the manner of writing it, has entirely changed during the present century. Up to a certain time historians felt it their duty laboriously to consult all the works of their predecessors in the same line, and to treat their statements and arguments as though they were so many original authorities. There was little study of the original sources except so far as concerned ancient history, and even there such study was confined to the classical historians, with little reference to coins, inscriptions, and other sidelights; every writer was considered in one way equal. In other words, criticism of authorities had scarcely been introduced. During this century—we might almost say during the last fifty years—all this has been changed. A school of historians arose, which speedily found support in all countries, showing that the only real way of studying history of any kind, whether ancient or modern, was in going as close to the original sources as possible. For modern history this has meant very much the study of archives, and most governments have responded to the call of inquirers and historical students in throwing open the collections of public documents intrusted to their care. These are no longer considered as secrets which are only to be communicated to men who happen to be in office at the time, unless they refer to matters of very late date; and, under certain restrictions, they have gradually been opened to the general public. They are not open in the same sense that a public library is open. It is necessary to obtain permission, for which it is requisite to present some guarantee of the serious purpose with which the studies are undertaken, and some surveillance is usually exercised to see that manuscripts are not carried off. But in most countries these restrictions are only such as are applied to the study of old manuscripts in any great library. It may be said here that most European countries are in this respect more liberal than the United States, where the documents in the possession of the State Department are guarded most jealously, and it is very difficult to obtain permission to see them. Some amusing examples of these difficulties were given by the late Frederick Kapp, who, when writing his life of Baron Steuben, was refused permission to consult the papers about him in our national archives.

Most European archives have been carefully arranged of late years in rooms which permit of easy access to them, with additional rooms for the purposes of historical study; and nearly all of them have also been well indexed, so that it is possible for the archivist to place at once his hands on any document. I can speak with regard to this positively, because I have studied in the archives of Paris, the Hague, Vienna, Moscow, Venice, and various former Italian capitals. At the Hague perhaps the authorities were too lax, for I was left alone for hours in a room filled with documents, with no one to supervise me. The most comfortable place

was Moscow, where all the documents relating to foreign affairs are preserved down to the beginning of the present century (the later ones being in St. Petersburg) in a building recently erected for that purpose. More than this, European governments have begun a system of publishing portions of their archives, in some cases the older ones, which are more difficult to decipher and ought not to be too much handled, and in others those pertaining to historical periods of very general interest; and they are trying to complete the public documents in their own possession by others relating to them in foreign archives.

Taking things at haphazard, when the French began to consider that Russian affairs were worth investigating, they found that the Imperial Public Library at St. Petersburg possessed a large number of French archives, which, when they were pillaged during the Revolution, had been bought up by the Russian Ambassador, Prince Vorontsóf; and during the time that I was living at St. Petersburg a number of persons were kept copying these documents for the purpose of restoring the series of French archives. Even before that, owing to M. Guizot, there had begun the publication of a "Collection de Documents inédits sur l'histoire de France," of which a thousand copies were printed at Government expense, but of which only two hundred were offered for sale. This publication began in 1836, and down to 1875 175 quarto and folio volumes had been published. Then there were the series of Petitot and other memoirs, partly supported by Government. Armand Baschet, Frédéric Masson, and Albert Sorel have published much about the archives of foreign affairs; and in the last few years there has been begun, under Government supervision, the publication of the instructions to ambassadors in various countries, of which five volumes have been published with regard to Austria, Sweden, Portugal, and Poland. Besides this the École des Chartes, from which most French archivists are now drawn, has printed many documents relating to purely French historical manuscripts.

In Belgium the Royal Commission for the publication of the ancient Laws and Ordonnances has published, down to 1879, about fifty-six volumes. In Italy, apart from the work of the various private historical societies and those partly belonging to the Government and the Historical Institute, the reports of Venetian ambassadors to various States in Italy and abroad have been published; which from 1839 to 1863 amounted to fifteen large volumes. In Spain forty-two octavo volumes were published between 1866 and 1884, under the head of "Collection of unpublished Documents relative to the Discovery, Conquest, and Organization of the former Spanish Possessions of America and Oceana, drawn from the Archives of the Kingdom, and more especially the Indies." In addition to this series, seventy-seven octavo volumes were published between 1842 and 1881, called "Unpublished Documents of the History of Spain." Even Rumania, on becoming independent, immediately set about learning its past history. Baron Hormuzáki, who had been employed in the Austrian Foreign Office, had taken advantage of his position to copy out from the archives all of the documents which he found there relating to Rumanian affairs. These, on his death, were bequeathed to the Rumanian Government, and have been published, and include important information relative to Turkey and Russia, containing among other things detailed reports of the defeat of Peter the Great on the Pruth. In addition to this, the agents of the Rumanian Government have copied out in the archives of Venice and Rome, and are doing it now in other countries, all that relates to Rumania, several volumes of which have been already printed.

In Russia, since the archives have been opened, the study of history, and especially of historical documents, has obtained a great development. The Archæographical Commission, a Government body, has printed a large number of volumes, chiefly of early historical documents. The Imperial Historical Society, of which the present Emperor was President until his accession, now succeeded by the Grand Duke Vladimir, has published already sixty-three volumes since the year 1867, nearly all of which are drawn from Russian and foreign archives, including the despatches of the English, French, Dutch, Saxon, Prussian, and Austrian Ministers to their own governments from the earliest times. These are given in the original with a Russian translation. Private individuals, like Turgeneff and like Theiner, partly with the help of the Government, have published documents relating to Russia found in the library of the Vatican; and now Father Pierling, a Russian Jesuit, is following in the same track, after ransacking not only all the public archives, but all the private and family archives in Italy accessible to him. There are, besides, at least three historical journals entirely devoted to historical material—sometimes merely diaries and journals, and at others articles made up from recollections and reminiscences: the *Rúskii Archív*, the *Rúskaya Starinà*, and the *Istoritcheskii Viestnik*.

In England, where the prejudices in favor of the secrecy of historical documents remained longer than in most countries, the Government has now set to work with good will. One hundred and twenty-seven volumes have been published of "Calendars of State Papers," which are so full as almost to supply the place of complete documents. They were begun in 1856. Of these there is a domestic series—one relating to Scotland, one relating to Ireland; a colonial series, which extends to 1668 only; a foreign series, which goes to 1577; Treasury papers and Home Office papers. Then there are the "Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages," of which there are seventy-four distinct works, many of them in several volumes. Besides this must be mentioned the publications of the Record Commissioners, the Scotch and the Irish record publications; and we should not forget the various reports of the Royal Historical Manuscripts Commission, the object of which is to catalogue and summarize all the important documents relating to English history in the archives of private families.

In our country the colonial and regional history naturally fell to the lot of the States, and both legislatures and historical societies have done all that was incumbent upon them. In New York, for instance, the State sent Mr. Romeyn Brodhead to collect documents in Holland, France, and England, and printed ten volumes and an index of these documents, under the title of "Colonial History," for which, altogether, over $160,000 was expended. Of the first seven volumes five thousand copies each were printed. This is exclusive of the expense incurred for publishing four volumes of "Calendars of Historical Manuscripts," four volumes of "Documentary History," and three volumes of "Colonial History," all the materials for which existed already in the State archives.

The Federal Government began also by doing well. It purchased the papers of Washington for $45,000, those of Monroe for $20,000, and those of Hamilton for $26,000, including the expenses of publication, as well as large collections of papers of Jefferson, Madison, and John Adams, the last great acquisition in this line being those papers of Franklin, preserved in England, which have recently been turned to very good use by historical students. Besides this, the Government printed the proceedings of the convention which formed the Constitution, and the secret journals of the old Congress, at an expense of $10,542; the "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution," edited by Jared Sparks, which was originally printed in Boston in 1829 and 1830, in twelve volumes, at a cost of $50,000, and was subsequently reprinted at Washington in 1857 in six volumes; the diplomatic correspondence from 1783 to 1789, printed at Washington in 1833 and 1834, in seven volumes, at a cost of over $16,000, and reprinted in 1837, in three volumes; the diplomatic correspondence from 1789 to 1828, entitled "American State Papers, Class I, Foreign Relations," which was published in six volumes at Washington, from 1832 to 1859; and the collection of "American Archives" edited by the late Peter Force, of which nine volumes were published at Washington between 1837 and 1848, at a cost of over $236,000. The State Department possesses also a large mass of other papers relating to our Revolutionary history which are almost unknown, owing to the want of funds for indexing them, and the restrictions on the study of historical students; and, among a mass of other material, all the journals, law books, etc., of the Russian-American Company, which are very important for the history of the whole Pacific Coast, and ought by all means to be readily accessible.

Most of what has been mentioned the Government was able to do before the war, when its resources were much more limited than at present; and even then it spent by no means as much for illustrating its physical conditions and natural productions, in the shape of travels, surveys, and explorations under the charge of the War, the Navy, and the Interior Departments.

In various European archives there still exists a mass of matter practically, and in many cases wholly, unknown in America, the careful study of which would throw an entirely new light on many events in our early history. Mr. Bancroft, in his preliminary studies for his history, made and had made copious extracts from the papers to which he obtained access; but many have become accessible and even known since that time. Mr. Henry Adams, too, possesses copies of very many foreign state papers relating to American history during the early part of the present century. Even should these collections come into the possession of the State Department or of the National Library, they would be imperfect. Unfortunately, it is not easy for students of American history to visit European capitals with sufficient means and leisure, as well as official introductions, to enable them to study the archives thoroughly. Some of them find it difficult to make a prolonged stay for such a purpose even at Washington, Boston, or Albany; and it is of importance, therefore, not only that our Government should acquire everything which can throw a light on the history of our country, but that all of this should be printed, so as to be widely accessible.

Before, however, speaking in detail of what exists in Europe in manuscript, it should be mentioned that much which has been printed in Europe is practically unknown and can with difficulty be found in America. I refer especially to *blue-books* of various kinds; that is, publications of official papers and reports by foreign governments, either relating to diplo-

matic negotiations, or simply the reports of consuls on trade and finance, which are interesting and even important as the work of independent trained observers. As to the diplomatic papers printed in various forms, the most of them do not appear in any American collection. The only things, for instance, common to the English and our diplomatic correspondence are the treaties, memorandums, and protocols, and the actual despatches exchanged between the officials of the two Governments. The covering despatches and the instructions of an English minister, for example, would not appear in papers sent to Congress by the President and then printed. It would be a useful and profitable exercise on the part of some historical student who could obtain access to a complete collection of English state papers and blue-books, to index and catalogue all those relating to the United States. A complete series of English blue-books may exist in the Library of Congress; but it does not exist in the library of the State Department, or did not at least exist there three years ago, when I last had the opportunity of consulting it.

To proceed to details. The collection of papers relating to our Revolutionary history in the Russian archives at Moscow is probably the least important, although by no means the least interesting. I was myself enabled to consult them, and published a partial account of them in the *Nation* of June 11, 1868. The papers relating directly to the mission of Mr. Dana are few and unimportant; but the despatches of the Russian ambassadors at Paris, London, and the Hague are full of interesting details of the movements and activity of the American agents, and of the relations of England towards her revolted colonies. By order of Catherine II., the Russian Ambassador at Paris employed a special agent at Philadelphia, who transmitted on all possible occasions accounts of what was going on in America, including details and even plans of the various battles.

Similar reports are said to exist in the archives of Berlin, and in those of Hanau, Brunswick, Waldeck, Bayreuth, and other places. There are many documents relating to the employment of German troops during the Revolutionary War, some of which were consulted by Max von Eelking in his book 'Die Deutsche Hilfstruppen im Nord-Americanischen Befreiungs-Kriege.'

In Spain it was not known, until Mr. Stevens's searches, that any papers existed earlier than 1790; but he found in Alcalá, Seville, and Simancas an immense correspondence between Spain, France, Holland, and England, of which some papers are of great value, and throw unexpected light on the action of France and Spain. In Holland there are many original documents which have never been collated, and perhaps have never been seen since their *précis* were made and filed. These *précis* or proceedings of the States-General alone have been copied and used by historians. Of these printed *précis* a good collection exists in our State Department.

The French archives contain the correspondence between the French Government and the French ministers in Philadelphia, as well as with the American commissioners; and the correspondence of the French admirals and generals with their Government and with the American military and civil authorities; together with the journals of the men-of-war, which gave not only the nautical intelligence, but the most minute details of life and society in the colonies. The correspondence of De Grasse, Rochambeau, Barras, Lafayette, John Paul Jones, Franklin, Arnold, Fleury, Greene, Hancock, Laurens, Washington, and others is voluminous. These documents are of very great importance. There is also the correspondence between the French and the Spanish Governments on all the questions relating to the independence of the American colonies; among which are very many letters which were considered so private that Vergennes, Minister of Foreign Affairs, translated them himself.

Naturally, the documents preserved in England are by far the most important to us, as it is necessary for any historian to see both sides of the question. Besides diplomatic correspondence with other governments during the American Revolution preserved at the Foreign Office (and until 1783 this includes correspondence with European governments only), there are the various documents in the Public Record Office, now gathered together from the various offices of the Crown; and those relating to America alone, from the earliest times down to the year 1783, fill seven hundred volumes. They include the military correspondence and reports, and the relations between the colonies and the Board of Trade and the other departments of the Government. In addition to these, there are the papers preserved in the British Museum, in the Royal Institution, in the Lansdowne, Germaine, Dartmouth, Auckland, and Carlisle papers—and those of other private families whose members were more or less concerned with American affairs, not all of which are yet brought to light. For the twelve years from 1772 to 1784 Mr. Stevens, who has for the last twenty-five years been engaged in searching for such documents, has catalogued or triply indexed over one hundred and twenty thousand different papers, few of which have ever been published or consulted, and many of which are entirely unknown. He has enjoyed unusual facilities for his researches; and as a former official of the State Department, who, when in London on an official mission, was deputed by the State Department to investigate what Mr. Stevens had done, says: "Probably no one will ever possess better means than his for getting access to the papers. Perhaps no one hereafter will ever gain these facilities. Indeed, privileges have been granted him in order that the work may be done once for all, and that a period may be put to casual demands"; and he reported substantially as follows:

"First, that the papers and data which Mr. Stevens had gathered are indispensable for the history of the United States. Secondly, the work has been done, and thoroughly done, by the most careful and admirable systems, and it is not a question of future accomplishment. Thirdly, the collection is exhaustive, not only of single documents and facts, but all obtainable copies of each have been collated with the standard original, and all statements of facts have been compared. So far as possible the history, uses, and influence of each paper have been recorded."

The proposal of Mr. Stevens for making transcripts of the documents existing in the English archives was strongly supported by Mr. Lowell when Minister at London, by Mr. Evarts when Secretary of State, and by Mr. Frelinghuysen when Secretary of State; and both in 1883 and 1884 the matter was warmly recommended to the Library Committee of the Senate.

For the sake of showing what the work was like, Mr. Stevens deposited in the State Department a collection of papers, including the Clinton-Cornwallis controversy contained in thirty-seven volumes, and amounting to 10,000 neatly written pages. These were offered for sale to the Government in case Congress should appropriate the money. Mr. Bayard, following the example of his predecessors, and supported by various historical societies and historical scholars, warmly recommended not only this purchase, but the furtherance of the other projects of Mr. Stevens. Although all these recommendations have been published, and in some cases have been made by the Library Committees of several Congresses, nothing has been done. The reasons for this are easy, and yet somewhat difficult to give. It is rarely that any private bill, or one that appears to be such, can be put through Congress without the aid of an experienced lobbyist—which costs money. Not that there is need of bribery, but because some one interested in the bill must be constantly on the spot, and watch for all opportunities of bringing it forward; unless, indeed, some Senator or member of Congress should be so interested in the purpose of the bill as to do it *pro bono publico*. It is simply the fault of the system caused by the present rules.

Possibly there may be other reasons; for it is an open secret that there is a little jealousy between the Congressional Library and the State Department as to the possession of archives, documents, and materials for history; and there are two or three collections of manuscripts, and copies made by individual historians, which will sooner or later be offered to the Government for purchase. It is probably safe to say that none of these collections are complete, or that the papers contained in them have been copied with guarantees for accuracy.

The failure of Congress to give attention to the recommendations of the State Department on this subject has caused Mr. Stevens to modify his scheme, and to propose now a series of photolithographic copies of the original documents. There can thus be no question of accuracy in copying or proof-reading, and the student has the advantage of seeing the exact handwriting, erasures, interlineations, and signatures. My own experience in the study of Russian history has taught me that the sight of the original documents, with their changes and annotations in different handwritings, is of far more use than the study of printed copies. You see the original idea, the changes which it went through, and the reticences which are sometimes observed when these papers were read to the monarch or the prime minister. Photolithographic copies are in every sense equal to the originals, with the additional advantage that the student who possesses them or has easy access to them, is not obliged to make long and expensive journeys, or to wait for permissions which perhaps may be good for only two or three hours in a day, in order to find what he is in quest of. He can study at his leisure and at his own time, and can compare the documents drawn from the archives of one country with those coming from another source. I find that the cost of one hundred facsimiles of this kind is about equal to the cost of one hundred well-printed copies; and Mr. Stevens calculates that, at the price which he has fixed, the sale of a hundred copies would reimburse him for his money outlay—his time and experience not being taken into consideration. Surely, with all the libraries, the historical students, and the historical collections, it ought to be easy to obtain subscriptions for the necessary hundred copies. Our Government, however, ought to take at least fifty copies, either included in or additional to this number: partly for the use of the State Department, as completing our archives; for that of the Congressional Library, for the use of historical students, and for the purpose of presenting to foreign governments, in return for the expensive publications which are sent to us—because this series of papers has for them a more direct

interest than the volumes of the Geological Survey or those printed by the Smithsonian Institution—and partly for distribution to the libraries of meritorious but poor colleges. Every university and every college in the country, every historical society, and every State library, should possess at least one copy.

EUGENE SCHUYLER.

SELINUS AND SEGESTA.

PALERMO, February 4.

IN all the legends of the Greek cycle there is nothing more dramatic than the history of the two cities which, by the monuments of their antique glory, most attract the modern wanderer in the western half of Sicily. It is like the feud of Agamemnon and Achilles. Why Selinus, a great and powerful city, with a large command of the sea and a territory even now of surpassing richness (though its soil is burned by a summer sun utterly untempered by forest shade, and the fertility drained by centuries of the most primitive culture, so that the river which once flowed through it and made its port is buried in drifting sands), should have held such bitter and implacable hostility to the little mountain town, perched on almost inaccessible and now utterly barren heights, is difficult to conjecture, unless it be purely in the contentious nature of the Hellenic race—envious, cruel, malignant, never able to see with content the prosperity even of their friends. Their territories were contiguous, but that of Selinus is a broad plain extending back from the sea many miles, and probably including all the level country, for within a few weeks there has been found a hidden treasure near Castel Vetrano, at the edge of the plain, which was composed in great part, if not entirely, of archaic coins of this city. And certainly, with her dominant power, and always the aggressor, the mountaineers had hard fare, and finally, unable to sustain the contest or to placate the enemy, turned to Athens, as the then head of the race, for support. This led to the war between Athens and Syracuse, which latter city favored Selinus, and so finally to the prostration of Athens, as we all know who have read the history of Greece.

But the woes imposed on Sicily were far more disastrous, for when the help of Athens had come to naught, and the Selinuntines were still inexorable, Segesta called on the Carthaginians, who sent Hannibal with a vast force (for Carthage is just across the narrow sea of Tunis, a hundred miles away), and assaulted Selinus with great fury, being, as a good general, aware of the value of time, and how important it was to anticipate the arrival of the always tardy Greeks from Agrigentum. After a ten days' siege, in which the hapless Selinuntines showed the courage of desperation, and in which they had every day to repel a new assault of Hannibal's barbarians, aided by battering rams and assaulting towers, a breach was effected, and the combat carried on through the streets, over barricades and through the houses, till nearly the entire population was put to the sword—twenty-six hundred only, we are told, escaping to Agrigentum, and five thousand women being carried off as slaves. The wrath of the Carthaginian general at the costly resistance left no stone of the city standing on another except those of the temples. It is recorded that the Greek cities sent to Hannibal, asking him to spare the temples of the gods, which were of great richness, as we can even now perceive, and he replied that the gods had abandoned Selinus. But that he did not destroy the temples, we now discover, for, in the recent excavations which have entirely cleared the ruins of the city proper, it is found that before the columns fell the soil had accumulated to a considerable height around them, so that they lie as they fell on a ridge of earth.

This punishment of Selinus was only the pretext for the subjugation of the Greek cities, of which Segesta was one of the first to pay the penalty of calling in the stranger. They are now only two varied types of desolation. Selinus, as seen from a distance, is but a mass of building material. The two low ridges on which the city was built, or perhaps on one of which the city proper stood and on the other only an hieron, is each crowned by confused piles of drums of columns and stones of the walls of the cellas of the temples. The greatest had never been completed; but there is evidence that it had been used for worship before its destruction, and that a part of the cella had been raised. The columns were not yet fluted, as this was done only when the construction was otherwise finished. This temple has not yet been excavated, but will be taken in hand when the present excavations of the city walls and necropolis are done. The temples of the citadel are now entirely cleared, but in them as in those on the other side of the river there is hardly one drum of a column left on another. Only a small portion of a small temple suggests the Nike Apteros at Athens, having a part of its wall standing. At the entrance of the necropolis is a small building which the first excavators considered a tempie, but which now turns out to be a propylæa to the necropolis. In it were found hundreds of lamps of a peculiar pattern for the tombs, and the little votive heads, all of terracotta. The clearing of this ruin is not yet complete, and much new light on the nature of the funeral rites may be expected from the work to be done on this and on the necropolis in general. Of the port and emporium of Selinus not a trace is to be seen. The river sinks into the sands before it reaches the sea, and the drifts of the invading element have buried everything that belonged to them. The ruins still abound in the wild celery, the σέλινον, from which the name of the city is supposed to be derived, and which is nothing like parsley, as the representation on the coins would have shown any one, but is simply the uncultivated celery, as both the form and taste of the leaf show.

For the seeker of the picturesque there is absolutely nothing at Selinus. The site is the bluff which terminates the plain, and looks out on the African Sea with no elevation above the surrounding country. Such a site the Greeks would only have chosen when they had perfected a system of fortification which enabled them to dispense with the advantages of a position made inaccessible by nature. For the archæologist and those who are interested in the military engineering of the Greeks, there is an immense field of study yet to be uncovered; but the tourist will only find the satisfaction of having seen the desolation of one of the most markedly individual of Greek cities. There is no evidence of the temples having been overthrown by man; but, on the contrary, the bases of the columns show that the effect of time and the elements has been to make their supporting surface so small that they must have fallen by their own gravity if not by the shock of an earthquake. As an architectural problem, there is the occurrence, in two examples, of an arch of perfect form, but not even hinting at the principle of the keyed construction, being simply cut in a solid parallelopiped of stone, as if to make the door in which it occurs higher for goers in or out. There is here no question of its being of Roman make, for the Romans had no footing in the island till long after this must have been made.

To Segesta the road lies for nearly twenty miles through the plain, and then we come abruptly into the hilly country which we may suppose was the territory of Segesta. From the railway station we take the diligence up to Calatafime, and thence, by horse or on foot, we have a journey of four or five miles to the site of the city. We catch from the road two or three glimpses of the temple looming above the intervening hills, but sinking behind them as we approach; and when little more than half way to it, the guide led me to a foot-path which plunges down into a narrow valley of luxuriant fertility, and through groves of orange and lemon trees with which the bottom land was planted, and at the further side we began to climb the mountain on which the city used to be. The hillside was planted with olive trees and the path lined with immense cactuses—the ordinary prickly pear, which furnishes one of the most valuable fruits of the region, as it renders enormous crops, and comes in season when other fruits are scarce; and though it is not esteemed as it deserves by those not accustomed to it, it is exported to Naples and southern Italy in quantities, and in still greater is consumed by the population. The path finally leads round the bare hillside through the grain fields and along a dizzy slope, always upward, until we have made the tour of half the circumference of the mountain, when we come suddenly on the temple crowning a spur of the mountain and a few hundred yards away. A slight depression intervenes, so that from the point where we get the first, and best, view of it the temple is seen on the point of the hill, with a wide outlook over the surrounding country in all directions except the west.

At this distance it seems perfect, for we can hardly see that the columns have never been fluted or that the platform is unfinished, much less that no pavement has ever been laid. It seems lower than it is from the great size of the columns, which were still to be reduced in diameter by the finishing work. The closer views are interfered with by the necessity of seeing it from too near a point, as the hill falls away from it so fast that the stylobate is hidden when we are far enough from it to feel the proportions. To the uncritical eye it does not differ much from the tempie of Theseus at Athens, and it cannot be of much later construction if we may judge of the date of the Greek and Sicilian temples by the same canons. It has no sculpture. Its unfinished state has been attributed to the Carthaginian conquest of the island, but there does not seem to me any reason for this attribution. The Carthaginians came in as friends to Segesta, and though they soon made their presence felt as that of masters to those whom they came to serve as friends, they were still allies, and their influence would hardly have been exerted in the direction of hostility to the religion of the city. It is far more likely that the incomplete condition of the work is due to the same cause as that of so many other Greek undertakings—the dilatoriness which was a characteristic of the race, alternating with fits of fiery energy. The temporary want of means to carry on the work would cause a cessation of it; and when the fit of energy was off, the apathy would continue until some new circumstance arose to awaken the good intention again. The triumph over Selinus was far more likely to have stimulated the completion of the temple as a commemoration of it than to have stopped it. It seems to me that the temple must be attributed to a period some years, at

least fifty, earlier than the fall of Selinus, from the consideration of the circumstances both political and architectural, and as more likely to be due to the prior depression of the unfortunate conflict with the rival city, and the consequent poverty. The temple shows the same system of curvatures as the Parthenon.

Besides the theatre and a few fragments of late walls, there is nothing left on the city site proper now visible to the eye; but there have never been any excavations made in the modern spirit of investigation, so that we can hardly conjecture what the earliest origin of the city might be. The traditions, which always have a certain value, are here contradictory, one making it a Trojan colony, and another attributing it to the Elymi, a Pelasgic race. There is no authority for the Trojan theory earlier than Stesichorus, who makes the Trojans of Æneas wander about Sicily; but if there were enough of that unhappy people left to found all the cities that the poets have attributed to them, or the ambition of the inhabitants themselves appropriated—seeking, like an American parvenu, to attach their descent to some famous name—they had better have reconstructed Troy, supposing always that Troy was. The nature of the site is in favor of the Elymean theory, and the absence of any trace of walls such as this might lead us to look for, is not to be wondered at, for the stone of the vicinity is so friable that the later walls which the Greek inhabitants must have had as a necessity of ordinary defence have disappeared. Moreover, as we know that the Pelasgi were colonists here, there is no improbability in making them the authors of a colony whose site is so entirely in accordance with the requirements of that people in all except the building material. As we know, too, that, from the earliest traditions, the Greeks and Pelasgi were allied peoples, the assimilation of the Greeks of the colonization in historical times would not be strange, so that the certain Hellenic character of the people as shown in the later traditions is what we might expect. The architecture, the coinage, the appeal to Athens for help when too hard crowded by Selinus, and, in fact, all the positive traditions of the city, are Greek; and the insistence on the Trojan tradition by Selinus to excuse the inveterate hostility, was only one of the sophisms with which they used to amuse themselves on more important as well as less important occasions. They wanted to find an excuse, and this was the most convenient.

The commanding position of the temple is referred to as "another striking instance of the manner in which the Greeks placed their edifices, so as to harmonize with and be heightened by the surrounding scenery"; but this, with due deference to whoever may think it, is subjective criticism, for there is no evidence that the Greeks had any such manner. The temple of Segesta is put in the only place where it could be put and be at once accessible and defensible. The temples were put on high points from reasons connected with worship and defence, and when such a position was convenient, but there is not the slightest reason to attribute the selection to æsthetic considerations. The theatres were sometimes constructed on a hillside, but for the reason that such a position favored the construction. We have many indications in Greek literature that though the Greeks loved the open air, being a pastoral and agricultural people, they were slightly if at all affected by the beauty of landscape. The early shrines to Zeus as the god of the thunderbolt and the sky, and of Apollo as the god of the rising sun, as well as of Athena when she was the guardian of the city, are on heights, naturally, when the site offers it; but many of the temples are not so advantageously posted from the æsthetic point of view as they might be. Considerations of the ritual were far more imperious then, as now, than any ideas of abstract beauty, and the security of the temple as sanctuary and treasure-house of equal force. The people most devoid of artistic feeling, in ancient times, usually built their temples or erected their altars on heights; and in Catholic countries, even to-day, and much more in the most barbarous epochs, we find it to be the common practice to put the chapels and churches on heights, sometimes simply to make it a penance to worship there. At all events, Segesta proves nothing, for the site of the temple is obligatory—there is no place to put another without extreme inconvenience or hiding the one we have.

The modern history of the antagonistic cities has run pretty much on the same lines as if the fated curse of a common hostility had rested on them both. Selinus never existed after the Carthaginian destruction except as a refuge for outcasts, with the exception of an interval when the security and prosperity of the Saracen rule made the choice of a residence of little importance, while Segesta struggled on till the fourth century in decay; but both have been for centuries without other inhabitants than wandering shepherds, and now of the men put by the Government to guard the archæological treasures of the sites. W. J. Stillman.

THE SOCIETY OF AUTHORS.

London, February, 1889.

The Society of Authors has just held its annual meeting in London. During the year little is heard about the Society unless its members give a dinner, as they did last summer, or hold a conference, as was the case a couple of years ago. It is practically governed by the Committee of Management, and therefore the annual meeting, when their report is read, is an occasion of some importance to every one interested in the profession of literature.

To appreciate at its true value the work that is being done, it is only fair to remember the extreme youth of the Society. It was founded in 1884, but I venture to assert that nothing was known of it, and little was accomplished by it, until 1887, when it was suddenly brought into prominence, and a new impetus given to its members, by three very lively conferences held in Willis's Rooms. The objects of the Society were then made known to the public. It aims at (1) the maintenance, definition, and defence of literary property; (2) the consolidation and amendment of the laws of domestic copyright; (3) the promotion of international copyright. At the conferences to which I have referred, much was said about copyright, but more about publishers. English authors felt they had a distinct grievance in the treatment they received at the hands of American pirates, but a still greater evil was pointed out in their relations with publishers at home. A good many bitter things were said, and afterwards led to a no less bitter newspaper war, in which several publishers took part. A few firms, whose honesty no one doubted, whatever might be thought of their business capacity, announced their intention of thereafter auditing all accounts. It is not probable that firms whose honesty was very much doubted were moved to turn over a new leaf. Since then the Society, while keeping an eye on the copyright question, has devoted most of its time and attention to the defence of literary property.

That which first strikes one on reading the report for the last twelve months, is that up to the present time the Society has been principally a refuge for the outcast, a pillar for the weak, a hospital for the maimed. What I mean is, that the chief work it has hitherto undertaken has consisted "in examining agreements, advising upon complaints and grievances, and obtaining legal opinions for the guidance and protection of members"; and also in reading MSS. and giving an opinion as to their merits and advice as to their publication. Now, the author whose work is worth publishing, it is usually found, can make his agreements for himself, and even Walter Besant, in the course of yesterday's proceedings, had occasion to point out that the members of the Council who were present—Edmund Gosse, Rider Haggard, Sir Frederick Pollock, and himself—were all on the best and most satisfactory terms with their publishers. That there are plenty of men and women who will sign foolish or fraudulent agreements, no one will deny, but that they will be kept from doing so by a society instituted for their protection is more than doubtful, as Walter Besant also proved by citing the case of a woman who submitted an agreement to him and then signed it, though he showed her she was being cheated. Again, a publisher seldom relies upon his own judgment, but has his staff of readers, who consider the MSS. sent in to him. They often make mistakes, sometimes very serious blunders, but there is no special reason to believe that readers engaged by the Society, who are also paid for their services, will be more infallible.

The Committee count it a third step in advance that during the last year arrangements have been made "by which those who desire or consent to publish their books at their own risk and cost, may be enabled to do so without being charged more than the actual cost of production and a reasonable fee for the work done." It is only in very exceptional cases of benefit to the author to publish books in this manner. If he is a Ruskin, it is all right; and probably if successful authors had the time as well as the money to order the entire making of their books, their profit would be doubled. But when an author undertakes only the expense, and not the actual making, it is difficult to see the advantage gained in placing the matter in the hands of the Society, which does not itself manage the publication, rather than in giving it directly to the publisher; in both cases a fee is charged. Of course, there are, as the Report shows, "books which it is desirable to publish—good and useful books—which appeal to so small a public that the author, unless he can procure one of the universities or learned societies to undertake their publication, must himself be charged with the cost." But until the Society becomes its own publishing company, it is not easy to see how it can give greater help to an author in this plight than the large publishers, who are always glad to have valuable and learned works on their list of publications, especially when they can do so without themselves running any risk. As for the verses by young poets which it is impossible to get published except at their own charge, it is to be hoped the Society will not take any step to encourage their publication. Any man who writes passable verse has every chance to publish it in the periodicals of the day; if he cannot thus find a place for it, he may be pretty sure it is not of much account. Indeed, it may be said of all MSS., as a rule—there are, of course, notable exceptions—that to submit them to publishers and editors is a better test of their merit than to ask the advice of a society of which the author is a member.

Sir Frederick Pollock, in a short speech, seemed to think that, after all, a little common sense on the part of the author was more necessary than the opinion and advice of the Society. The want of business sense so often shown by men of letters he attributed to the fact that until our time it was thought to be beneath a *gentleman* to live by literature. In the eighteenth century those who did were looked upon as hacks. But, while he held that literature, like medicine and the law, is immeasurably above all other trades, he could not see why the literary man should not, like the doctor and the lawyer, have some regard to his purely business interests. Whether literature has gained by being made a profession, I think it would be extremely difficult for any one to decide; but, inasmuch as it has become a profession, I cannot but agree with Sir Frederick Pollock that, to regulate the relations between individual publishers and authors, what is needed is, first of all, common sense upon the part of the latter.

Other work which the Society proposes to do, and indeed has begun, seems much more within its proper scope. It is now preparing for publication

"a series of papers, varying in size from a tract to a small volume, on the following subjects:

"(1.) The Various Acts of Parliament which have Recognized and Protected Literary Property.

"(2.) The Growth of Literary Property and the Literary Profession in this Country.

"(3.) Tabulated statements of the approximate cost of printing, binding, advertising, and production generally, of various kinds of books.

"(4.) The Various Forms and Methods of Publishing.

"(5.) The History and Work of the *Société des Gens de Lettres.*

"(6.) Literature and the Civil List.

"(7.) International Copyright.

"(8.) Equitable Publishing."

This series promises to be very interesting.

The Society also intends to start a syndicate of its own, which will receive MSS. from its members only, and place them, if possible, in newspapers at home and abroad. As the excellence and finish of the work will be considered, as well as its marketable value, it will be curious to follow the fortunes of the syndicate, and compare them with those of its rival literary agencies whose only standard of literary merit is one of dollars and cents.

The Society is hopeful about international copyright, and looks forward to the passing of the American bill, with some modifications, before this year has come to an end. Very little, however, was said on the subject; the members of the Society have already so well learned the difficulty of accomplishing their ends in their own country, that they begin to realize that abroad they are as yet powerless.

There was nothing else said or done in the meeting worthy of note. English authors are very dull when they come together in formal meeting. To the Committee of Management, who do the work, is also left the talking. One might think English authors were indifferent to their Society, were it not for the numbers who belong to it.

Correspondence.

NIE POZWALAM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Fiftieth Congress has vanished into the limbo of departed things (or, to speak correctly, into Sheol), and has left unenacted the International Copyright Bill. This is only one of its laches, and by no means the most important, but it affords a typical illustration of the condition into which our legislation is drifting.

We boast of being the most practical and hard-headed people on the globe or elsewhere, and Mr. Bryce has recently complimented us on our supreme political sense; yet we allow our Representatives to involve themselves in a series of parliamentary rules so intricate and absurd that a small group of members, or even an individual, can block the proceedings of the House and prevent the transaction of the most necessary business. The public looks on in somewhat dumb astonishment, unable to understand the methods, while painfully conscious of the result. The Copyright Bill, for instance, was a measure which had been for some years the subject of discussion in the Senate; it had thus been moulded into a shape which disarmed opposition, so that no open or organized antagonism ventured to show itself. The Senate passed it last May by about a three-quarters vote; it was favorably reported by the appropriate Committee of the House; no one openly opposed it, and it admittedly had two-thirds of the members in its favor. There was absolutely no politics in the matter: in the Senate the member in charge of the measure was a protectionist Republican, and in the House a revenue-reforming Democrat. Yet for five months at the end of the long session, and during the whole of the short session, its friends could never bring it before the House for consideration. Whenever the attempt was proposed, there was always some technical rule in the way, and a single member apparently had power to paralyze the whole legislative wisdom of the Union.

It requires no profound study of political history to foretell where this is to end if it is suffered to continue. To find parallel ingenuity in the art of misgovernment, we must look to the most unfortunate of the Slavonic races, whose fate affords a wholesome warning. Practically we seem to have reached the *liberum veto* of the Polish Diet:

"The power of one man," as Carlyle describes it, "to stop the proceedings of Polish Parliament by pronouncing audibly '*Nie pozwalam*, I don't permit'—never before or since among mortals was so incredible a Law. Law standing indisputable, nevertheless, on the Polish Statute-book for above two hundred years: like an ever-flowing fountain of Anarchy, joyful to the Polish Nation. How they got any business done at all under such a Law? Truly they did but little, and for the last thirty years as good as none. But if Polish Parliament was universally in earnest to do some business, and veto came upon it, Honourable Members, I observe, gathered passionately round the vetoing Brother; conjured, obtested, menaced, wept, prayed; and, if the case was too earnest and insoluble otherwise, the *Nie pozwalam* Gentleman still obstinate, they plunged their swords through him, and in that way brought consent. The commoner course was to dissolve and go home again in a tempest of shrieks and curses."

Now it seems to me that if we are to adopt Slavonic usages, we ought also to have recourse to Slavonic remedies. I would hardly recommend at first the application of the expeditious and decisive Polish method to our experts in the employment of the *Nie pozwalam;* but, if the rules of the House are too sacred to be tempered with common sense, we might commence with the expedients invented by the Russian peasantry, who, in the conduct of their *Mirs*, or communal societies, are hampered with the same facility of obstruction. They find, we are told, that the cudgel is a very efficacious argument in bringing about the requisite harmony of opinion. Another method, recommended by the experience of generations, is to bind the obstructive member hand and foot and lay him tenderly away in a dark corner, without victuals or drink. The introspective mood generated by this treatment speedily allays the ardor aroused by debate, and the instances are few in which the most obstinate are not won over.

I merely mention these as suggestions on which the ingenuity of our law-givers can doubtless improve. Meanwhile, I am sure you will agree with me that some remedy is imperative.—Very respectfully, Henry C. Lea.

Philadelphia, March 4, 1889.

HARINGTON AND SIDNEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Murray's citation of dates and authorities to show that Sir John Harington might have read Sidney's 'Apologie' in manuscript, is a case of carrying coals to Newcastle. The best evidence is found in Harington's own work. On the second page of his "Preface, or rather a brief Apologie of Poetrie," prefixed to his translation of the 'Orlando Furioso,' occurs the following sentence: "For as for all, or the most part of such questions, I will referre you to Sir Philip Sidney's Apologie, who doth handle them quite learnedly."

On page 7 (counting from the beginning of the preface—the pagination is wanting in the edition of 1634 which lies before me) is another reference to Sidney's work: "Sith as Sir Philip Sidney confesseth, Cupido is crept even into the Heroicall poems." With this compare Sidney, 'Apologie for Poetrie,' p. 53: "Even to the Heroical, Cupid hath ambitiously climed."

These citations are sufficient proof that Harington was familiar with the contents of Sidney's 'Apologie.' That he was also a shameless "conveyor" of Sidney's ideas cannot be doubted for an instant by any one who has read the two "Apologies" in close succession. A considerable portion of Harington's preface is mere paraphrase of Sidney, his indebtedness extending even to small matters of quotation and example. The parallel passages are too long to be reproduced, but those who are curious in the matter can satisfy themselves by making the following comparisons, the references being to Arber's reprint of Sidney's 'Apologie' and the edition of Harington cited above:

Harington, p. 4, Sidney, p. 51; H., p. 5, S., p. 59; H., p. 6, S., p. 27; H., p. 7, S., pp. 52–3; H., p. 8, S., p. 72.

The expression, "keepe a childe from play and an old man from the chimnie corner," occurs on page 7 of Harington's 'Apologie,' and is a case of downright stealing of one of Sidney's most felicitous passages—the more inexcusable because Sidney was then in his grave, and his 'Apologie' was known to but a limited circle of his friends. I have never been able to forgive Harington for this piece of audacious sneak-thievery, and I am wholly at a loss to understand why Mr. Lowell lent countenance to it. I feel disposed to arraign the latter for harboring stolen goods, if not for the greater crime of honoring a thing of shreds and patches at the expense of one of the finest prose-poems in the English language. Fred. N. Scott.

Library of the University of Michigan,
March 2, 1889.

MORE ABOUT BENJAMIN VAUGHAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your able review of the Messrs. Hale's 'Franklin in France,' contained in your issue, No. 1231, January 31, 1889, quotations are made from their work relating to Mr. Benjamin Vaughan which, to put it mildly, are in

rather slighting terms—such as, "one Benjamin Vaughan, then in Paris. The individual Vaughan. Mr. Bancroft writes him down as an inferior and casual agent. Mr. Hale regards him as a well-meaning man of very great vanity"—as if Mr. Vaughan had been some "casual agent" picked up by chance as a *pis-aller* by Mr. Jay.

Mr. Vaughan belonged to an old family of London merchants, in the days when merchants were not shopkeepers. The family was wealthy, and he devoted his leisure moments to the study of philosophic and scientific subjects. His friends and associates were men of the order of Dr. Priestley, David Hume, and Franklin. He was a member of the Royal Society. With scientific tastes, he naturally sought the acquaintance of Franklin on his arrival in London, and that acquaintance and friendship lasted until the death of Franklin. He was of great service to Franklin in many ways during his long official residence in England and France. It was principally due to his persuasion, together with that of Franklin's friend M. Le Veillard, Mayor of Passy, that Franklin was induced to write his Memoirs. The letters that passed between them show that Franklin had a very high opinion of the qualities of Mr. Vaughan.

Mr. Hale says (part 2, p. 145): "Without communicating his step to Franklin, Jay persuaded Benjamin Vaughan, in whom he seems to have had great confidence, to carry to Shelburne a verbal message," etc. This was in relation to granting a new commission, which Jay feared would be opposed by M. de Rayneval, an agent of the French Minister, who had gone to London "under an assumed name and took pains to conceal his departure." One would infer from this that Franklin was to be kept in ignorance of this move on the part of Mr. Jay. Mr. Vaughan at that moment was on a visit to Franklin, and it is not at all probable that Vaughan—an old and close friend of Franklin's—would not acquaint Franklin of the object of his departure. Franklin, a consummate diplomatist, probably did not want *to know too much*, as it always fell upon him to explain away, with tact, the lack of *bienséance* on the part of his co-commissioners to the Count de Vergennes. No man knew men better than Franklin, or was more capable of judging their capacities; he knew Vaughan of old date, and also knew his "personal merits and talents," and that he was a suitable man for the business he had in hand.

There were three brothers of the Vaughans, William, Benjamin, and John. John was much younger than his brothers, and, after the peace was declared, came to America under the auspices of Franklin; settled in Philadelphia, establishing himself as a merchant and importer of foreign wines and liquors. Like his brother Benjamin, he was fond of philosophic and scientific studies, and was for many years Secretary and President of the Philosophical Society of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia, a society of which Franklin was one of the founders. He was the principal mover in the introduction of gas as a lighting medium into Philadelphia. He lived to a very old age, and was a man beloved and respected by all who knew him. He was a bachelor, living in apartments in the rooms of the Philosophical Society; and his breakfasts with a few friends were as famous in Philadelphia as the poet Rogers's were in London. I knew Mr. John Vaughan, and nothing delighted the old gentleman more than to talk of Franklin, and of the part his brother had taken in the negotiations for peace.

It is well known that Franklin's bitterest enemies were among his own countrymen: "unhappy indeed in their tempers, and in the dark, uncomfortable passions of jealousy, anger, suspicion, envy, and malice," as he says in one of his letters. Dr. Arthur Lee of Virginia, a fellow-Commissioner with Franklin and John Adams in Europe, was his principal calumniator; and John Adams had very little love or respect for him, but a great deal of "jealousy and envy." Mr. Benjamin Vaughan, known as a warm and attached friend of Franklin, may have reaped some of the "jealousy, envy, and malice" heaped upon Franklin.

As a specimen of consummate jealousy, envy, and egotism of one of Franklin's fellow-Commissioners, I will add the following letter of John Adams (a copy of which I have), which will serve to show, if the proof be needed, that in his judgment of his contemporaries he was not in the least conventional. The original letter is now in the possession of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. It was addressed to a particular friend, who had written to Mr. Adams in July, 1806, paying him very high compliments. I believe it has never appeared in print. It runs as follows:

"QUINCY, August 23, 1806.

"DEAR SIR: In your letter of the 7th of July you flatter me with very high eulogies, and complete the climax of them with the opinion of Washington. For the future, I pray you to spare yourself the trouble of quoting that great authority in my favor. Although no man has a more settled opinion of his integrity and virtues than myself, I nevertheless desire that my life, actions, and administration may be condemned to everlasting oblivion, and I will add infamy, if they cannot be defended by their own intrinsic merit, and without the aid of Mr. Washington's judgment.

"The Federalists, as they are called by themselves and by their enemies, have done themselves and their country incalculable injury by making Washington their military, political, religious, and even moral pope, and ascribing everything to him. Hancock, Samuel Adams, John Jay, and several others have been much more essential characters to America than Washington. Another character, almost forgotten, of more importance than any of them all, was James Otis. It is to offend against eternal justice to give to one, as this people do, the merits of so many. It is one effectual extinguisher of all patriotism and public virtue, and throwing the nation wholly into the hands of intrigue. You lament the growth of corruption very justly, but there is none more poisonous than the eternal puffing and trumpeting of Washington and Franklin, and the incessant abuse of the real fathers of their country."

For further enlightenment upon the self-esteem and egotism of John Adams, see 'Sketches of Debate in the First Senate of the United States, in 1789-90 91,' by Wm. Maclay, a Senator from Pennsylvania, edited by Geo. W. Harris of Harrisburg, Pa., 1880.

Benjamin Vaughan may have taken but a minor part in the negotiations for peace. He, an Englishman, had been always a warm friend of the American cause; had influence in London, and was by no means an "inferior" or "vain" man. Franklin was not in the habit of forming close and enduring friendship with inferior or vain men. It was the friendship of superior people he sought.

Your obedient servant,

WILLIAM J. KERR.

93 AVENUE HENRI MARTIN, PASSY-PARIS,
February 22, 1889.

THE CORRECTION OF NEWSPAPER INACCURACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter on "Newspaper Inaccuracy" that appeared in the *Nation* of February 14, should be supplemented by some remarks on the obtuseness and the misstatements of newspapers when their own blunders are in question. Instead of dropping the matter, after thanking Prof. Hoover for calling attention to the erroneous statement in the *Times-Star* of January 18 that certain dates fell on Friday, that newspaper has published article after article making baseless slurs on Prof. Hoover's reputation for accuracy, and denouncing as false my statements in the *Nation*. We are told that such treatment is all that we could expect from a newspaper. If this be so, so much the worse for the newspapers. And yet is not the long-suffering American people partly to blame for these characteristics of its newspapers? If we demanded that newspapers should either deserve our confidence or lose our patronage, could we not do something to reform them? We do not demand infallibility—too many pretend to that already—but we do ask that newspapers use reasonable care to verify statements before publication, and that they be willing to correct mistakes without reviling those who call attention to them.

But note the procedure of the *Times-Star*. Upon searching my letter to find a handle for attack, the editors of that paper fell foul of the expression "verified the dates." By removing this expression from its context it was made to sound ambiguous, but when taken in connection with the rest of my letter, it could have no possible meaning but the one intended: viz., that Prof. Hoover verified whether or not the dates mentioned fell on Friday. As a mathematician, all that the Professor felt called upon to do was to set each date given on the right day of the week. In two instances, however, where the event actually fell on Friday though the date given did not, he generously gave the article credit for accuracy as to the main fact. In every other instance, he took the date actually given in the article as the basis of his computation, and thus left some historical blunders untouched. Now, the *Times-Star* editors, finding several such blunders in their own article, at once unloaded all said blunders upon Prof. Hoover, and accused him of being "an inaccurate corrector," thus metamorphosing their own mistakes into a weapon of attack upon him. He has replied by expressing his willingness to submit the accuracy of his work to a jury of experts.

In answer to the charge that there are "false statements" in my letter to the *Nation*, I have only to reply that the *Times-Star* editors have revealed no such statement, and that indeed they admit more than I care to affirm. Touching the inaccuracy of the article, they say on February 2, "inaccurate dates which we should have verified before using," and on February 23, "it proved on examination to be wholly unreliable." Any one who can count can ascertain that this original article assigns dates to just nineteen events, and any expert chronologist can readily show that only four of these dates really fell on Friday. By pointing out historical blunders, the *Times-Star* editors have themselves shown that the inaccuracy of their article was even greater than I indicated. Out of the nineteen dates, I only mentioned the seventeen belonging to the first six days of the week, because I thought that it would be obvious to any one who cared to inquire curiously into the matter that the other two dates fell on the seventh day. In compliance with the repeated requests of the *Times-Star* for a restatement of the case in the *Nation*, I cheerfully offer this explanation, hoping that my meaning is now so clear that even a *Times-Star* editor need not err therein.

EDWARD P. ANDERSON.

OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, March 4, 1889.

Notes.

Miss Alice C. Fletcher is engaged on a monograph of Omaha songs, the result of the observation of several years. In this work she has been assisted by Mr. Francis La Flesche, of the Omaha tribe. Between one and two hundred songs have been obtained from native singers and the music noted, which, having been repeated to Indians of the tribe, has been recognized and pronounced correct. An account of tribal ceremonies has also been obtained, such as will render the forthcoming work a complete picture of the life of the people.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will have the third volume of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' ready this week. They will shortly publish 'The Queen of Bedlam,' by Capt. King.

The best contribution that we have yet seen to the Bacon-Shakspere controversy is a volume by Charlotte Carmichael Stopes, 'The Bacon-Shakspere Question Answered' (London: Trübner & Co.), of which we have received the second edition. It is an orderly statement, such as Shakspere scholars have hitherto disdained to make, of the comparative evidence, internal, external, and psychological, for the authorship of the plays; but any presentation of this, short of a folio, must be partial. In one particular, however, the book contains an original and interesting chapter of criticism. It appears that the author was led into the task by a study of the way in which Shakspere spoke of beer and wine; and this, which is a very elaborate examination, is included in the work, and set side by side with a similarly exhaustive account of Bacon's writings on the same subject. The result is, that the two men seem to have hardly any common point in their interest and observation in this special matter; Bacon illustrating, as a matter of course, the scientific, and Shakspere the humane spirit. These special monographs take up much space, and the remainder is well employed in a temperate and almost cold statement of things known—a branch of Shakspere scholarship in which the Baconians have not been shining lights. A history of the Baconian theory of the plays, including Mrs. Pott and the "cipher," concludes the volume. Perhaps it is as well that the case for Shakspere should be summarized, however dreary and foolish the Baconian delusion may appear; but the blow needed only to be struck to be crushing.

The New York Shakspere Society publishes the third volume of the Bankside Shakespeare, the text furnished the players in parallel columns with the first revised folio text; the subject of the present issue being "The Merchant of Venice." The introduction is furnished by William Reynolds, and is principally occupied with an examination of the law of the play, with a view to the Baconian-authorship theory. He traverses the well-known ground, already completely covered and sufficiently summarized in the Variorum edition, and concludes that Bacon could not possibly have fathered the law of the play. The text is printed with customary fidelity, so far as our examination has gone.

The fifth volume of the 'Henry Irving Shakspere,' edited by Frank A. Marshall (Scribner & Welford), contains "All's Well That Ends Well," "Julius Cæsar," "Measure for Measure," "Troilus and Cressida," and "Macbeth," the latter appearing out of its order. The general plan of the work has been already noticed, and it has not been departed from, the stage histories of the plays continuing to be useful summaries; the present volume has no striking features.

The "Canterbury Poets" edition of 'Selections from Crabbe,' by Edward Lamplough, comes accompanied by an excellent life of Crabbe, by T. E. Kebbel (London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker), in which he portrays the poet in somewhat harsher lines than it was fit for his son to draw in his life of his father. He corrects a few inaccuracies, but the more important of his contributions to the truth consist in a readjustment of the narrative. He suggests, for example, that the real meaning of the son's words, referring to Crabbe's life at Belvoir Castle—"when the conversation was interesting he might not always retire as early as prudence might suggest; nor perhaps did he at all times put a bridle to his tongue"—is that Crabbe indulged himself too freely, and at such times was betrayed into exhibition of his rougher manners learned in drinking with more vulgar companions. The character of Crabbe is not an attractive one socially, and as here presented it is harmonious with his works. The selection of passages in the companion volume could not easily be wrong, as many well-furnished critics have already determined the favorites; it makes a substantial addition to our literature of this sort, as few authors deserve sifting more than Crabbe, or better repay it with a pure residuum of original and individual genius of an interesting though modest order.

George Meredith, who is now being put through the paces of fame so energetically by publishers and critics, has arrived at one of the last stages of his journey in having a volume of selections made from his novels under the title of 'The Pilgrim's Scrip' (Roberts Bros.). These are represented as aphorisms, but they do not justify the name. He is an epigrammatic writer, and often gives that shrewd and eccentric turn to a phrase which makes it suddenly impress the mind; but these sayings fulfil only half the fine definition of Lord John Russell's, being "the wit of one," but not "the wisdom of many." They are mostly observations on life, and condensed rather in matter than in expression. They are, too, much less effective when detached than in the novels. Perhaps the awkwardness of his poetry to a eulogist could not receive better illustration than in the lame attempt to make a readable selection from it, with which this volume of excerpts closes. There is poetic thought in them, as there is proverbial philosophy in his prose; but he achieved poems and maxims with about equal rarity. There is a fatal defect in his power of expression.

A volume of selections from the works of Harriet Beecher Stowe, 'Flowers and Fruits,' arranged by Abbie H. Fairfield (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), reminds us how deeply this author's works bear the stamp of the old New England life, and how closely sympathetic they are with the nature of the home-keeping people whom they have most delighted. Here one sees at a glance what gave both unity and popularity to her varied work, aside from the exceptional circumstances which made 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' a book for all the world. The contents are arranged topically under such captions as "The Inner Life," "Children," "Nature," etc.

Mr. Frederick Saunders writes rather for quiet book-lovers than for the public, and his last volume, 'Stray Leaves of Literature' (Thomas Whittaker), does nothing to change his audience. It betokens a leisurely mind, and only a leisurely reader will find it just in his vein—a smooth-flowing stream of pleasant talk about matters not far to seek in gentlemen's libraries.

Eleanor Kirk supplements her useful 'Periodicals that Pay Contributors' with a new thin volume of 'Information for Authors' (Brooklyn, 786 Lafayette Avenue), in which she gives excellent advice about the preparation and disposal of manuscripts, and the foibles of editors of magazines. It is of a nature that every tyro should know it before putting pen to paper for the press, and should be recommended as much out of kindness to editors as to aspirants.

An interesting contribution to the colonial papers of Virginia has been made by William Cabell Rives, LL.B., who edits with a preface the 'Journal of an Exploration in the Spring of the Year 1750, by Dr. Thomas Walker of Virginia' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). Dr. Walker was a Virginia patriot, connected by marriage with the Washington family, a companion of Washington in the perils of Braddock's defeat, a commissioner to negotiate with the Six Nations in 1768, and with other Indians at later dates, and usually in political office in his own State, often holding responsible stations. The expedition of which he kept a diary was undertaken when he was thirty-five years old, and covered a region now in the States of Kentucky and Tennessee. He was the first white man who has left an account of the wilderness in these parts. The journal shows the presence, apparently not rare, of buffalo and elk, and notices the outcropping of coal; its interest, however, is principally antiquarian. The knowledge which Dr. Walker gained appears to have been used in 'A Map of the British and French Dominion, etc.,' by John Mitchell, used in the peace negotiations of 1783. The diary, which is short, is an excellent picture of a hunter's exploring trip; all the better for being without adventure and without color—merely a day-to-day existence.

'Winter Sketches from the Saddle,' by a septuagenarian, John Codman (G. P. Putnam's Sons), takes us back to old modes of travelling in a double sense, since it carries us over the old roads as well as in the old saddle. The more interesting parts of the little volume have the flavor of antiquarianism, especially of the Revolutionary era, the hero being André; but besides these bits of local wayside history, there is in this book a breath of the old-country spirit, before the days of railroads, which makes it whole some.

'Systems of Education,' by Prof. Gill of the Cheltenham Normal College, England, is a reprint by D. C. Heath & Co. of the edition of 1876. It is a popular statement of some of the principal systems, most of them European, and, in our opinion, of very little use to Americans, who are perhaps too much flooded with educational literature just now.

'The Government of the United States,' by W. J. Cocker (Harpers), is a brief constitutional manual for use in public schools. It is doubtful whether the pupils in these schools are sufficiently mature to comprehend very well the principles and the operation of our complicated system, and if they are, we should be strongly inclined to recommend them to take up Mr. Bryce's first volume. The work of a master is almost always simpler and more intelligible, even to the young, than that of the ordinary expositor and commentator. Mr. Cocker's book seems to be very carefully prepared; he has followed good authorities, and his style is clear. His manual is perhaps as satisfactory as any of its kind, but it is necessarily limited chiefly to the enumeration of particulars, and only a teacher of genius could interest boys in such a mass of intrinsically dry facts.

When an article on "American Authors and British Pirates" was published in the *New Princeton Review* eighteen months ago, many

English writers were moved to indignant protest, and one of the accused firms went so far as to write a letter to the *Spectator*—we mean the firm of F. Warne & Co. This fact gives special piquancy to the following note, which we find tucked into the March number of *Longmans' Magazine*, apropos of Mrs. Deland's 'John Ward, Preacher':

"Messrs. Longmans & Co. are the sole authorized publishers in this country of the above successful novel. They pay a royalty to the author, Mrs. Deland, on every copy they sell. As the novel was first published in America, it is not copyright in this country, and Messrs. Warne & Co. have availed themselves of this fact to publish a pirated edition. Notice is hereby given to booksellers and the public that Messrs. Longmans' edition is the only one authorized by Mrs. Deland. Messrs. W. H. Smith & Son have refused to buy any copies of Messrs. Warne & Co.'s edition."

The Librairie Paul Monnerat in Paris announces Miss Alcott's 'Les Élèves de Jo, et ce qu'ils devinrent.'

Noticeable in these days is the multiplication of annotated foreign texts for school reading. We can do no more than report the titles of some of these: Molière's 'L'Avare,' edited by Prof. Schele de Vere, and the first of a series of "Classiques Français," published in this city by W. R. Jenkins; 'Petit Théâtre des Enfants,' being "twelve tiny French plays for children," by Mrs. Hugh Bell (Longmans); Lamartine's 'Jeanne d'Arc,' edited by the competent hand of Prof. Alfred Barrère, and furnished with a vocabulary (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), and the same author's 'La Bataille de Trafalgar,' edited by A. C. Clapin, with map and vocabulary (Boston: Carl Schoenhof); A. Dumas's 'Un Drame de la Mer,' likewise edited by Mr. Clapin and published by Schoenhof; Zola's 'L'Attaque du Moulin,' edited by F. Julien, who provides not only notes but grammatical questions, and English sentences suggested by the text for translation into French—an excellent plan (Schoenhof); Hector Malot's 'Capri et sa Troupe,' an episode from 'Sans Famille,' edited by Francis Tarver, and Montesquieu's 'Grandeur des Romains,' edited by Paul E. C. Barbier—both these in Hachette's "Series of French Classics," and published (with vocabularies) by Schoenhof. In German we have Schiller's "Jungfrau von Orleans," annotated by Benj. W. Wells, and 'Lessing's Prosa,' selections edited by Prof. H. S. White of Cornell for the Messrs. Putnam's "German Classics for American Students." We may also mention in this connection two manuals of 'Commercial Correspondence,' French and German, which come to us from the Messrs. Longman, and seem well adapted as models.

A pretty bound catalogue of books for sale by J. W. Bouton of this city is adorned with facsimiles of old title-pages and in other ways, but is most noticeable for the autobiographical introduction in which this veteran bookseller recommends himself anew to his patrons.

The first French theatrical annual to appear is that with the punning title, 'Paris sur Scène' (New York: F. W. Christern), prepared by M. Saint Môr, and most abundantly illustrated. The very clever sketches of scenes in the Parisian plays of the past year are the chief attractions of this volume; but the letterpress seems careful and honest, and the book is made more valuable by exactness in its dates, and by the insertion of full casts of the performers in the plays criticised. Reading 'Paris sur Scène' is a short cut to a summary review of French drama for the past year; and the chief impression left is, that there is a distinct revival of the purely comic drama.

M. Bodinier, who is attached to the Comédie-Française, organized in Paris, a year or so ago, a "Théâtre d'Application," where the pupils of the Conservatory might get practice in their art by acting two or three times a week. In the hall devoted to this useful purpose he has recently held an exhibition of portraits of actors and actresses, of dramatic authors and dramatic critics. Some two hundred-odd portraits in oil and water color, in pastel and black-and-white, were shown, and these are duly catalogued in a neat little pamphlet printed by Quantin. It is to be hoped that the collections of the Garrick Club in London and of the Players' in New York will some day be catalogued as thoroughly.

The announcement of the suspension of the *Moliériste* is confirmed in the February number, and with the number for March this useful and admirable special magazine will conclude at once its tenth annual volume and its career. M. Monval has done good service, and he deserves the thanks of all who love the great, sad humorist whose works are the glory of French literature.

The Leonard Scott Publication Society, 29 Park Row, New York, has reprinted as an "extra" from the February *Contemporary Review* the famous article on the "Bismarck Dynasty."

A recent Bulletin of the Paris Société de Géographie contains an account by M. Camille Douls of his remarkable journey in northwestern Africa during the year 1887. Disguised as a native, he landed alone on the west coast near Cape Garnet, several hundred miles south of Marocco, pretending to the people of that region that he had been shipwrecked. At first he was treated with great barbarity as a captive, but he finally won their confidence, and spent five months wandering with them amid the oases of the western Sahara. The independent, nomad Moors of the desert, he says, are of three distinct races, the aboriginal Berbers, Arabs, and negroes. The Oulad Delîm, into whose hands he fell, are unusually intelligent, speaking a pure Arabic founded upon the constant study of the Koran. They are monogamous, and treat their wives with the greatest affection and respect as the equals of the men. The girls share the education of the boys, learning to read and write with them, and consequently the women show an intellectual and moral elevation far beyond that of any other Moslem women. He makes the remarkable statement that their camels go "ordinairement" ten days without drinking; "en temps de sécheresse ils prolongent leur abstinence du double." M. Doubs made his way along the coast to Marocco, where his disguise was discovered and he was thrown into prison, but was released at the request of the British Minister, who chanced to be in the city. A map, constructed with great difficulty, many observations being taken under the pretext of finding the direction of Mecca, shows the course of the author's wanderings, together with the character of the country and the position of the wells.

The double number of the *Library Journal* for the first two months of the year is unusually interesting and valuable. Mr. Charles H. Hull's "Helps for Cataloguers in Finding Full Names" is a very serviceable list, whose elaborateness implies both wide knowledge and great painstaking. It is, of course, a guide not more to proper names than to biographies. It fills more than fourteen pages. Mr. Paul Leicester Ford has a first paper on the "Private Libraries of New York." There is a supplementary list of public libraries in the United States of 1,000 volumes and upwards, in which Massachusetts, as usual, takes the lead; and plans and elevations of the new National Library Building at Washington and the Mercantile Library Building at St. Louis accompany descriptions of these structures.

Miss Amelia B. Edwards, LL.D., who is to visit America next season, will deliver six lectures before the Peabody Institute in Baltimore, in December, on subjects of Egyptian exploration and Græco-Egyptian art, aided by lantern slides and illustrations. She is the first woman that has ever been invited to lecture before the Institute.

—The February *Shakespeariana* has an elaborate account of the four reproductions of the First Folio Shaksperian text which claim to be facsimiles. The first of these attempts, by Douce, in 1807, was a very meritorious work, and was at first believed immaculate. But its prestige faded when a mousing caviller came out with a list of three hundred and sixty-eight errata, "two grains of chaff in two bushels of wheat." He had sought well-nigh five months for this find, which he was only able to sell for a fresh copy of Douce's reprint. In this volume he fairly wrote out all the errata he had discovered, and thus made Douce's work absolutely perfect. There are now no spots on that sun. This very copy of Douce, with all the caviller's autograph corrections, a consummate flower, is now in the library of Horace Howard Furness in Philadelphia. Douce's work, of which only two hundred and fifty copies were printed, the writer in *Shakespeariana* declares to have "become almost as infrequent as a genuine First Folio, and, except in the larger libraries, to be inaccessible to the common student." This is exaggerating the rarity of the Douce edition. The ten thousand volumes in Asbury University by no means entitle it to be reckoned among "the larger libraries," but one of those volumes is Douce's rarity. That curiosity has been treasured for more than thirty years in the Asbury Library, which in 1880 was surpassed in the number of books by two hundred and twelve United States collections. The Douce Shakspere, with some thousand other volumes, came to Asbury in the little Indiana village of Greencastle, from the estate of Thomas Ford, an early Governor of Illinois, who died in 1851. This book was clearly a favorite of the Governor, who had it bound in red morocco; and if he never chanced to hold up a leaf to the light so as to bring out the vertical water-mark, "Whatman," he may have died happy in believing himself the possessor of a veritable *editio princeps*. Many Asburians did die in the same delusion.

—Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett has a forcible and moving letter in the *Critic* for March 2 on the shameless way in which any one who has written a good book or a good play must expect to be treated by the newspapers in this country. It is not customary for a person who has made himself so interesting to the public that the reporter feels it a duty to describe the minutest details of his life, and to invent them if he cannot discover them, to make any protest against such outrageous treatment; but Mrs. Burnett has reached the conclusion that patient endurance is perhaps not the best remedy. It is difficult to see how her appeal can fail to have some effect upon even the most obdurate publishers and reporters. At all events, that portion of the community which would like to lead a decent and self-respecting existence cannot but be grateful to her for having made it. How is this shameless intrusion upon the private life of a public person to be put an end to if not by appealing to the better nature of such of the offenders as have a better nature, and by stirring up feelings of abhorrence on the part of the public towards such of them as

have not? The excuse which publishers and reporters always make is, that the fault lies with the readers, who are willing to pay their money for such wares. It may be true that the receiver is as bad as the thief, but society does not undertake to exterminate receivers of stolen goods in order to prevent the crime of stealing. The readers of this objectionable literature are obscure in station and countless in number; it is impossible for the reformer to have any effect upon them. The publisher and the reporter are in plain sight and in full hearing; it is upon them that the reformer's weapons must be brought to bear. As Mrs. Burnett points out, the present state of things is so painful to the victims of it that many modest people will doubtless be prevented from becoming great authors or dramatists from fear of exposing themselves to the reckless fabulizing of the newspaper reporter.

—Sir George Trevelyan has lately reprinted some of his early pieces, under the title 'Ladies in Parliament.' One of the best-known of them, "Horace at the University of Athens," recalls an old Cambridge scandal. Sir George had been graduated Second Classic, and was looking forward to a Trinity fellowship. He failed of an election, and this was believed to be due to his having written the "Horace," which originally contained such lines as these:

> "The fellowships have gone, save one in three,
> In inverse ratio to the degree;
> And we expect next year a Junior Op.
> Will, by the aid of book-work, come out top."

These lines were cut out of the first edition, but became known in a way that Sir George explains in the following note:

"In the first edition the above four lines, the *dearest the author ever penned*, were suppressed at the last moment, and fresh matter substituted. But a thrifty bookbinder used the rejected pages to strengthen the covers of a certain number of copies; so that the reader could gratify his curiosity by the simple process of holding up the binding to the light. Few could be induced to believe that the author was not a party to this suicidal policy."

—For several years the functions of the National Board of Health in relation to epidemics have been transferred to and discharged by the Marine Hospital Service, whose ordinary duty is the care of sick and disabled seamen. It is in this way that the last annual report of the medical officer at the head of this subdivision of the Treasury Department contains an account of the yellow fever of 1888 in Florida. The report itself is for the fiscal year ending June 30, but it is dated October 24, and contains the history of the epidemic down to November 20. The disease held over at Tampa from 1887, having been introduced there from Key West, where it was imported from Havana. The statistics for the State do not appear to have been compiled, but in Jacksonville more than 4,600 cases were reported, with less than 10 per cent. mortality. This is so slight a death-rate as to excite the suspicion that many malarial patients were confused with these, unless, it may be, the negro population, for whom no separate statistics are preserved, contributed an undue proportion of light cases. The most valuable part of this volume of 400 pages (taken up, indeed, with many other matters than this disease) is a paper by Dr. Guitéras on the natural history of these epidemics. Dr. Guitéras, who has had special facilities for this study, does not believe that natives of yellow-fever countries have exemption from the disease, although this is not the common doctrine. He contends that their apparent immunity depends upon protection derived from attacks in childhood, generally unrecognized at the time. He also thinks that the specific cause may lie dormant in favorable situations, as foul latrines, for months, and that certain years, by their meteorological conditions, are more favorable than others for the development of the disease. He does not refer to the doctrine (and probably does not accept it) that, under favorable conditions of filth and temperature, micro-organisms ordinarily innocuous may, through multiple natural cultures, in a single season develop a virulence sufficient to give rise to the disease by exactly the reverse process from that by which the artificial cultures of the bacteriologists attenuate and render useful as preventives the virus of chicken cholera and of other infectious disorders. But the Floridian has doubtless more to fear from Cuba than from such transformations. Dr. Guitéras's paper is worth reprinting as a contribution to the permanent literature of the disease.

—When the great work of Professor Reusch of Bonn, 'Der Index der verbotenen Bücher,' was completed some years since, we called attention to its wonderful accumulation of facts illustrating almost every department of literary and religious history during the last three centuries. Since then he has not been idle. In 1886 he bestowed another valuable gift on students by publishing his 'Indices Librorum prohibitorum des sechzehnten Jahrhunderts,' a verbatim reprint of the Indexes which appeared in all the countries of Europe, from the early tentative lists of dangerous books to the Index of Clement VIII. in 1596. As many of these are among the rarest of bibliographical curiosities, it was a service of no little value thus to render them accessible. For a while Reusch's attention was diverted to a cognate subject by coöperating with the veteran Von Döllinger in producing the curious and interesting 'Geschichte der Moralstreitigkeiten in der römisch-catholischen Kirche,' the second volume of which appeared but a few months since. He has now resumed his previous labors with a reprint of the 1580 Index of Parma—a broadside of which but a single copy is known—and has accompanied it with exhaustive notes such as he alone could furnish. The whole series of these publications is indispensable to every student of modern spiritual and intellectual development. They are not books for the superficial reader, but no one who has enjoyed the assistance of their marvellous wealth of accurate details, rendered easy of reference by satisfactory indexes, will ever willingly be without them.

AN INDIA AND A CHINA MISSIONARY.

Stephen Hislop, Pioneer Missionary and Naturalist in Central India from 1844 to 1863. By George Smith, C.I.E., LL.D. London: Murray. 1888.

The Life and Letters of Samuel Wells Williams, LL.D., Missionary, Diplomatist, Sinologue. By his son, F. W. Williams. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THERE has been a good deal of hot discussion in England upon the question whether the missionary enterprises of the Protestant churches have been successful or not. As regards India, more perhaps than any other country, nothing could be more superfluous. It is in Southern India that the Protestant missions have been most successful. There converts are numbered, not by tens or fifties, but by hundreds and thousands, and the reason of this is that in no other part of India is the spirit of caste so arrogant, so exclusive, so brutally oppressive as here. By the Brahmins, the lower castes were uniformly treated as a great deal worse than the beasts that perish. All the avenues of life were sealed up against them. They were regarded as the abject slaves of those above them; they lived upon offal and diseased meat; they passed their lives in hunger, cold, and nakedness; they could never hope to rise beyond the worse than bestial condition in which they were born. When the Protestant missionaries came among these forlorn and miserable outcasts, their words fell upon minds eager to listen, and they embraced Christianity literally by thousands. What has been the result? In all these Christian villages, in the place of the old degraded outcast population, we have thriving industrial communities, decently clothed, decently instructed, delivered from a servitude too frightful for any one to realize who has not witnessed it.

But while much has been accomplished, the present condition of these villages is only an earnest of what may be reasonably expected. The generation has hardly passed away which was redeemed from bestiality and savagery. For the full effect of this astonishing transformation we must wait for a future generation, entering, so to speak, from its birth, not only upon the Christian life, but upon the whole civilizing inheritance of the Western world. This levelling up of the lower castes is the one way in which the social regeneration of India is practicable; and clearly it could not have been set into motion except by religious societies acting independently of the State.

There is another aspect of missionary work in India which is wholly ignored by those who try it by commercial tests. Among the British in India, whether belonging to the official, mercantile, legal, or any other class, not one man in a hundred would enter the country if he could get his living without doing so. Speaking generally, we may say with very little exaggeration that all Anglo-Indians hate the country, hate the climate, and dislike the people. The one great object of their lives is to get out of the country as soon as they possibly can. Englishmen are charitable enough when resident among their own people, but in India there are only a few who think of exercising this virtue for the benefit of the natives. They come to the country, they grow rich, and then pass away, leaving no traces behind by which the people could recall their presence with a sense of gratitude. The Christian missionary relieves and mollifies the bad effects produced by this hard and unsympathetic type of character. He alone of all Europeans in India seeks for nothing from the people except that they should grant him a hearing. He alone comes among them with gifts in his hand, with a desire to benefit, not himself, but them. The good is really incalculable which has been effected in India by missionaries of the type of the German Schwartz, and by Carey, Marshman, Ward, and others who might be named. These have been mediators between the State and the people, moralizing the former and awakening the confidence of the latter.

The career of Stephen Hislop, the subject of the biography before us, is an example of this. He was a member of the Free Church of Scotland, a man possessed of no exceptional gifts or attainments, who went to India, driven thither by an earnest and single-minded desire to save its people from a degrading and vicious idolatry. The city of Nagpur, in Central India, was the starting point and centre of his labors. When, in the year 1844, he arrived there, this city and the province which bore its name were ruled by a Mahratta sovereign. The population of the city was largely composed of high-caste Brahmins, who enjoyed in a special degree the favor and protection of the Mahratta Court, and of fanatical Moslems. There had,

previous to his coming, been one or two feeble efforts at starting a mission, but these had died away, leaving no sign behind them, and Hislop may be regarded as the first Christian missionary who appeared among the people of Central India. The prospect before him was anything but hopeful. To the native Court, the Brahmins, and the Moslems he could not but be a disagreeable and unwelcome intruder. Nor was he otherwise regarded by the great majority of his own countrymen residing in Nagpur or the neighboring military cantonment. In those days, the curious belief still held possession of English minds, that the natives would patiently submit to any amount of injury and oppression so long as no Christian missionary was allowed to appear among them. True it was that these obnoxious personages had established themselves in a good many places without producing the popular outbreaks which had been anticipated; but this, so far from reconciling the laity to their presence, made them only more anxious to preserve the unvisited parts of India from the contamination of their presence.

Undaunted, however, either by indifference or open opposition, Hislop began his labors single-handed. The number of his converts was not great, but the earnest, charitable disposition of the man won the affections of the people. They sent their children in increasing numbers to the schools which he opened. They learned to converse openly and freely with him, so that his influence among them, and his knowledge of their veritable wants and wishes, made him an authority whom the British officials were glad to consult. In 1853, the State of Nagpur was incorporated with British India by Lord Dalhousie. In 1857, this and similar high-handed acts, combined with the grievous misrule which prevailed over nearly the whole extent of British India, produced their natural consequences in the great outbreak of 1857. Then it was that Hislop's philanthropic labors enabled him to render a service to the State and his own countrymen which went far towards the salvation of the Empire.

The population of Nagpur had witnessed with much resentment the loss of their independence; and the revolt of the Sepoy army seemed to invite them to make an effort for its recovery. They conspired with the native regiments cantoned in the neighborhood to rise at a given signal, murder the whole British community, and restore the old royal family to power. Had this design succeeded, it is absolutely certain that the Moslem state of Haidarabad, which is contiguous with Nagpur, would have followed its example, and British authority in the Madras Presidency would have ceased as completely as it had already in the northwest provinces, Oudh and Behar. But there was a certain Mohammedan of the name of Feiz Baksh, residing in Nagpur, whose children had been educated at one of Mr. Hislop's schools. He himself had been a frequent visitor at the missionary's house, and he could not endure the thought of allowing his friend and his family to be ruthlessly murdered without a word of warning from him. He revealed to Hislop the danger that was impending over him and his countrymen just in time for measures of precaution to be taken. The conspiracy was defeated and Southern India saved.

It was several years after the suppression of the mutiny that Nagpur, with two or three other large provinces, was formed into a separate government under the name of "Central Provinces." At this time, almost the only Englishman in India who knew anything of the people or the country in the more inaccessible parts of Central India was Stephen Hislop. Indefatigable in his work, it had been his custom, year after year, to traverse the country in all directions for the purpose of preaching in the villages. He found among the forests a large aboriginal population, the Gonds, whose language he was the first to reduce to written character, and of which he compiled a grammar and dictionary. In these wanderings he slept frequently in the villages where he had been preaching, partaking of the same food as the villagers had prepared for themselves, and conversing with them on a footing of social equality. No official, even if he desired, could have imitated him in these practices. A native has far too great a distrust of the powers that be to open the secret places of his mind to them. A missionary of the type of Hislop—one who is neither official nor policeman, nor trader nor planter—is the only European who can ever learn anything about the native as he really is—the genuine, unsophisticated article.

Mr. (now Sir Richard) Temple, who had been appointed first Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, had the wit to see the value of such a helper in the work he had been ordered to do. He sought his advice and assistance in the working out of every project for ameliorating the condition of the people. For the last few years of his life, the once friendless and forlorn Scotch missionary became, without official rank or salary, without effort or design of his own, a power in the state. He was accidentally drowned at the early age of forty-three. "He had," writes Sir Richard Temple, "become a shining light, a power for good; and, had he lived, he would have become an instrument of incalculable benefit to the people. It is sad to think what lofty hopes, what bright promises, were buried in his grave."

Of sturdy Welsh and New England stock, Samuel Wells Williams, the oldest of fourteen children, was born at Utica, N. Y., September 22, 1812. More dangerous than any of his perils in China, or on Perry's ships in Japanese waters, was his first infantile adventure. Owing to his mother's ill-health, he was put in the care of a maiden aunt, who, after the fashion of the time, carried a muff not much smaller than a beer-keg. During a sleigh-ride from New Hartford to Utica, Samuel, the baby, was stowed away inside the muff, which, during a capsize of the sleigh, was thrown out in the snow. Extricating herself and vehicle, the worthy spinster drove on, mindful only of her own safety. On coming to remembrance of the object of her visit, she discovered the loss of her muff and its contents. "'Shall I go back?' she queried. 'Yes, for God may have something for him to do; moreover, I cannot spare the muff.'" So the future sinologue was recovered along with the hand-warmer. He lived to thank his aunt for many other favors.

What book-knowledge the boy received was at village schools—the Utica High School and the Polytechnic Institute at Troy; in which, along with a fair English education, he obtained a good grounding in the natural sciences. When twenty years old, he was appointed by Dr. Rufus Anderson to go out as missionary printer to China. In those days the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions was a union society, supported by Christians of different denominations, instead of being, as it is now, a Congregational corporation at war with Congregational polity. In the freshness of its first energy, theological questions were of less importance than practical missionary work. After six months' hasty apprenticeship in all the departments of book-making, Williams sailed from Boston in October, 1833, in the American ship *Morrison*. He arrived at Whampoa, and, through the great fleet of East India merchantmen which lined the river for three miles or more, was rowed up to Canton. Thenceforth, for forty-two years, he made this land the field, and the Chinese people the object, of his labors. From the first he wisely guarded his health, taking regular exercise and recreation, being all the more able thereby to perform an amount of labor that surprised most foreigners. He made two visits to the United States, during the first of which he delivered lectures on China to raise a "type fund" to pay for punches and matrices for his font of Chinese metal type. These lectures, when written out, were published in book form, and for thirty years the sale of the resulting brace of volumes, 'The Middle Kingdom,' was steady, though never large.

Three times he entered Japanese waters, twice abiding on land. In the *Morrison* in 1837, he was fired on, and, unable to disembark the shipwrecked Japanese, returned with them to China, learning their language, and translating into it the Gospels. When Commodore Perry succeeded the much-abused Aulick—the victim of lying tittle-tattle and the mysteries of the Washington naval office—Dr. Williams was appointed interpreter to the expedition. Like most foreigners essaying Japanese, the word *keredomo* was very often on his lips, and the native interpreters nicknamed him "Mr. But." Later, in 1872, he again visited the country, laughingly telling the writer of this review that he was very glad he declined Commodore Perry's desire that he should write a book on Japan, notwithstanding the fact that usually a man can tell the public more about a new country when his impressions are fresh and he doesn't know much about it, than he can after knowing more. Dr. Williams's journal, kept during the negotiations, is of great value, and the Commodore in his folio volume made very liberal quotations from it. Dr. Williams and the Commodore always got on well, except that the sailor's profanity was very distasteful to the scholar. Characteristic of this guileless man was his repayment into the missionary treasury of the entire amount of his salary as interpreter received from the United States Government.

The mechanical and linguistic difficulties surmounted, and the progress made, by this industrious printer, during the twenty-five years' existence of the Mission Press at Canton and Macao, are clearly set forth in the letters and journals from which the biographer has so liberally made extracts. Most of the printer's work was of the sort intended to make the Chinese and Westerners acquainted with each other's speech and thought. The total output was 38,000 volumes, not counting pamphlets. The press earned by its publications and jobs $12,000 over and above expenses. Of the valuable *Chinese Repository*, mostly edited and largely filled by Dr. Williams, 23,000 copies were printed. When, in 1857, the printing office was totally consumed in the incendiary fire by which the Chinese destroyed also the factories, and caused for a while a total cessation of trade, Dr. Williams entered provisionally upon his services as American Secretary of the Legation of the United States, which, as it turned out, he served until 1877. To the temporary sojourners in the Middle Kingdom sent out from Washington, and acting as American envoys, the services of so experienced a scholar and diplomatist, in whom the Chinese reposed the highest confidence, were invaluable. On returning to the United States in 1877, Dr. Williams revised his great work on China, filled the chair of Professor of Chinese

at New Haven, and remained to the end of his days the courteous gentleman, genial friend, helper of the poor and needy, cultured scholar, and devout Christian. He died on February 16, 1884.

The biographical volume by his son is a handsome octavo of 490 pages, on good paper, with wide margins. The style is clear and pleasant, and the text interwoven between the letters and extracts is sufficient in quantity and quality. A good steel portrait of Dr. Williams's Hebrew-like countenance, and a capital index, complete the equipment of this monument which filial love has raised in honor of a useful and beautiful life. In character, Dr. Williams was a man of stainless purity, generous, sympathetic, and honored by all. The moral force of his personality is still unspent, and his writings in English and Chinese will continue for generations to assist in the solution of the problem resulting from the contact of a progressive with an ultra-conservative civilization. In his learning he was a scholar of the old-fashioned sort, largely lacking in the important critical faculty. No one is likely ever again to attempt an encyclopædic work on China such as he wrote. With the new learning in sinology represented by Mayer, Terrien de la Couperie, and the brilliant and possibly flippant young scholars of the North China Asiatic Society, he had no patience or sympathy. With the "new theology," so called by him, he had less either of understanding or appreciation. He was, in his limitations, a man of his age; in character, he was a man of all the ages.

ROGERS'S ECONOMIC INTERPRETATION OF HISTORY.

The Economic Interpretation of History: Lectures delivered in Worcester College Hall, Oxford, 1887–1888. By James E. Thorold Rogers, Professor of Political Economy in Oxford, and of Economic Science and Statistics in King's College, London. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS volume comprises twenty-three lectures given before the students of Oxford University. It may be remembered that some twenty years ago Prof. Rogers was deprived of a lectureship in Oxford on account of his then advanced views on industrial questions, or, as he himself states the case, "because he traced certain social mischiefs to their origin"; and the lectures now printed comprise, we understand, his first public utterances upon being restored to his former position as a member of the instructing body of that venerable institution. It is certainly proof that the world moves, and that rapidly, if the conservative views which find expression in these lectures could, twenty years ago, have caused a University instructor to have been deprived of a lectureship.

The title of the book is misleading. A definite and somewhat narrow meaning is ordinarily attached to the phrase "economic interpretation of history." By it one understands that the flow of national life is to be explained in the light of economic events. Such an interpretation must of necessity be systematic in its arrangement, orderly in its unfolding, and comprehensive in its treatment. It ought to show, to use the words of our author, "how very often the cause of political events is economical." It ought to leave the impression, as our author in another place declares, that to omit or to neglect these economical facts "is to make the study of history barren, and its annals unreal." It cannot, of course, be asserted that this book is of no assistance in the interpretation of history, for its pages are replete with economic facts of all sorts; but it is certainly within the bounds of truth to say that the lectures do not present an economic interpretation of history in the broad and scholarly meaning of that phrase. They meet much more nearly the requirements of an historical interpretation of economy, although that title would not accurately describe them. What Prof. Rogers has here done, and done excellently well, is to bring his immense store of economic knowledge, gathered from an exhaustive study of English industrial life, to the support of opinions held by him as an economist, and of conclusions entertained by him as a statesman.

It may not be out of place to support this view of the work before us by a closer study of one or two of the chapters which it contains. Its scope is indicated by the following headings, taken at random from the table of contents: "Diplomacy and Trade"; "The Distribution of Wealth in England at Different Epochs"; "The History of Agricultural Rents in England"; "The Origin and Progress of Pauperism in England"; "Historical Effects of High and Low Prices"; "*Laissez-Faire*: Its Origin and History," and others of the same sort. Let us consider for a moment the method of treatment for the two last mentioned. In a discussion of the historical effect of high and low prices there is certainly clear sailing for one who desires to give an economic interpretation of history. It is only necessary to state the facts of fluctuating prices and to trace their effects on the development of national life. But Prof. Rogers does not follow this line of presentation. Beginning his discussion with a statement of Gregory King's well-known law of prices, he expands that law into five general principles, and supplements these principles by three historical events which work as potent causes in the fluctuation of prices. The principles are as follows: (1.) The price of any article rises or falls by a different ratio from that indicated by the ascertained amount of its deficiency or surplus. (2.) The operation of the above law is always most dominant in articles of prime necessity. (3.) If in the scarcity or plenty which prevails there are several articles that can be used interchangeably, the greatest rise of price will attach to the article ordinarily the cheapest, and the greatest fall in price to the article ordinarily the dearest. (4.) For goods whose consumption is voluntary, an excess of supply will be followed by a fall in price to the present cost of production, but an excess in demand will, through a rise in price, be followed by unusual activity in trade. (5.) A rise of prices in the necessaries of life will not tend to increase the amount of employment, but a rise of prices in articles of voluntary consumption will increase both profits and wages. The three historical events which work as factors on prices are: movements in the supply of gold and silver, diminished cost of production resulting from inventions, and diminished cost of transportation.

Now, says our author, "if we are able to grasp the five general laws of prices which I have given, . . . and the three causes, . . . we shall be on the way to interpret the facts past and present which I have to lay before you." This is certainly promising. It sounds quite plausible, and yet the reader who comes to this chapter expecting to learn from it the effect of fluctuating prices on the growth of society, will surely be disappointed. The truth is, movements in prices have exerted greater influence upon the fate of nations than the ambition of kings or the reasoning of philosophers, and to trace their subtle influence cannot be evaded by one who assumes to write "an economic interpretation of history." But Prof. Rogers does not conceive this to lie within the task he has undertaken. There is scarcely a fact mentioned in this chapter that is not an economic fact. The author makes no attempt to mark out the broader line of study. His sole aim seems to be to support his laws of prices by reference to history. He is contented if he can say, "The laws affecting prices are illustrated to the full." His treatise is a treatise in economy rather than in history.

Our disappointment is of the same sort when we turn to the discussion of "*Laissez-faire*: its History and Origin," although in this case it is the practical statesman and not the practical economist that directs the discussion. There is perhaps no subject in the entire range of scholarly research more worthy of profound investigation than that of the historical origin of the doctrine of *laissez-faire* and its influence on modern social relations; but instead of outlining such a treatment as this, which is, of course, all that could be done in a single lecture, our author presents to us a homily on state interference, and illustrates his conclusions by running comments on certain laws and reforms of the nineteenth century.

It may appear to some that this review is captious in its criticism; it has not, however, been written in that spirit. The important services of Prof. Rogers to the advancement of economic history have been frequently recognized on this side of the Atlantic. It is largely through the study of his writings that American scholars have come to appreciate the grandeur and the importance of an economic interpretation of history; and it seems almost like disloyalty to the master who has taught us so much, to admit that this bundle of lectures properly suggests the scope of such a study. And it should be remembered also, in this connection, that one duty of a reviewer is to guard readers against the purchase of books they do not want, but which they are tempted to buy on account of an inviting title. It is, therefore, incumbent upon us to say that if one is searching for an economic interpretation of history in the broad and philosophical sense of that term, he will not find it in this volume; but if, on the other hand, one desires access to a fund of useful information pertaining to the industrial life of the past, there is no book, so far as we know, to compare with this one. It could not have been written except by a man of Prof. Rogers's experience in life. It speaks of the House of Commons as well as of the professor's chair. It shows its author to be a man of affairs as well as a close student of industries. Its pungent comments on past events, its trenchant criticisms on the actors in history, as well as its common-sense comments on passing events, make this collection of essays worth the appreciative attention of every intelligent reader. The book is a full book in every sense of the word because the life of its writer has been a full life. Under another title it would receive our highest commendation.

One sentence in the volume before us has been severely handled by the protectionist newspapers in this country, viz.: "The protectionist tariff of Mr. Morrill was in great part, as I have heard alleged by eminent American statesmen, the price paid for the allegiance of the manufacturing East." This is erroneous, of course. Prof. Rogers was probably told, and has only vaguely remembered, that the Chicago Convention of 1860, which nominated Mr. Lincoln the year before the war, in its anxiety to secure the electoral vote of Pennsylvania, adopted a resolution which the politicians of that State construed to mean protection, although the language employed was not very

clear. "The manufacturing East" (by which term we commonly mean New England) was at that time inclining to free trade. Certainly her "allegiance" needed not that any price should be paid for it.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

THE steady growth in the volume of the law is illustrated not only in the constant accumulation of reports and statutes, but in the growth in bulk of the text-books which comment upon and discuss these. Mr. James W. Gerard's well-known and excellent treatise on the 'Law Applicable to Titles to Real Estate in the State of New York' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) originally appeared twenty years ago in a little volume of four hundred pages; the second edition, published only four years later, contained nearly eight hundred. After a lapse of fifteen years, the present revision appears, containing nearly a thousand, and yet no conveyancer or lawyer at all familiar with the subject will say that there is a page too many. The revisers have throughout, we believe, had the assistance of the author's supervision, so that the work is his as much as ever, a fact which, to those who know his thoroughness and keen professional sense, is an additional warrant that the work is well done.

The book has one feature which for practical purposes is decidedly important—it is confined to, and purports to give only, the law of a single State. There are very few heads of the law which can be treated in this way. The writer on Contracts, on Evidence, on Damages, on Bailments has to draw for his material upon every quarter of those portions of the globe which have inherited the common law. The conflicting statutes and contradictory decisions of different jurisdictions make it often difficult for him, and sometimes impossible, to arrive at and state settled principles. Mr. Gerard was fortunate in a subject which was not hampered in this way. Real-estate law is with us peculiarly local. Titles are nothing if not local. Consequently, if Mr. Gerard's book is chiefly of interest to the New York lawyer, it is to him of the greater value for that very reason. In tracing the history of a doctrine or the interpretation of a statute, he is not perpetually distracted from the local beaten track by paths and by-ways which lead off to the bogs and morasses of remote or alien jurisdictions; and at the end of his investigation he has no doubt that he has obtained that great desideratum of the practising lawyer—a clue to a knowledge of the law *as it is*. A very large proportion of this book is of course statutory. For this and other reasons it has long been a *vade-mecum* for the New York conveyancer. Its strength lies rather in the completeness with which it brings the cases into bearing upon the local statutes than in any other feature.

The American State Reports, vols. i and ii (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.), begin a new series of those selections from the law reports of this country, accompanied by annotations, which have proved very useful and acceptable. This one is edited by a practised and well-approved hand, Mr. A. C. Freeman; his notes add to the value of the books—such notes, for example, as those on the "Police Power of the States," and the sale of "Futures" in volume i, and on "Burglary," and the summary jurisdiction of courts to punish for contempt, in volume ii.

He who has the time and money and shelf-room to spare for them will find nothing so good as that remarkable and complete series of the reports of all the courts of last resort in the country—including also the decisions in the lower Federal Courts—which the West Publishing Co. supply. But not every one can afford forty dollars a year for that. There will be many who prefer to obtain for twenty-four dollars the six stout volumes a year of such a series as this of the American State Reports, with the fuller apparatus of notes which it supplies. In one way or another, it is getting to be almost essential that lawyers should explore widely the reports of other States than their own; and that is good, for it will tend to improve and unify the law of our States.

In the volume entitled 'Table of Cases and Index to the Notes in the 160 Volumes of American Decisions and American Reports' (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Company), those who possess the two series preceding that of the American State Reports above mentioned, will find an important key to the convenient use of them. Indeed, the "Index to the Monographic Notes," arranged according to the subjects discussed, will prove worth having for any one who has merely access to these volumes in a library.

Mr. Wm. C. Cochran's 'Students' Law Lexicon' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co., pp. vii, 332) is a compact little book, likely to be serviceable to students. It has very good and full appendices, giving explanations of such abbreviations and references as are usually found in law books, and also a collection of foreign law maxims and phrases, with translations. The definitions appear to be mainly accurate and neat. Two criticisms might be made: (1) that it is not correct to describe the *præcipe quod reddat* as a writ commanding *the defendant* to do a certain thing; and (2) that the author, in describing the year-books, leaves his reader ignorant that there are now five printed volumes of an earlier reign than that which he names as the earliest.

The second volume of 'The Anglo-Indian Codes,' edited by Whitley Stokes, D.C.L. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is entitled "Adjective Law," and deals with the Code of Criminal Procedure, the Code of Civil Procedure, and the Evidence Act. Each is preceded by an introduction, giving its history and a general idea of its contents. In foot-notes to the various sections, the editor gives the rulings of the courts thereunder, together with comments of his own when necessary. The two volumes of which this is the second, the first dealing with "Substantive Law," will be of great use to those having a practical interest in the codification of the law.

Mr. Charles R. Miller's 'Law of Conditional Sales' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), a volume of 196 pages, 66 of which are appropriated to an index, while the subject indicated by the title of the book occupies only 62 pages, is not a book which a lawyer in a position to consult any late American edition of Benjamin on Sales need refer to.

'The Law of Landlord and Tenant,' by H. L. Gear, and 'The Law of Wills,' by Charles Fisk Beach, assisted by Edwin E. Pratt—both published in San Francisco by the Bancroft-Whitney Co.—belong to the "pony series," and are evidently the result of patient and conscientious work. They will be found to be very useful handbooks to have on one's table, though they cannot take the place of the larger treatises. Typographically, nothing can be said in their favor.

The first edition of Abraham Clarke Freeman's 'The Law of Executions' (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.) is so well known to and so highly esteemed by the legal profession that any extended notice of the present edition is unnecessary. The author has not confined himself to collecting cases relating to questions treated in the first edition, but, besides adding much new matter concerning executions as a remedy for enforcing common-law judgments, has treated the question of enforcing decrees in equity, and has added two entirely new chapters relating to Chancery sales. Mr. Freeman has done his work conscientiously and well.

Le Marquis de Jouffroy d'Abbans, Inventeur de l'Application de la Vapeur à la Navigation. Par J. C. Alfred Prost. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1889.

M. PROST'S work is an elaborate attempt to vindicate for the Marquis de Jouffroy the honor of the first application of steam to navigation. Excepting only as regards Jouffroy himself, it contains few facts not already well known. After a very long account of the ancestry of the Marquis, we have some details of his early youth, not without interest, and going to show that his taste for mechanics was developed at an early age. At fourteen he became one of the pages of the Dauphine; at twenty he entered the regiment of Bourbon as sub-lieutenant. The account of his early years is followed by a chapter on the history of the various projects for the application of forces other than that of the wind, in moving vessels. We need notice here only the fact that in 1737 Jonathan Hulls in England took out a patent for vessels with paddles to be moved by Newcomen's engine. There is no evidence to show that this plan was ever actually put in practice, but it clearly appears that, after the capital improvement made by Watt in 1765, the idea of a possible application of steam in navigation was widely entertained, and that the age was ripe for the invention of Jouffroy. In 1772 an association of persons interested in the problem of steam navigation was formed in France. It consisted of the Marquis Ducrest, the Count d'Auxiron, the Chevalier de Follenay, the Count Jouffroy d'Uzelles, uncle of the inventor, and others of less note. This society constructed from the plans of D'Auxiron a steam vessel which was launched upon the Seine in 1773, but which foundered near Meudon, leaving no record of its success or failure.

D'Auxiron died shortly after, and a new association was formed, consisting of his heirs and of Ducrest, Jouffroy the inventor, and Périer—the last an engineer at the head of a large iron-foundry. This association obtained from the Minister Bertin the promise of an exclusive privilege of steam navigation such as had been accorded to D'Auxiron, provided that Jouffroy's plans should be approved by the Academy of Sciences. Serious differences at once arose between Périer and the young Marquis. Périer launched upon the Seine a boat with a single-acting engine which failed completely. Jouffroy then left the association and set out for Franche-Comté to attack the problem alone. He selected the small village of Baume-les-Dames as his place of work, and in June, 1776, his first boat was launched. It was forty feet long and six feet wide. In place of paddles it had a system of oars articulated together, devised in 1760 by Genevois, an ecclesiastic of Berne. This vessel navigated the river Doubs in June and July of 1776. Jouffroy soon recognized the defects of his first vessel, and applied himself at Lyons to the construction of a second, which was completed in 1783. This was forty-six metres in length and four and one-half metres in breadth. It had paddle-wheels, could move against the current of the Saône, and for sixteen months plied between Lyons and Macon.

Jouffroy applied to Calonne, Comptroller-

General of the Finances, for an exclusive right of steam navigation. Calonne referred this request to the Academy of Sciences, which named as members of a commission the Abbé Bossut, Cousin, and Périer, the engineer and rival of Jouffroy. At the instigation of Périer, as appears probable, the Academy required new experiments, and Calonne declined to grant the privilege asked for unless Jouffroy would construct a vessel capable of transporting 300,000 pounds against the stream. The "concession" would then be granted for fifteen years. There seems to be little doubt that Jouffroy's defeat was due to the jealousy and malice of Périer. In 1784 Jouffroy, who was ignorant of Périer's feeling towards him, made overtures to his enemy to construct a double-acting steam engine of which he had prepared plans and drawings, as well as a model on a scale of one-twenty-fifth. Périer wrote in February, 1785, that such a machine would cost one hundred thousand livres, and that he would undertake it if the company which Jouffroy had formed would raise that sum. Jouffroy, whose finances were utterly exhausted, saw that the case was hopeless. On the breaking out of the Revolution he joined the Royalist army, but, after the peace of Luneville, returned to France. To obtain materials for his work he pulled down part of his château, but it does not appear that he constructed another vessel at that time.

In 1806 he returned to Paris, but of the next ten years of his life we have no details. In 1816 Jouffroy constructed a new vessel, called the *Charles Philippe*, after the Comte d'Artois. This also appears to have been a success, but our author gives us no specific account of its performance. Soon after, a powerful company formed at Paris openly took up the steamboat as the invention of Fulton; and Jouffroy, completely ignored, returned to the province to continue his work in poverty and neglect. A vessel called the *Persévérant* was, however, constructed at the expense of a new company. The Parisian company succeeded in preventing the necessary subscriptions to the capital of its provincial rival, and Jouffroy at last saw that the struggle was vain, and retired. After years of poverty and neglect he was admitted to the Hôtel des Invalides, where in 1832 he died of cholera. The honors which were denied him during his life came at last. In 1884 the Municipal Council of the city of Paris decided that a street should bear his name, and on the 17th of August of the same year a statue was erected in his honor at Besançon.

M. Prost's work has evidently been a labor of love. It is certainly a valuable contribution to the history of steam navigation, but to one who seeks only the cold facts upon which to form a judgment, it is very hard reading. We have to wade through page after page of rhetoric and sentiment to get at details which are not always given with the necessary fulness and accuracy. But the case of the inventor is, on the whole, well if not impartially stated. M. Prost gives extracts from letters of Fulton, which are interesting and valuable if perfectly authentic. In 1802 Fulton launched upon the Seine a small steam vessel which, according to Jouffroy, was a copy of his own. In one of the letters referred to, Fulton says that if the honor of inventing the "pyroscaphe" belongs to any one, it is to Jouffroy. In another letter he says, according to our author (for the passage is not cited verbatim), that he himself has invented nothing. It is to be regretted that these letters are not published in full.

Whether we are to consider Jouffroy or Fulton the inventor of steam navigation will depend upon what we mean by invention. Jouffroy firmly grasped an idea which was not his own—or at least not new—carried out that idea in practice, basing it upon correct scientific principles, and yet failed to become the true introducer of the system, though he devoted to it the peace and happiness of a long life. Fulton also took up an idea which was not new, and carried that idea to a successful permanent application, in the face of many obstacles. With the experiment upon the Hudson in 1807, the era of steam navigation began. The no less successful experiment on the Saône in 1783 led to nothing. In any case, the place of Claude François Dorothée de Jouffroy among great inventors is secure.

Un Pèlerinage au Pays d'Évangéline. Par l'Abbé H. R. Casgrain. Deuxième édition. Quebec. 1888. 8vo, 544 pp.

THERE is more in this book than its fanciful title imports. The author seems to have been thrown into a state of intense chronic excitement by the two chapters on the Acadians in Mr. Parkman's 'Montcalm and Wolfe.' At least, ever since their publication in 1884, he has been writing books and articles against them. He has chosen to make the question a national and religious one, and hence the remarkable heat with which he has pursued his task; a difficult one, in view of the awkward circumstance that Mr. Parkman not only stated unwelcome truths, but proved them by unanswerable French and Catholic evidence. Moreover, in 1886 Sir Adams Archibald, late Governor of Nova Scotia, read before the Nova Scotia Historical Society, of which he is the President, a paper on the same subject, written in a spirit equally just and humane, in which he expressed the same conclusions as those of Mr. Parkman, and gave his reasons for them.

Here was an added stimulus to the active pen of Abbé Casgrain, who had already published a series of articles in a French Canadian journal, and printed them in a volume under the title given above. Then followed two or more papers which he read before the Royal Society of Canada; then another series of articles running for a year through the numbers of a Canadian review; then the same articles with some changes and additions, printed in a second and enlarged edition of the 'Pèlerinage'—that goodly octavo of 544 pages which is the subject of this notice—the whole forming a vast and heterogeneous monograph, backed by a prodigious quantity of documents gathered in Canada, Nova Scotia, France, England, and the United States. These documents have also been printed, along with a profusion of notes and comments; and the whole amazing array of letter-press is set in motion to overwhelm the two chapters which are the head and front of the offending. Clearly, the sense of humor is wanting in the mind of the fervent author. If every subject of American history were treated on the same scale in proportion to its importance, some of them would fill whole libraries, and the world could not contain the books that would be written.

It is curious that after all this immense preparation Abbé Casgrain has not ventured to attack the allegations that have so distressed him, but has only railed at them from a distance. The position of Mr. Parkman and Sir Adams Archibald is this: They declare that the removal of the Acadians was an act too harsh and indiscriminate to be justified, and they do not attempt to conceal the cruelties that attended it. At the same time they show that the story has two sides; that the sufferers were victims as much of Frenchmen and Catholics as of Englishmen and Protestants, and that the government of Louis XV., through agents civil, military, and ecclesiastical, intrigued to stir up the Acadian subjects of the British crown to revolt against it in time of peace; that these intrigues were attended with terrorism and cruelty to the Acadians themselves, and treachery, outrage, and murder to the English settlers, and that they produced at last in the Acadian population a state of things which, in the words of Mr. Parkman, "made some act of force on the part of the English a necessity"; that, in short, without these intrigues the removal of this unfortunate people would have had neither reason nor pretext, and therefore would not have taken place. Mr. Parkman proves his statements by the correspondence of the intriguers themselves, still preserved in the archives of France.

Abbé Casgrain has been more than once reminded that he must meet these statements squarely or lose his case. He has not accepted the challenge. What he has done is to scour archives and libraries for everything that could tell against the hated "Anglais" and the yet more hated "Yankee," and to record the results with a passionate prolixity, matchless in its way. As for the ugly truths which he was invited to attack, he lets them severely alone, and follows, or tries to follow, the advice of *Dogberry* to the constables when they had fallen foul of a culprit too muscular to handle, "Let him go, and thank God you are rid of a knave." But the ugly truth will not go. Once or twice only he fancies that he sees an opportunity to make a fierce demonstration against some small point of no bearing on the main issue; as when, in the memorable row raised by Sam Weller upon Mr. Pickwick's being carried before the magistrate at Ipswich, his friend Mr. Winkle shunned all collision with the myrmidons of the law, and sparred valiantly against a little boy by the roadside.

Abbé Casgrain possesses in a supreme degree the comfortable gift of finding in his inquiries nothing but what he wants to find. On the other hand, the sense of historical proportion has been denied him. The removal of the Acadians, which few persons in Canada or the United States ever heard of before Longfellow made a poem out of it, looms on his sight like a hideous black cloud, darkening the whole field of American history. He has pursued his protracted labors with an amazing singleness of purpose, snatching with delighted avidity at anything that might serve as a stone to cast at the abominable Yankee. He calls it impartiality to see one side of the story, and obstinate prejudice, if not moral obliquity, to see both.

Yet he has not toiled four years for nothing. It is true that he has dodged the facts which have so exercised his soul, and tried to bury them under a foaming torrent of recrimination, seeking comfort in the prophecy that he who has dared to make them public will be punished with speedy and deserved oblivion. It is also true that, all ablaze as he is with zeal and passion, he is anything but a safe guide; that his wish is father to his thought; that when he is met by a dangerous truth he shuns it by shutting his eyes and hiding his head in a bush; and, moreover, that he is not only highly imaginative, but agile beyond belief in jumping at conclusions. Hence he must be followed with the most watchful caution.

So much labor, however, concentred on so narrow a space, must needs produce its effect. He has utterly failed to show that the Acadian story has not another side, fully as dark and repulsive as that which, till lately, has been the only known one. The following are the

chief points he makes: That the removal of the Acadians was not the work of the British Government, but of its servants in America—a fact, however, which everybody knew who had looked into the matter at all. Next, that the Englishman Lawrence, chief actor in the tragedy of removal, and already known as harsh and violent, was also a bad governor and a corrupt man. Next, that the New Englander Morris is chargeable with duplicity and cruelty. The most important documents which Abbé Casgrain has printed do not, however, relate to the removal of the Acadians, but to a period from thirty to forty years earlier—a period, by the way, with which Mr. Parkman has not yet had occasion to deal except in the way of brief reference. These papers show that when the country was passed over to the British crown, the English governors used inexcusable means to prevent the Acadians from emigrating, being apparently as anxious to keep them in the province as later governors were to get them out of it. Finally, Abbé Casgrain produces the first real evidence we have seen in support of the oft-repeated charge that New Englanders coveted Acadian lands. These points should be fully and fairly considered in recounting the miserable story; but, while they add to the burden of one party, they do not lighten that of the other.

If Abbé Casgrain means to confute Mr. Parkman and Sir Adams Archibald, he must fall to and write another book, for all his multifarious productions of the last four or five years have done nothing towards dislodging the adversary. Yet he has the claim to our gratitude of giving us all that can be said by the most eager and industrious of advocates on one side of a mooted question. That after all his labors he has not answered the allegations he so detests, is good proof that they are unanswerable. The truth is, that the treatment of the Acadians was a scandal on both sides.

The Story of Mexico. [Story of the Nations.] By Susan Hale. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

WHAT is written in the book of Fate and publishers' plans has to come to pass, and as this volume of the series was long ago announced and put on the stocks, we suppose it is useless to object to it as now unnecessary. Those who have access to Bancroft's volumes will have no use for this, while, if it is a question of a compend, Bancroft has furnished that, too, and of a sort that must be pronounced superior to this except in point of literary style. One thing alone can we think of that would have justified a new condensed work on Mexican history, and that is a summary presentation of the results of historical and archæological investigation as affecting Mexico's mythical and legendary periods. If one could tell the tales over again as they are gradually taking shape at the hands of Brinton and Bandelier, of Orozco y Berra and Bátres, not to mention German workers, that would be something to be truly thankful for. But, alas! Miss Hale's book is far from doing this. She is conscious that something of the kind needs to be done; that the old nursery-stories cannot be repeated without apologies, and profuse indeed are her apologies—she is "indulging her imagination," she tells her readers, "and playing with legend"; "it would be a pity wholly to set aside" fabulous accounts, she thinks, and concludes that we may as well a little longer "enjoy the tale of past magnificence." And through 123 mortal pages does that tale run, over one-quarter of the entire book. We are aware that this ought not to be laid exclusively at Miss Hale's door—the publisher's plans called for some account of "the myths with which the history of all lands begins"; but in this case at least the performance is dangerously like the desperate clinging to a creed that can no longer be believed.

This long preliminary loitering of the book between two worlds, one dead, the other powerless to be born, is the more to be regretted since it seems to have compelled the practical ignoring of the whole period from the Conquest to Independence. Scant twenty pages are devoted to 250 years. These years do not lend themselves to the telling of a "story," the author thinks. Nor do they, if one looks alone at the dismal succession of viceroys, lists of church dignitaries, and records of the Inquisition. But back of all these it is possible to go and get at bits of actual life in art, in monastic education, in the methods of extending the Church, in the system of government under which the Indians were brought; and it is a pity to sacrifice all these to Aztec gods and dynasties. Miss Hale more than once gives a suggestive glance at contemporary happenings in Spain, France, and England, helping thus to fix the era and enforce the contrast. But all her joggings of the memory of this sort are not worth one sentence in Sir Henry Maine's last book, where he remarks, wholly in passing, that the system of forced labor in Mexico was no improvisation of the conquerors, but only an institution of the Old World carried over to the New—the *corvée*. But Sir Henry Maines do not grow on every bush, and it would hardly be fair to condemn another for not giving off his flashes of historical insight.

For the history of this century Miss Hale has made a faithful study of the authorities, and has written a narrative which is both clear and, in the main, accurate. It is something of an omission that she makes no mention of Victoria among the guerilla champions of independence who kept up the fight from Hidalgo to Iturbide. Like many another writer, she is staggered at the chaotic state of Mexican politics between Iturbide and Juarez, but for her to take the life of Santa Anna as the thread upon which all the events can be intelligibly strung, is to give up the idea of a philosophical history of the period from the start, and it is inevitable that she should soon tacitly abandon, as she does, her chosen "guide through this puzzling labyrinth." The Intervention is not very strongly handled, some mistakes being discernible even when the older narratives are made the test; of the recent and important evidence bearing on Maximilian's conduct at the wind-up of his empire, we see no trace here. We have noticed several misprints, mostly in proper names, and some minor inaccuracies of statement, none of which does it seem worth while to point out. One mistake, however, ought to be corrected, if only because it is one frequently made. Mexico is not yet free, says Miss Hale, from the burden of debt entailed upon her by Maximilian's ruinous loans. The debts of the empire were all most justly repudiated. Not one cent on those bonds, was the word of Juarez, and has been the steady policy of Mexico since. A small part of Maximilian's immense borrowings might, indeed, seem to be a just debt of Mexico to day—the $4,500,000 which he paid as interest on the London debt. But even this Mexico has thus far refused to assume, and probably will never agree to pay.

Life of John Stuart Mill. [Great Writers.] By W. L. Courtney. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.

WHETHER disciples of Mill be numerous or not at Oxford, Mr. Courtney has taken good care that his readers shall not mistake him for one of them. In speaking of his monograph, it is perhaps easier to state what it should not have done than what it might have done; and, although the method be illogical, one can have no hesitation in saying that a critical biography of Mill's life and work should not be made the means of covertly conveying the opinions of an antagonistic school still in a minority in England. Mr. Courtney writes from the centre of the Oxford reaction against utilitarian theories in ethics and individualism in sociology; he has no sympathy with what he terms the "destructive, transitional" philosophy of Mill; consequently, he makes it his purpose to tell us, not so much how Mill stands with regard to the whole current of nineteenth-century thought, as how he is viewed by Mr. Courtney's circle in Oxford to-day. The "we," so often prefixed with an ominous "but," in order to show the differences of opinion between the Oxford Hegelians and Mill, means the reactionary clique lately headed by Thomas Hill Green—the idealist, Grey, of 'Robert Elsmere.'

It is hardly too much to say that dislike of Mill's views has given rise to one case of misrepresentation. In discussing Mill's theory of Causation it is said: "But Mill's 'experience' is not like Mr. Herbert Spencer's; it is not 'race experience,' but 'individual experience.' He is, therefore, always open to the charge of trying to get wide-reaching truths out of the changing and fragmentary experiences of our three-score years and ten." Now, a reference to the 'Logic' (Book III, chap. xxi) proves very definitely that Mill maintained no such position. His contention was that, instead of the à-priori view of causation as one of the "categories" according to the Kantian method, it was possible to establish the fact of, and hence the belief in, causation as the result of an experience without exception in the history not only of the individual but of the race. Causation is coextensive with *all* human experience; and this gives it a false appearance of necessity. You see that one event follows another invariably and *unconditionally;* so do I; so does everybody. The sum of individual experiences makes it an unbroken race experience; hence causation is established by the Baconian method *per enumerationem simplicem;* and since, from the beginning of all human time, no single flaw has occurred in this continuous experience, the law of causation establishes itself as the principle of uniformity in nature, and constitutes the implicit major premise of every sound induction.

Mr. Courtney's objections to the individualistic standard of the essay 'On Liberty' cannot look for much support in America. The Germanizing influence has of late years been so strong upon English philosophy that one is hardly surprised at finding an undercurrent of Bismarckism in Oxford utterances upon social themes. All we have to answer is, that to such commentary on his opinions Mill himself would probably have replied: "Place the state or society before the individual, and you have the Germany of Bismarck; give free play to individual effort, and you have the United States." Heaven forfend that America fall away from her gospel!

The treatment of much of Mill's private life also leaves something to be desired. His relations with Mrs. Taylor are, of course, the most delicate test of the biographer's attitude, and this, we regret to see, is not without a touch of disparagement. Instead of seeing what is really touching in this one passionate episode of Mill's career, Mr. Courtney narrates it with the analytical glance and careless shrug of one in whom it calls up no sympathetic response.

The simple introduction of a parenthetical word of affection and pity says a great deal on such occasions; and the critic's silence, or half-silence, tells seriously against him. Even the familiar event of the destruction of Carlyle's 'French Revolution' leaves the commentator cold: it is worth while comparing with his account that given with such warmth of sympathetic feeling in Dr. Garnett's 'Carlyle,' written for the same series.

Needless to add that the 'Political Economy' and the 'Subjection of Women' share the same pitiless fate; and therefore, although Mr. Courtney has written with accuracy and clearness, not altogether wanting in ease, and although he does full justice to the noble qualities of Mill's mind and character, he is not the one to undertake a task of this nature. On him, however, lies but a small share of the blame, for, after all, the temptation of being one writer in such a brilliant series, combined with the rare opportunity of writing down a philosophical opponent without appearing to "slog," is not to be resisted—even by an Oxford don. The fault lies mainly with Prof. Robertson, the editor of the series, who, in his selection of a biographer for Mill, has committed an almost unpardonable literary gaucherie.

Louisiana. By Maurice Thompson. [The Story of the States.] Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THE author of this book complains in his preface that he has had to write in harness; that he has been required to keep to the strict truth of history, and yet make the story as interesting as a fiction. It is always hard to write to order; but there is no lack of fascinating and romantic material in the history of Louisiana without going beyond the barest facts, as indeed Mr. Thompson shows. Unfortunately Mr. Thompson, we are given to understand, has a high reputation as a "prose poet," whatever untamed monster that may be; and though he keeps his prose Pegasus tolerably well in hand, every now and then the nag goes off, and woe to any unhappy reader who happens to stand in the way. The opening passages on the early discoverers and buccaneers (he thinks the "Spanish Main" was an expanse of water), and the heartcurdling account of General Jackson's victory ("carry the news to New Orleans"), are instances of the prose poetry. It is a real pity; for, when Mr. Thompson is not writing fine, and is telling the story, he does it well. But the selections and omissions are made by no rule at all. The peaceful development of Louisiana is told without an allusion to Edward Livingston's work as a codifier; not a hint is given that General Taylor was a resident of the State at the time of his victories and his election. Purporting to give in the chronology a complete list of the United States Senators, he omits Josiah S. Johnston. As is often the case with his publishers' books, the showy printing is attended with wretched proof-reading; and Mr. Bridgeman's illustrations are feeblest where "strength" is claimed for them. Some of the landscapes, though not vigorous, are pretty, and a few of the fancy views of antiquity are the same; but the representation of the diplomatic sale of Louisiana, which Mr. Thompson calls the treaty of "Ildefonso," is sad indeed.

British Letters. Illustrative of Character and Social Life. 3 vols. Edited by Edward T. Mason. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

MR. MASON has collected in his three volumes a great number of letters, some more and some less well known, which cannot be read or skimmed through without a great deal of pleasure. Lamb, Thackeray, Horace Walpole, and innumerable other well-known letter-writers have been made contributors—and it is hardly necessary to say that the wealth of English literature in correspondence is very great. Mr. Mason has endeavored to classify his letters under various heads, so as to make those which are placed together deal with one subject; but in doing so has been forced to pay comparatively little regard to dates, and still less to authorship. The reader is helped out by an index, and he may pick and choose in almost any way that he likes. On the other hand, the chief charm of correspondence is so connected with its continuity that it is diminished the moment the continuity is broken, and here the continuity is broken with every letter. We no sooner catch a glimpse of a familiar face or character than it is replaced by another. We have no time to get a distinct impression, and the rapid changes of authorship produce a sort of confusion that is disagreeable. But, as we have said, the letters selected are almost all worth selection, and any one who takes up the book is sure to find entertainment in it.

How to Write the History of a Family: A Guide for the Genealogist. By W. P. W. Phillimore, M.A., B.C.L. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. Pp. 206.

THE title of this book, which is printed in London by Elliot Stock, is slightly misleading to American readers. It is in reality a very useful manual for any English genealogist, and of service to cis-Atlantic students who wish to trace a family in England. The instructions given presuppose an ignorance of such matters on the part of educated Englishmen which is less frequent in this country, where so many town histories and genealogies have been printed. The author mentions with approval some American ideas and plans, and seems to be thoroughly informed as to his subject. More than half of the book is devoted to a statement of the present localities in which public records are stored. It is impossible in our space to give even a synopsis of this, but the value of such a list is very great, and we can sincerely recommend the volume to all genealogists as a most desirable addition to their libraries.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich. Anne R. The Rose of Flame, and Other Poems of Love. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Austin, A. Love's Widowhood, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Blackwell, R. S. Treatise on the Power to Sell Land for the Non-Payment of Taxes. 5th ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cawein, M. J. Accolon of Gaul, with Other Poems. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $1.
Crump, A. Investigation into the Causes of the Great Fall in Prices coincidently with the Demonetization of Silver by Germany. Longmans, Green & Co.
Die Edda. Deutsch von Wilhelm Jordan. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Dyer, T. F. T. The Folk-Lore of Plants. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Galton, G. Natural Inheritance. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Gerard, J. W. Titles to Real Estate in the State of New York. 3d ed. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $7.
Hartmann, E. von. Zwei Jahrzehnte Deutscher Politik und die Gegenwartige Weltlage. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Hatch, Rev. E. Essays in Biblical Greek. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Klein, H. J. Star Atlas. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $2.25.
Knight, W. Wordsworthiana: a Selection from Papers read to the Wordsworth Society. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Lang, A., and Sylvester, P. The Dead Leman, and Other Tales from the French. Scribner & Welford. $2.00.
Laurie, Prof. S. S. Occasional Addresses on Educational Subjects. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Lee, W. John Leigh of Agawam (Ipswich), Mass., 1634–1671, and his Descendants of the Name of Lee. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. $5.
Levy, Amy. Reuben Sachs: A Sketch. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Molière, J. B. P. de. L'Avare. W. R. Jenkins. 20 cents.
Moore, Rev. E. Contributions to the Textual Criticism of the Divina Commedia: including the complete Collation throughout the Inferno of all the MSS. at Oxford and Cambridge. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press: New York: Macmillan.
Romanes, G. J. Mental Evolution in Man: Origin of Human Faculty. D. Appleton & Co. $3.
Schiller, F. von. Die Jungfrau von Orleans. D. C. Heath & Co.
Thomas, E. C. The Philobiblon of Richard de Bury. Lockwood & Coombes. $3.75.
Thompson, D. G. Social Progress. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Thompson, Helen H. Strong. Songs in the Night-Watches. From Voices Old and New. The Baker and Taylor Co. $1.25.
Thompson, M. The Story of Louisiana. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Thomson, Sir W. Popular Lectures and Addresses. I. Constitution of Matter. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Thou Shalt Not: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Tolstoi, L. N. Anna Karénina. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Transactions of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers. Vol. V. New York.
Tytler, Sarah. French Janet. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Vallings, J. F. Jesus Christ, the Divine Man: His Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.00.
Vickers, R. H. The Powers and Duties of Police Officers and Coroners. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.
Vitzthum von Eckstädt, Graf. Shakespeare und Shakspere: Zur Genesis der Shakespeare-Dramen. Stuttgart: J. G. Cotta.
Walford, L. B. A Stiff-Necked Generation. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Wasson, Rev. D. A. Essays, Religious, Social, Political. With a biographical sketch by O. B. Frothingham. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Whittier, J. G. Prose Works. 3 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Wicksteed, P. H. The Alphabet of Economic Science. Part I. Elements of the Theory of Value or Worth. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Wigmore, J. H. The Australian Ballot System as Embodied in the Legislation of Various Countries. Boston: Charles C. Soule. 75 cents.
Wilson—Fiske. Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography. Vol. VI. Sunderland—Zurita. With Supplement and Analytical Index. D. Appleton & Co.
Winchell, Prof. A. Shall We Teach Geology? Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.
Wingate, C. E. L. An Impossible Possibility. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Woodbridge, W. S. Christ in the Life. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.

YOUNG FOLKS' HISTORY OF
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15½ Beacon St., BOSTON.

MISS A. C. MORGAN, PRINCIPAL of Young Ladies' School, Portsmouth, N. H., announces her annual vacation trip to Europe, including Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 21, 1889.

The Week.

THE appointments to the minor foreign missions thus far represent an unusually high level. Ex-Senator Palmer of Michigan is one of the few representatives sent to Spain by the United States with ability to speak the language of the Madrid court. In like manner, Mr. Thomas of Maine, who returns to the post which he held at Stockholm under a previous Republican Administration, speaks the Swedish language. Mr. Enander, who goes to Denmark, is a Scandinavian by birth, and the only cause for regret about his appointment is the fact that he displaces that accomplished Scandinavian scholar, Mr. Rasmus B. Anderson, who now represents this country at Copenhagen. Ex-Gov. Porter of Indiana, the new Minister to Italy; Mr. Thayer of Minnesota, who goes to the Netherlands; and Mr. Washburn of Massachusetts, who is appointed as Minister to Switzerland, are all men of education and character, who will never cause their countrymen to blush. If the standard thus set for the smaller missions is maintained for the chief places, the diplomatic service will do the nation credit. We have learned that Mr. Perry Belmont resigned his position as Minister to Spain by telegraph on the first day of March. Our comment, therefore, on his supposed removal by Mr. Blaine was unwarranted, and we tender to Mr. Blaine our apologies for the same.

Mr. J. S. Clarkson of Iowa was Vice-Chairman of the Republican National Committee. It has been shown by undisputed evidence that, while in this position, in combination with Mr. Quay, he bribed two clerks in the employ of the Prohibitionist journal, the *Voice*, for the sum of $250, to steal their employers' mail-lists and hand them over to the Republican Committee, to be used in sending Republican documents. We believe there is a doubt among the lawyers whom the *Voice* has consulted whether this is an indictable offence under the laws of this State; we do not believe, however, that there is any doubt among either religious men or men of honor generally that it was a disgraceful and immoral act. Nevertheless, when Mr. Quay's and Mr. Clarkson's attention was called to it, they made merry over it, and when the story got out, they received showers of congratulatory telegrams from their political associates in various parts of the country. The *Press* of this city rejoiced over the theft, as it "enabled Col. Quay to circulate the American idea thoroughly during the campaign just closed." Now, we know very well what professional politicians think of such tricks, but what the public would like to know is what President Harrison thinks. He is not a professional politician. He is a lawyer of high standing in his church, and a moralist of considerable austerity. And yet he has just nominated Clarkson for the place of First Assistant Postmaster-General, one of the most important in his gift. The theft of the *Voice's* mail-list is, we may be sure, not the first bit of sharp practice in which this gentleman has been engaged. What, then, is the exact relation of the Republican party to the religion and morality of the country?

The nomination of Mr. Hazen for the important position of Third Assistant Postmaster-General is a most excellent one. Mr. Hazen worked his way up to this place from a clerkship, and was retained for two years by the Cleveland Administration on account of his almost invaluable qualities. He ought to have been retained the other two years, and is very properly restored to his office. The important place of Superintendent of the Railway Mail Service goes to a Philadelphian who has the excellent recommendation of having been traffic manager of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad, and, if he will only apply the business rules of his old position to his new one, nothing more can be asked.

The action of President Harrison with regard to the New York Post-office will be a crucial test of the value of his professions of devotion to the principles of civil-service reform. The office is one of the greatest Government offices in the country or in the world. It is in perfect order, and a model to all similar offices everywhere. It has been conducted on business principles for four years, to the great satisfaction of the people of this city, by a Postmaster who was retained in office by his political opponents solely because of his eminent fitness for his place. He has proved to demonstration during these four years the humbug and falsehood of the spoils theory, that a postmaster or collector of customs must needs belong to the same party as the President, and hold the same political views. In fact, if the civil-service reformers had been allowed to make up or construct a test of Republican sincerity, they could not have constructed a better one than Mr. Pearson's place offers. He is a Republican whose party has come back to power, and finds him reflecting honor on it by his faithful performance of his duty under a Democratic President. We hear that there is "not a chance of his being retained," but we do not believe it. How can we, after what we have heard of President Harrison's integrity, both political and personal, and of Mr. Wanamaker's zeal for the efficiency of the service? The latter does not depose the head of his undergarment or shoe department because some other Republican wants the place.

The selection by Mr. Blaine of his son, Mr. Walker Blaine, as Examiner of Claims in the State Department is a very unfortunate one, which a sensitive or scrupulous man would not have made. Claims are a subject on which Mr. Blaine himself is peculiarly exposed to criticism. They brought him, and the whole country through him, into very hot water when he was last in the State Department. It was in pushing an old claim against the Peruvian Government on behalf of one Landreau, a Frenchman whose American citizenship was very doubtful, that he came near involving us in a war with Chili in 1881. In pushing it, too, he produced doctrines of international law, of his own invention, which led the Chilians to treat him with silent contempt. Of this we said in 1884, when he was running for the Presidency: "That Mr. Blaine had a personal interest in the claim there is no proof; but the extraordinary amount of official interest he showed in it, the extraordinary means to which he resorted, and the extraordinary risks which he ran in order to save and support it, naturally excited the curiosity of all and the suspicions of a great many." When we add to this the odium which he brought on himself by his Little Rock Railroad transactions, one would say that he had had enough experience of a certain kind to make him cautious for the rest of his days. The examination of private claims against foreign governments, and especially against weak South American governments, is work which, if only for appearance sake, he ought not to commit to his son. This would be true even if his son were, like his predecessor in the same office, the late Dr. Wharton, a man of mature age and an acknowledged master of international law. We would now ask what the Republican organs would have said had Mr. Bayard, with his stainless reputation, put his own son or nephew in this place, as a successor to one of the leading jurists of the country? We shall keep asking this sort of question occasionally. We must only hope the contrast between the two men is not a measure of the difference on the ethical side which we are to see between Mr. Blaine's management of our foreign affairs and Mr. Bayard's.

The recent summary of the changes in the various divisions of the Treasury Department during the Cleveland Administration took into account only the "chiefs," as they are called. But it must be remembered that these are not the only officers appointed by the Secretary without consultation with the Civil-Service Commission. Leaving out of consideration those of inferior grade, such as messengers and laborers, there are in the higher circles not only chiefs, but assistant chiefs, superintendents, and others of like character, constituting, according to the old standard, proper prey for a spoilsman Secretary. These places Mr. Cleveland's Secretaries could have filled with their own friends. Yet at the close of the Democratic Administration the number of those occupying such places appointed from without the Department, and consisting, presumably, of "workers," is only one-half the entire number. If we class as Republicans all those holding such places at the advent

of the Cleveland Administration who have been retained to the end, and all those promoted to such places from inferior posts obtained during the previous administrations (which is not a strictly accurate classification, though lacking little of being so), we have sixty-five Republican officers drawing $148,000 a year in salaries, and sixty-four Democratic officers getting only $140,000. This, it must be admitted, is a creditable showing. Going into details, we discover in the office of the Treasurer twenty places of this kind, nineteen of which are filled by old incumbents, while the one new man was appointed to fill a vacancy caused by death. In the various bureaus classed as part of the Secretary's office are twenty-two such posts, sixteen of which were found by Mr. Windom occupied by old employees. In the office of Commissioner of Internal Revenue, out of ten positions of this sort only three were filled with new appointees, and no changes whatsoever were made among this class in the Bureau of the Mint. In the six auditing offices considerable havoc was done, but even there, out of thirty-seven officials of this class, nine were spared. It must be added that several of these places have been created during the last four years, and these were naturally given to "outsiders."

The "evidence" collected by Byrne, the special officer of the Treasury, in his late Custom-house investigation, has at last been printed and presented to the Senate. It is known as Executive Document 123. It contains ninety-six pages. We have read it as far as p. 50, which includes the testimony of the well-known Examiner McElwee. We do not think the sternest moralist could ask us to do more. We desire to speak with the utmost moderation and restraint when we say we think it one of the most discreditable official documents which have ever appeared in this or any other highly civilized country. It much surpasses Byrne's report in silliness and absurdity. We have not come across a single statement going to show the existence of "sugar frauds," or any frauds, in the Custom-house which would be accepted as evidence against any man's character in a court of law, or before any respectable tribunal. What the affidavits contain is simply the gossip which may be collected in any large collection of men, or even in a large boarding-house or factory, about people whom somebody else does not like or feels jealous of. There are surmises and suspicions, and suspicious circumstances, and doubts, and suppositions, some of them worthy of a girl's school, or of the women in a quarrelsome tenement-house, but no facts. Here is a specimen of the kind of affidavit that Byrne collected, and upon which the late Secretary of the Treasury thought fit to base attacks of the grossest kind on the personal character of his subordinates, and which is now printed at the public expense:

N. Y., July 12, 1887.

I have heard Examiner Bowne and Sugar Broker Burt in loud controversy occasionally in regard to disagreements of tests, and have seen them almost directly afterwards in apparently close conversation together in the hallway. The impression might naturally be left on the occupants of the ass't appraiser's office that the loud tone used by them was for effect and unnecessary.

ALARIC CECIL MORGAN.

Sworn and subscribed to before me this 12 day of July, A. D. 1887.

T. AUBREY BYRNE,
Special Treasury Officer.

We are very sorry that somebody cannot be punished for this affair. No honorable or intelligent man can rise from the perusal of this document without a strong feeling of indignation.

The first election which Montana will hold as a State, in October next, will be conducted on the Australian system of voting. A ballot law based upon that system was passed by the Territorial Legislature at its present session, and was signed a few days ago by the Governor. Both houses of the Rhode Island Legislature, too, have passed a ballot-reform bill, but the Senate made the date for its going into operation April, 1890, and the House changed this to June, 1889. There is no doubt that the Senate will accept this amendment, and that the bill will become a law. It is in all important respects a close model of the Massachusetts law, and is an excellent measure. It has had the support of both parties, and has been enacted in response to a very strong public demand. The leading advocates of it could have had it put in operation at the approaching election in April, but they deemed it wiser to wait, as the time for preparation was so short. There are, therefore, at present, four States having excellent ballot-reform laws. This is likely to be the total result of the movement during the present year, and it is on the whole an encouraging one. It should be remembered that the agitation of the question has been going on only about two years. The immediate results have been much greater than those of the civil-service-reform agitation; for, though that has been in progress now for many years, only two States, Massachusetts and New York, have yet enacted laws embodying its principles.

It appears that there is a majority of several thousand votes against the prohibitory amendment in New Hampshire—a result never for a moment anticipated by either side to the controversy. The opponents of the proposed change relied upon the requirement of a two-thirds vote as their real safeguard, expecting that the friends of prohibition would have a majority. Now that it turns out that a majority voted against prohibition, the prohibitory law, which would have been in no danger if the amendment project had not been agitated, is threatened, and it is predicted that the Legislature will pass a high-license law, although the Governor is counted upon to veto it. The next Legislature, by the way, will be the last to meet in June, as the amendment changing the time for the opening of the session to January was adopted on Tuesday week by an overwhelming majority.

There was a discussion in the Senate last week which incidentally raised the question of the inadequacy of the pay of the Senators themselves, and this led to some feeling remarks on the part of several members of that body, with which it is impossible not to sympathize. The compensation of a Senator of the United States is $5,000 per annum. This sum does not enable him to live in a befitting manner. It is not more than one-half the sum that is required to keep house in Washington even in a modest way. Consequently, Senators who have no private fortunes to draw upon must take lodgings, and forego the social amenities which custom has established as appertaining to their station. Such a position is humiliating to a sensitive man. Moreover, the Senator, and the Representative as well, is put to a great deal of expense, really unavoidable, by his constituents, in running around among the departments. This calls for carriage hire, for if he performs this work on foot, he loses time which belongs to the public. Then he has a large daily correspondence, and needs a clerk to help him out with it. If he does not happen to be chairman of a committee, he must pay his own clerk hire. He must also pay his postage. He must offer some civilities which cost money to distinguished visitors from his State when they come to Washington. In point of fact, the $5,000 which he receives as annual compensation is pretty far eaten up before he gets to his own living expenses. Senator Platt of Connecticut thought, as we think, it was time for somebody to speak out.

There is only one remedy for this state of things, and that is to increase the pay of members of both houses. It ought to be twice what it is now, or $10,000 a year. Even then no one would lay up anything against a rainy day unless he voluntarily chose to live in a niggardly manner. The pay of the members of Senators and Representatives together, 401 in number, is now about two million dollars. It would then be four millions—a beggarly sum in comparison with what is voted into the pockets of river-and-harbor and public-building contractors every year, and quite insignificant as compared with the largesses voted by means of the tariff into the treasuries of protected interests, Trusts, and "combines." The reason why Congress has not voted an increase is probably that the recollection of the "back-pay grab" of 1873, and the tremendous popular revolt against it, has intimidated everybody. But it should be borne in mind that it was the *back* pay rather than the increase of pay that caused that uprising. Congress voted at the expiration of its own term that the increase of pay (to $7,500 per year) should date from the beginning of the same term; that is, that it should date back two years. It was the voting of $5,000 out of the Treasury to each Senator and Representative on the last day of the Forty-second Congress. If the bill had not been retroactive, it would not have caused much disturbance, although it came at an unlucky period, the financial crisis of 1873 setting in shortly after the measure passed. The public indignation over the back-pay grab was so great that the

next Congress repealed the bill so far as it was still repealable, and accordingly the pay of members remains to this day at the parsimonious figure at which it stood before. There is no reason to suppose that any similar reaction would take place now if the pay were increased, provided it were made prospective merely.

About a year ago Judge Pieden of St. Clair County, Mo., was ordered by the United States District Court to levy, as County Judge, a special tax to pay the interest on certain railroad bonds guaranteed by the county. This the Judge firmly refused or utterly failed to do, and, having judicial knowledge of the consequences of his refusal, kept out of the way, so that when the marshal came after him with a warrant of arrest for contempt, he was nowhere to be found. For a whole year the search for him was kept up, but in vain. He was always warned by friends of the approach of the officers of the law. The device by which he was finally captured was probably one of the most ingenious in the history of political science. The officers knew him to be passionately fond of the chase, and especially of the fox chase; so they organized in an adjoining county, not in the Judge's own, "a fox drive" on a great scale, and advertised it far and near. They were early on the ground themselves, well mounted, and anxiously waited for the effect of their scheme on the Judge's imagination. Sure enough, he soon appeared, mounted on a white mule, and full of ardor for his favorite sport. As soon as the fox had been found, and the hounds were in full cry, and the Judge's mule was pressing close behind them, the marshals rode up, having swifter steeds than the mule, and proposed to arrest him. He promptly slipped down off his mount and took to the woods on foot, under a smart pistol fire from his pursuers, but of course was soon compelled to surrender, and is now in jail, where, according to the reporter, he expresses "a very poor opinion of the United States Government," which is not surprising, considering the way in which he was caught.

The murder of Capt. F. S. Dawson, editor of the Charleston (S. C.) *News and Courier*, is a most melancholy close to a career which had already been fruitful of much good, and was full of promise for the future. For twenty years Captain Dawson was one of the most prominent editors in the South, and he made his journal one of the chief influences in all that part of the country. He used his great power for the promotion of all good causes, and did more than any other man—one might almost say more than all other men—to overthrow the sway of "the code"; duelling being now under the ban, instead of the recognized resort among gentlemen, as when the *News and Courier* began to expose its essential brutality. In politics Captain Dawson stood for all progressive impulses, and his paper never hesitated to defy prevailing sentiment when the editor thought that the populace were wrong. The removal of such a man is a loss not merely to his State or to the South, but to the whole country.

The only thing quite clear in the great copper crisis is that certain speculators in Paris, after trying to hold more than 100,000 tons of copper suspended between heaven and earth, found that their muscles were giving way, and managed to transfer their load to the second largest bank in France; that this bank tried to hold the weight, and might have done so for a long time, perhaps for ever, if it had grown no heavier; that the pile of copper grew on its counter until it became a crushing weight, when the Bank of France, at the instance of the Government, took as much of the load as it could carry, but that the pile on the counter of the first-mentioned bank began to grow afresh, and finally carried it down to the earth. The Société des Métaux is smashed, the Comptoir d'Escompte is smashed, the Bank of France is disabled from helping private borrowers to the usual extent, and in fact the situation is considerably worse than it would have been if the Government had minded its own business and allowed the Société des Métaux and the Comptoir d'Escompte to reap the consequences of their own folly and go to smash their own way. But that is not the French way. The glory of the nation has to be considered in such cases. If a speculation acquires such magnitude as to attract the eyes of foreigners, it must not be allowed to fail. Accordingly, when the copper crowd were on the eve of bankruptcy, some two weeks ago, M. Rouvier, the Minister of Finance, summoned all the great men in the banking world to meet him and take steps to save the national honor and prestige. Fancy the Secretary of the Treasury calling a meeting to save the Fidelity Bank after it had lent all its capital and deposits to the wheat speculators in Chicago, or to help the Marine Bank in New York after it had been "gutted" by Fish & Ward. This is substantially what M. Rouvier did.

Gen. Boulanger's speech at Bordeaux announced that "the goal towards which they were marching was a non-parliamentary republic, which would be the protectress of the weak and lowly, and be passionately preoccupied with the interests of the people, respecting the liberty of the individual, and above all liberty of conscience." This is rather melancholy news for the Boulangists. Although this sort of government is frequently promised by public men, its establishment is hardly possible without a considerable change in human nature. If the kind of men who set up republics like this were at all plentiful, of course the world would have no need of Boulangers or Powderlys, and the work of government would be as easy as shoemaking or tailoring. Of course, Boulanger's republic would contain just the same number of rascals and honest men as the present one, and Wisdom would have just the same difficulty in getting control of affairs in that one as in this.

The Liberal victory in Kennington is the most serious reverse the present English Ministry has sustained. London is now divided into thirty boroughs, returning two members each, including the University, of which thirteen were won by the Liberals at the last general election and seventeen by the Tories. On the Tory strongholds no impression has since been made, and the opposition of the metropolis to Home Rule has been a tower of strength to the Liberal Unionists. It now appears, however, as if the tide had turned, and the Government was in danger of losing the whole thirty-four seats which the capital gives them. What effect this will have on the ministerial imagination remains to be seen, but it would not be at all surprising if it precipitated a dissolution of the present Parliament. Socialistic questions are said to have largely influenced the result in Kennington, so that the Home-Rule cause could hardly have won without their help. That this would be a result of the ministerial policy in Ireland good observers have long foreseen, and herein has lain a large part of its folly. When social questions are in the air, a government which is not only ostentatious, but vindictive, in asserting the rights of property against the poor, as in Ireland, and heaps insult on their champions, and tries to silence protests, not only by jeers but by plank beds and striped jackets, simply stimulates the spread of extreme radical views on every subject. Greater political madness than the notion which has taken possession of most Englishmen of the middle and upper class, that they were strengthening the foundations of social morality by locking up Irish members and sending troops to carry out evictions, has not been seen in our time. On the contrary, they have been greasing the wheels of the Radical car.

The only newspaper in the world, as far as we know, which has come to the defence of the London *Times* since the Pigott incident is the London edition of the New York *Herald*, which declares in "frankness and justice" that

"the *Times* made a stern, lavish, honorable, heroic contest, to be remembered, as it will surely be, to the honor of that journalism which, in a sense of duty to the people, finds no labor a sacrifice."

This increases the mystery of "journalism." In what other department of human activity could it be "honorable or heroic" to purchase from a scoundrel and publish a forged letter imputing to an opponent complicity in assassination, refuse to give him any reason for considering it genuine except the resemblance of the signature to his own, and the probability that so bad a man as he was would write just such a letter, and then load him with insult based on the letter for a whole year, and finally put him to an outlay of $150,000 in finding out whence the letter came? Why should this be honorable in "journalism," any more than in medicine, law, or theology, groceries, dry-goods, or Yankee notions? This is all the droller because the New York edition of the *Herald* says that

"as for the *Times*, its audacity of three months since is only equalled by its present humiliation. It has published an apology for the crass stupidity with which it became the willing dupe of a spy and an informer."

INDIANA'S NEW BALLOT LAW.

THE enactment of a comprehensive and stringent secret-ballot law for the State of Indiana is an achievement of national importance. If a vote of the country had been taken a month or so after the last Presidential election on the question of which State in the Union was most in need of such a law, the verdict would have been practically unanimous in favor of Indiana. In no other State has there been such general debauchery of the suffrage by both parties during the past twenty or twenty-five years. The evil began when Indiana was an October State and it was necessary to carry it for the "moral effect" upon the election in November. It is notorious that it was bought outright for this purpose in more than one national campaign. That Dorsey carried it with "soap" for Garfield in 1880, was confessed by no less a person than Garfield's asso ciate on the ticket. That Dudley's "floaters in blocks of five" had a great deal to do with the Republican success there last November, is more than suspected; indeed, it was the open use of money in that election which so aroused public sentiment in the State that the Legislature felt compelled to heed it and pass the new law.

We are indebted to Senator Andrews, its author, for an official copy of the law, and find it in many ways the most complete system of election and ballot reform which has yet been adopted in this country. While very similar to the Massachusetts law, it is superior in the thoroughness with which it is made applicable to the entire State. It provides for dividing the State into election precincts of 200 voters each, the number in no case to exceed 250. This avoids all danger of such delay as would deprive electors of their votes in towns of from 400 to 1,500 voters, where precinct divisions have not heretofore been made. There has been some fear of such delay in Massachusetts, when the law shall go into effect there. The Indiana law makes explicit provisions also for the creation of a complete corps of election officials for each county and precinct, every member of which is bound by oath to do his duty under severe penalties for all violations.

In regard to nominations for office, the Indiana provisions are similar to all other adaptations which have been made of the principles of the Australian system. The regular parties certify their nominations through the officers of their nominating conventions or committees. Independent nominations can be made by means of petitions or nomination papers, the signatures of 500 qualified electors being necessary for the nomination to a State office, 200 for member of Congress, 25 for member of the Legislature or officer of a county, and 20 for officer of a township, ward, or other division less than a county. This is a most valuable concession to the rights of independent voters, since it gives them at all times ample power to nominate their own candidates, to have their names printed on the official ballots, and distributed on equal terms with those of the regular parties.

The ballots, which are to be printed and distributed at the public expense, are to be "of uniform size and of the same quality and color of paper, and sufficiently thick that the printing cannot be distinguished from the back." All ballots for State officers, or for candidates for whom all the electors of the State can vote, are to be printed on red-tinted paper; all others on white paper. The candidates of each party are to be grouped under such name, title, or device as its managers may direct, and are to be arranged in columns, each party having a column to itself. In case of the "death, removal, or resignation of any candidate" after the printing of the tickets and before the election, it shall be lawful for the party organization whose candidate he was, to "provide the election board of each precinct with a number of pasters, containing only the name of such candidate, equal to the number of ballots provided; but no pasters shall be given to or received by any one except such election board and such chairman, and it shall be the duty of the polling-clerks to put one of such pasters, in a careful and proper manner, and in the proper place on each ticket before they shall sign their initials thereon."

The provisions relating to the use of exclusively official ballots are very stringent. It is evident that Gov. Hill's fear of abuse in case election officers are required to put their initials upon the ballots, has made no impression upon the Indiana law-makers, for the law requires the poll-clerks to "write their initials, in ink, on the lower left-hand corner of the back of each of said ballots, in their ordinary handwriting, and without any distinguishing mark of any kind"; and no "inspector of election, or judge acting for an inspector, shall deposit any ballot upon which the initials of the poll-clerks do not appear." In preparing his ballot the voter is required to use a stamp which is handed him by the poll-clerk. He can indicate his choice by stamping opposite each name for which he wishes to vote, or by placing a single stamp opposite the title or device of a party, thus signifying that he votes for the whole group. He must prepare his ballot alone in a compartment, must fold it upon leaving the compartment, so as to expose the clerk's initials on the back, and must deposit it so folded. "If any elector shall show his ballot, or any part thereof, to any other person, after the same shall have been marked, so as to disclose any of the candidates voted for, such ballot shall not be deposited in the ballot-box." Only one person shall be permitted in a compartment at one time. Not more than three persons other than the election officers shall be permitted to enter or be in the election-room at one time, and no voter shall hold any conversation or communication with any other person than a member of the Election Board while in the election-room. Any elector who declares that, by reason of physical disability or inability to read the English language, he is unable to mark his ballot, "may declare his choice of candidates to the poll-clerks, who, in the presence of the elector and in the presence of each other, shall prepare the ballots for voting, and, on request, shall read out to such elector the names of the candidates as marked,"

The penalties for violations of the law are all heavy. Any voter who makes a false declaration of inability to mark his ballots can be fined not more than five dollars, and be disfranchised for five years. Any clerk deceiving an elector in marking his ballot can be imprisoned for from two to five years, and disfranchised for any determinate period not less than five years. Wilful neglect or deceit on the part of the official in charge of the printing of the tickets is made a felony, punishable with imprisonment from three to ten years, and disfranchisement for not less than ten years. No electioneering is allowed within fifty feet of a polling-place; no elector shall be allowed to put any mark upon his ballot by which it can be identified as his after being cast; no elector shall show his ballot, after it is marked, in such a way as to reveal its contents or the name of any candidate on it, or shall name any candidate or candidates for whom he has marked his vote. In all these cases the penalty of violation is imprisonment for from six months to a year, and a fine of from $100 to $500, and disfranchisement for not less than ten years.

An excellent provision for the destruction of the ballots after counting has been borrowed from our New York election laws. They are to be "totally consumed by fire" immediately after the counting is completed, with the exception of one, which shall be preserved for record. This requirement has been found of the greatest value in this State in preventing all efforts to go behind the returns and bring on a disputed-election contest.

The new law is to go into effect in June, 1890; that is, the next biennial election in Indiana will be held under it. It will be in force at the next Presidential election, and with its absolute secrecy in the act of voting must inevitably put a check upon the use of "soap" and of "floaters in blocks of five." It will be impossible to follow a bribed voter to the polls to see if he keeps his agreement, and that fact alone will be sufficient to put an end to the greater part of the bribery.

SOOTHING SYRUP FOR CANADA.

A LIBERAL allowance of soothing syrup was poured out to Canada by honorable Senators on the Republican side of the Chamber on Tuesday week. The occasion was a motion made by Senator Payne of Ohio to strike from the list of select committees the one "on Relations with Canada," of which Senator Hoar is Chairman. Mr. Payne argued that since we have a Committee on Foreign Relations, and a Committee on Commerce, and a Committee on Inter-State Commerce, a Committee on Relations with Canada was a superfluity. Nobody really answered Mr. Payne's argument, but the Committee was continued, nevertheless. Mr. Morrill of Vermont, while voting to continue the Committee, hoped "that they would do as little in relation to their supposed duties as possible." The supposed duties were the nursing

of a sentiment favorable to the political union of Canada and the United States. It was Mr. Morrill's opinion that the more you nurse this sentiment the smaller it will grow in Canada, and that if you really want it to increase, you must just leave it alone and let it find its own nursing where it can. His colleague, Senator Edmunds, did not want it to grow anyhow. He did not want to see six new States coming into the Union with "unassimilated elements," even with the assent of the British Parliament and the people of Canada.

Senator Hoar essayed to give the *raison d'être* of this select committee, differentiating its functions from those of the standing committees of the Senate, but without any great logical success. His idea was that this Committee should accumulate a vast deal of information on the subjects of the trade between the two countries, and the political and judicial constitutions of Canada, and the different races and religious denominations of that country. He thought that the interests of his constituency almost required him to give two or three years' study to that one subject, and he would be glad to do so. On the political side of the question under debate Mr. Hoar said:

"It is useless for us to be blind to the fact, and no discretion requires us to be silent in regard to the fact, that there is a large and growing body of men in Canada who desire annexation to this country. Political power is likely to turn and hinge upon that question in the near future in the Dominion of Canada, and upon the question whether the American people desire such an annexation or not. Nobody, of course, proposes to accomplish it without the free and intelligent and instructed will of both countries. It was impossible for the Committee on Foreign Relations, it was impossible for any other general committee of this body, to enter upon, and still more impossible to exhaust, the field of inquiry which this Committee proposes to itself."

Subsequently, Mr. Hoar said that "the question of annexation never entered into his mind in connection with the forming of this Committee."

A glance at the terms of the resolution under which the Committee was constituted shows that any friendly idea whatsoever was far from the mind of the mover (Mr. Hoar), as it was from the minds of the Republican majority in the Senate. The resolution bristles with unfriendly purposes. It first directs attention to the competition of the Canadian railways and canals with our railways and canals, and "the prospect of the displacement of any existing industries of the United States by industries established there." It then calls for a general investigation of any claims we may have against Great Britain by reason of infractions of international law and treaties by her dependencies in North America. That this extra diligence in searching out causes of complaint against Canada was in the nature of ammunition for the Presidential campaign, is made manifest by the altered tone at present prevailing. The terms of the resolution make it clear that Mr. Hoar did not entertain the thought of annexation in connection with the formation of the Committee. His words quoted above show that he does entertain it now, although it may not have shaped itself in any definite way in his mind. Even Senator Frye, the exasperated fisherman, had nothing to say of Canada which need wound the most susceptible spirit. He favored the continuation of the Committee as a means of getting up tables of statistics as good as those which Canada already has.

Senator Sherman was strongly in favor of keeping this Committee on foot, because he believed that the political union of the two countries was their eventual destiny, "unless a state of hostile feeling is aroused between the people of the two countries sufficient to prevent the natural mingling of these two populations under one government." He believed that this was the prevailing idea in the United States all along the border west of Lake Ontario, and, for that matter, north of Lake Ontario too.

Senator Blair of New Hampshire took this latter remark as an implication that New England held views different from those of the rest of the country. Speaking for one New England State only, he wished to say that New Hampshire was in favor of union with Canada whenever Canada was in favor of it. As to the competition of Canadian industries, he wished it to be understood that New Hampshire was not asking for protection. What she wanted was free raw materials. We quote Mr. Blair's words upon this point, because they are quite in harmony with the views so ably presented by ex-President Cleveland in his message to Congress in December, 1888. Said Mr. Blair:

"We need in New England the raw material which is outside of us, and which is more accessible from the British provinces than it is from Pennsylvania, or from Ohio, or from West Virginia. We are in immediate contact with vast stores of the metals and of other raw materials, as well as fish in the sea, that should come to New England for her single prosperity with none of the encumbrances of a tariff or of prolonged transportation, which is equivalent to the same thing."

That will do very well for a speech when there is no tariff bill under discussion, but it would not be safe to count upon Mr. Blair to vote for free coal, or free ores, or free anything when the pinch comes.

The outcome of the debate was that Mr. Payne withdrew his motion to discontinue the Committee. So Mr. Hoar and his colleagues can go on with their work, whatever it is. We may be pretty sure that it will not be alarming to either country. The sun went down on our wrath on the 6th day of November, but it did not rise on the same on the following day.

THE CRISIS IN FRANCE.

M. GAUVAIN, a French publicist of some distinction, has an article with the above title in the last number of the *Political Science Quarterly* which is very interesting as a picture of the present political situation in France, and of the causes of the Boulangist movement. Many others like it have appeared in various periodicals during the past two years. One may be found in almost any number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* from the pen of M. de Mazade.

The French, ever since the days of St. Simon, have been extremely skilful in sketching scenes of moral and political confusion, such as France has so often presented to the world during the past century. M. Gauvain exposes every party and nearly every group in rapid succession, its history, its weaknesses, its perfidy and incapacity. The following description of he Chamber of Deputies, as now composed, is very graphic, but most Americans will wince a little on reading it, and ask themselves whether what he is sketching is really, after all, the French legislature alone, or every democratic legislature everywhere:

"At least nineteen-twentieths of the deputies are absolutely mediocre personages, skilful perhaps in their professions, animated probably by the most honest intentions, but totally ignorant of the affairs of Government, of the real interests of the public, of internal administration and of foreign politics. Their ideas, like those of most uneducated persons about matters of which they know nothing, are preconceived, and are maintained with the obstinacy of ignorance. They have read their history in violent partisan papers, and have picked up their political experience in their clubs or in the cafés. They come into power with no other preparation for public business than the exercise of a private calling, revolving in their heads a multitude of projects which will not stand a moment's scrutiny, but which they believe are destined to regenerate the world. They return to private life just at the moment when they begin to perceive that their reforms are worth little less than what they have destroyed. Enlightened by experience, they would perhaps have grown wiser had they remained in power; but their constituents, electors or colleagues, as the case may be, enlightened also by experience, refuse them further confidence. Their appearance in public life has served only to confuse the situation, and to aggravate the evils which they were sent to remedy. They go to swell the ranks of the disappointed and ambitious, pose as unappreciated statesmen, and devote their energies to obstructing the career of really eminent men whose superiority imperils their own return to power. The recovery of power is their single aim and the supreme motive of their conduct. The most active are the most influential. Intrigue takes the place of talent, *savoir faire* of knowledge, and phrase-making of eloquence. Each Deputy makes himself the broker of his constituents; for, in order to be elected, he has piled up promises. Once chosen, he gives his support to the leader who will furnish him most plentifully with the means of retaining the good graces of his electors; that is to say, of paying them in favors, places, crosses, or pensions. Under this system the credit of cabinets is quickly ruined and the Treasury emptied."

We know all about this sort of representative. We see him every day, but we do not, as the French do, allow him to ruin the Government, or threaten us with revolution whenever he "fails of reëlection" or cannot get his claims recognized by the Executive. We have tied him up in such fashion that his bad temper makes but little impression on us. In other words, we have, by our Federal and State Constitutions, so restricted his power over the Executive, and his power over the citizen, that he is a comparatively harmless person.

No reasonable man can doubt that if our Congress had the power over the Executive possessed by the French Chambers, we should, allowing for difference of traditions and manners, pass through very much the same political experiences as the French. In every session of Congress, groups of "disgruntled" members, irritated by refusals of patronage or want of obsequiousness on the part of heads of departments, would combine to compel the President to provide himself with a new Cabinet, and when their annoyance became

extreme, to compel him to resign himself. We doubt very much indeed whether, under the French Constitution, either Lincoln, or Johnson, or Hayes, or Cleveland would have been allowed to complete his term, or whether a single Cabinet since 1861 would have survived the first year. The French Constitution is an impossible arrangement for a democratic republic, and a very difficult one for a limited monarchy. There is no sign on the horizon that within any measurable period the composition of democratic legislatures will improve. On the contrary, all democracies show a greater and greater disposition to confine the work of legislation to genuine representatives of "the plain people"—that is, men who are in full sympathy with the mass of the voters, but not superior to them in fortune or education. In short, "the average man" is becoming everywhere more and more the ruler of the world, and the average man's equipment for the special work of law-making is very slender indeed.

What does most to make the condition of France seem hopeless is the absence among the more intelligent and patriotic men of all serious and organized attempts to adapt the Constitution to the actual needs of French society as they have been revealed by the experiments of the last twenty years. The press teems with books and articles like this of M. Gauvain's, containing eloquent and vivid descriptions of their country's unhappy plight, and of the crimes and shortcomings of the Radicals; but we look in vain for the suggestion of a definite reform about which the discontented voters can rally. These articles generally end as M. Gauvain ends, by giving us generalities of this sort:

"France longs only for repose, at home and abroad. She is frightfully weary of the harangues of her Deputies and of the agitations of her petty great men. She is searching for the arbiter of her divisions. She may be infatuated with the first adventurer who presents himself, without asking whether he will prove to be a Monk or a Cromwell. She will choose more worthily if a worthier offers himself. The electors of 1889 will be judges of their own cause. Their elected representatives, intrusted with the termination of a complicated crisis, will do well to remember their forerunners of 1789."

Of course there ought to be hundreds of agitators of the better sort in the field now preparing the electors to be "judges of their own cause," and offering them a specific mode of escape from their present difficulties. But there is nothing of the kind. Boulanger is the only man who has a plan, and what it is he refuses to explain clearly until he has been armed with semi-dictatorial powers.

THE CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN.

THE proclamation of the new Constitution of Japan was made in Tokio on the 14th of February with imposing ceremonies and extraordinary pageantry. The national rejoicing, so extensive and hearty, is proof of the anxiety and eagerness with which the classes that form public opinion have awaited this imperial concession. In reality, the action of February 11, 1889, is but the long-delayed fulfilment of the promise made by the newly-inducted boy-Mikado in the castle of Nijo, in Kioto, in 1868, and reaffirmed in the imperial rescript of October 12, 1881. Although a new generation has sprung up and almost completed its majority since the earlier date, it is remarkable that the men still at the head of affairs are mainly those who took part in the famous *coup d'état* of January 3, 1868, which reversed the order of things prevalent during six centuries, and restored the ancient political system. Kido, Okubo, Iwakura, and others have died, some escaping, some falling under the sword, which, worn for a millennium by the Samurai order, could not be sheathed in a day. How unsleeping are the traditions of feudalism and how strong the temptation to private war, was illustrated on the very day of the proclamation granting the Constitution. Arinori Mori, the Minister of Education, who seventeen years ago memorialized the Government for the abolition of the custom of wearing swords, and in favor of freedom of religion, fell under the assassin's knife. That the dastardly act was non-political in its character, and that the present Government is a firm and admirably balanced union of the radical and conservative elements in politics, form most happy auguries for the success of representative government in Japan.

On one point all the leaders of public opinion and members of the Government have been and are strenuously agreed, and that is the inviolability of the Mikado's person and the stability of the throne as the source of honor and power. The traditions of at least fourteen centuries of history, backed by ages of tradition, are to continue uninterrupted. The strongest force in the national life is again, as of old repeatedly, to be utilized in furnishing centre and cen tripetal attraction in the enlarged orbit of Japanese progress. Indeed, it was in the name of his ancestors, and on the day sacred to the reputed founder of the empire and the imperial line of Mikados, now the oldest political dynasty in the world, that Mutsuhito promulgated the new charter.

The Constitution, which combines "imperium et libertas," is not a "subtle organism," but a "work struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man." Its makers have carefully studied the political systems of Germany, Great Britain, France, and the United States, though by no means neglecting their own traditions. It remains for the competent scholar to say how far the instrument accords with the native genius and past procedure, and hence to gauge the probabilities of quick failure or slow success. Of the 332 articles, under the general divisions of the Empire, Law of the Houses, the House of Peers, Law of Election of Members of the House of Representatives, and the Law of Finance, seventeen articles of the first chapter relate to the Emperor. "The empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The throne is to be succeeded to by male descendants. In the list of 123 Mikados, from 660 B. C., ten or eleven have been females, the last Empress reigning from 1763 to 1770. Henceforth, from the time of the first assembling of the Diet, the Emperor will share legislative powers with it, or, when the Diet is not sitting, will issue imperial ordinances in place of law; though even in great emergencies these ordinances are not to conflict with existing law. The executive authority of war, peace, treaties, command of the army and navy, bestowal of amnesty, pardon, titles of nobility, etc., belong to the Emperor.

In chapter ii, which treats of the rights and duties of subjects, we have the points most important in respect to popular liberty. The rights of trial according to law, of liberty of abode and of changing the same, of domicile as against search, of secrecy and inviolability of letters, of property, of religious belief, of freedom of speech, writing, and public meeting are clearly set forth. These rights, in so far as military discipline permits, are also accorded to sailors and soldiers.

The Imperial Diet consists of a House of Peers composed of elective, hereditary, and nominated members, and a House of Representatives chosen in the cities and prefectures by male electors thirty years old and paying $15 yearly tax. The voter must write on his ballot his own name and the name of the person voted for, and minutes of voting at every poll must be kept. The directions for voting are numerous and minute, and apparently most difficulties likely to arise have been provided for. The Diet will be convoked annually and will sit three months. When ordered to dissolve, a new election will be held and convocation take place within five months. One-third of the members present forms a quorum. The House of Representatives will number about 300 members, or one to every 125,000 inhabitants, or about one to every 2,000 possible voters. The deliberations of both houses will be public, and the Ministers have a seat and right to speak on the floor. The present Ministry of State and Privy Council will remain. The administration of justice will be public and in the name of the Emperor, but the courts are to be organized according to law, and the judges are not to be removed except by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. In the law of finance, we find that the expenses of the imperial house are independent of the Diet, except for increase. When the Diet cannot be convoked, in case of urgent need, for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all needful financial measures by means of an imperial ordinance, the latter to be submitted to the Diet at its next session. In other words, the Government can, for a year at least, make itself independent of the Diet, and tide over a disagreement between the legislative and executive bodies. The Diet receives petitions only when written in the form of a prayer. A member, if supported by thirty of his fellows, may question the Government or move an address to the Emperor. No petition to amend the Constitution can come before the Diet.

At the present time in Japan there are 882,517 persons who pay over $10 annually in taxes, of whom 802,895 have the right both of voting and of being elected to the local assemblies in which 2,172 members sit. We calculate that about 600,000 natives will

vote for national representatives. These experiments in local government have been carried on about ten years, and have proved reasonably successful, besides being good training schools. The day of national election is fixed for July 1, annually, and it is highly probable that parties will at once begin to form, the voting lists be made, and the Diet be called to meet in the new buildings already begun in Tokio, by December 1, 1890.

Considering that in its central principle the new Constitution roots itself in all the past of Japan, and that the provisions for popular suffrage are but the expression in the form of ordered law of the claims of the men who, in leading the national movement in 1868, did but embody the desire of centuries, there seems every reason for hope of success.

A PRELIMINARY WALK THROUGH THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

PARIS, February 26, 1889.

I PASSED the morning within the forbidden palisades that hide from the public all the wonders in course of preparation for the Universal Exposition. It was snowing. The thick-falling flakes veiled the gay decorations of plaster of Paris, and besprinkled with treacherous coating the mud pools dotting the Champ de Mars—a discouraging prelude for one who came to catch the vista of a summer fête. As to the general plan of the Exposition, however, there is no danger of the visitor getting confused. He can take in the disposition at a single glance. Turning his back on the Eiffel Towel, he is surrounded with distinctive and well-defined buildings: he has on his left the Beaux-Arts; on his right, the Arts-Libéraux; before him, the principal façade of the galleries assigned to trades and industrial callings, behind which is the Machinery Hall that stretches the entire width of the Champ de Mars. The architect of the principal façade happily inspired himself with souvenirs of the one of 1878. Besides, he has achieved what is always a great difficulty with grouped structures, the affirmation of a central point for the eye to rest upon. A dome, noble without being pompous, forms that centre, and frames well within the arch of the Tower and the axis of the Jena bridge leading to the Trocadéro. Its outer decorations do not betray too flagrantly the ephemeral grandeur; as for the interior, it is an interesting echo of the dome of St. Sophia, Constantinople. Running the anterior length of the principal façade is a portico broad enough to give hospitality to cafés, restaurants, picturesque shops, and the crowd of an exposition. The handsome buildings "Les Beaux-Arts" and "Arts-Libéraux" are alike crowned with cupolas bearing the gilt initials of the French Republic. The roof of each palace is an artistic patchwork composed of 50,000 mosaic tiles of varied forms and colors, exquisitely irregular in arrangement. The chief feature of the Beaux-Arts is a very curious stairway making four revolutions, and ascending under the dome to the circular gallery above. The show piece under the dome of the Arts-Libéraux is a gigantic balloon, forming the centre of the exhibition of the retrospective history of labor.

The Machinery Hall is in communication with the industrial galleries. This edifice has been almost as much talked of in the world of builders as the Eiffel Tower. Each of the piles that support the structure has the importance of the pier of a bridge, and bears the weight of 400,000 kilogrammes. There are twenty of them. The inauguration will take place in this building, which is so spacious that the Palais de l'Industrie in the Champs Élysées could move about in it.

This summary synopsis, not including the department of Agriculture, shows that the classification of exhibits is based on the principle of "groupes sympathiques"; that is, things of a kind contributed by various nations are gathered into one department. This mode of classification has been preconized by M. Berger as having the advantage of avoiding surprises for the visitors. It has another advantage—that of discreetly turning an awkward point by rendering less apparent the *unofficial* presence of the best part of the European nations. Switzerland, Greece, Servia, Monaco, Norway, Denmark, and Morocco alone adhere officially. Egypt had the good intention to do so, but the financial situation of the country was inefficient, and the good-will had to be made valid by private individuals. Germany received the first invitation from France, which Bismarck refused neatly—his refusal, however, being modified by the statement that it was not determined by the date of the Exposition, but by reasons purely economical. Austria very naturally declined official attendance; but the Emperor assured all possible assistance to private enterprises in the monarchy. Signor Crispi explained that Italy's abstention was influenced by no political causes, but by reasons of economy. England's official participation was refused by a diplomatic though significant communication from Lord Salisbury, alleging the date: the Prince of Wales, as a constitutional prince, could not give vent to his sympathies on that occasion. But Great Britain is the land of private initiative, and her flag floats over 12,500 yards in the Champ de Mars. Among the governments that refused official attendance, the Czar and England are the only ones who gave the true reason for so doing. The anniversary of the convocation of the States-General in 1789 recalls a political progress which Russia has no ambition to emulate. Spain, Portugal, Belgium, Holland, Rumania have not, perhaps, that scruple at heart; they followed the example of the great Powers, and declined official participation. The Latin races of South America greeted in the most cordial manner the pacific manifestation. Japanese could not fail to be at the rendezvous. Altogether, there are but four nations missing—Germany, which finds it would not pay; Sweden, too poor; Turkey, preoccupied at home; the Celestials, not yet recovered from the war.

It is interesting to compare the mode of classification of 1889 with that of 1867 and 1878. In 1867, Prince Napoleon was President of the Imperial Commission, and to his imagination was due the ideal form of classification, always the *bête noire* of an exposition, though the outsider does not suspect it. His idea was, to construct a building which transversely would present exhibits classed according to nationality, and longitudinally according to the similarity of species. M. Le Play adopted the idea, and proposed an ovoid form for the building, which was adopted. If unsightly in an artistic point of view, squatting like a gigantic gasometer, the interior disposition was perfect. Each nation was isolated in its section, and the visitor who followed the concentric galleries could pass in review all the objects of one kind without getting too far out of his way. In 1878 the rectilineal form was decided upon, and the buildings were remarkable specimens of the classic architecture of the second half of the nineteenth century; but when the rational classification illustrated in the Exposition of 1867 was attempted in the buildings, the difficulties were found insurmountable. So the rigorous and mathematical classification had to be abandoned; nations were ranged one after another, and comparison between French products and similar ones of other peoples was impossible. Such roundabout promenades were required that the fatigued student or visitor was unable to retain in his memory what he saw.

To compare further the characteristics of the three expositions, it must be remembered that what contributed the original feature of the Exposition of 1867 was the creation of the famous tenth group. The ensemble of every exposition is divided into nine groups: works of art, education, furniture, tissues, extractive industries, metal industries, agriculture (including viticulture and pisciculture), horticulture. The creation of the tenth group, called the Emperor's group, was inspired by a speech of Mr. Gladstone's: "The nineteenth century will be the century of the working people." The object of this addition was to gather all the documents most calculated to better the physical, moral, and intimate surroundings of the laboring classes. This group had a section to itself—the importance of a nation. Strange to say, it was omitted in 1878, when a delegation of workingmen reminded the Republic of the omission. This demonstration compelled the State and the town of Paris to share the expense of an extra building for their accommodation. But the new building was put outside the chief enclosure, and consequently passed almost unnoticed. When preliminary arrangements were made for the Exposition of 1889, delegates from one hundred and four workingmen's unions took steps in time to obviate a repetition of what they considered a slight. They asked of the Municipal Council a subvention to organize on the Champ de Mars an international exposition of the working classes. The sum granted was 5,000 francs—much too meagre for getting up the desired exposition; but it is put aside to serve in 1890, when the workingmen will have their exposition all to themselves.

The exhibition of the "Retrospective History of Labor" takes the place in a measure of the tenth group—a homage to the workingman without the philanthropic element. It simply reviews the gradations of his craft through centuries down to the present time, without reference to social amelioration. The ensemble of this department will be extremely picturesque and full of surprises. There will be seen examples of the first essays in oil-painting; the transition between the different modes of sculpture; the history of the book; the history of the press, transformation of newspapers, etc. The section devoted to traction will be perhaps the most curious—beginning with natural traction, man carrying man; then beast carrying man; traction on water, in the air, on land. Then will be unfolded a complete and thorough history of military art, from primitive strongholds up to modern forts; also, full illustrations of different military manœuvres.

Twelve yards more of the wonderful Tower, the monster that was going to dishonor Paris, and the colossal structure will have reached its full measurement—three hundred metres. Artists and lovers of archæology may be disappointed that their petition against its erection was not heeded by the Government, but science is grateful. Savants from all parts of the world are waiting to be assured of the possibility of attempting in the observatory on the summit experiments long dreamed of. The lifts will not be in place before April. There will be six—one in each pile—ascending to the first platform; two lighter ones will

complete the journey to the cupola, which will be accomplished in seven minutes and cost five francs. With this tariff M. Eiffel expects to cover his expenses. The enterprise cost him between five and six millions of francs, and he has been aided by the State to the extent of 1,500,000 francs taken from the forty-three millions voted for the works of the Exposition. To square his accounts with the State, and later with the city of Paris, M. Eiffel has the benefit of the proceeds of the tower during the Exposition, and the right of use for a period of twenty years after, when it becomes the exclusive property of the city of Paris. Then only, if the future generation has the same æsthetic views as the signers of the petition, and if the then municipal council proves a faithful echo, will the tower be demolished. The remarkable precision in the calculations was commented on at the time the foundations were laid—how the four pier-shafts, each weighing four hundred tons, were constructed piece by piece from the foundry without a single misfit. It seems the work of enchantment, for no débris lies round the giant's legs, and we wonder even how the pieces, ready numbered and awaiting their flight, are to reach the summit. Nothing is lost in the formidable construction. Every scrap—broken pins, screws, riveting nails—is transformed into candlesticks, inkstands, and other articles, to be sold as souvenirs of the Exposition. The director of the "Printemps" (a large dry-goods store) is the purchaser of the rubbish, rivalling Talloy, who retailed the remnants of the old Bastille, and M. Picard, who reduced the ruins of the Tuileries to paper-weights. Speculation sometimes affects a singular form in France. A half-million of pocket-handkerchiefs, stamped with the image of the Tower, are in circulation, worthy a place in future collections of kerchiefs by the side of the same article showing the features of "The Liberator of the Territory."

A perfect village is growing up under the shadow of the Tower. Here are grouped all the pavilions of the South American States, that of Monaco, and of several private corporations, including the pavilion of the press—a dainty bandbox. A special pavilion is devoted to the requirements of infancy. But the main street in that capacious village is the row due to the inventive genius of Ch. Garnier, architect of the Opéra, and the learned collaboration of archæologists. It is nothing short of the retrospective history of Home, beginning with a shapeless block of stone pierced with holes, the dwelling-place of the first sons of Adam, and concluding with the *chic* of modern civilization, illustrated by the luxurious pavilion reserved for President Carnot. There are forty-nine houses in all; each dwelling, in the character of the period and civilization it represents, is surrounded with indigenous flora and fauna, and equipped with accessories common to the life of the epoch and clime. To force the illusion into realism, Jambon, scene-painter-in-ordinary to the Opéra, is busy giving the local color. Altogether, it is in the minute care of details that we find the enticing promise of the fête—such bona-fide work and poetical imagination have been consecrated to an ephemeral vision. I saw on the way to be lifted to the pinnacle of these palaces, which in less than a year will fall under the pickaxe, decorative figures which, were they in marble instead of plaster, might be immortal.

Leaving the gardens of the Champ de Mars, which seem to stretch a hand to the amphitheatre like parterres of the Trocadéro, the visitor will enter the galleries of Agriculture stretching along the Quai d'Orsay, between the Pont de Jéna and the Pont des Invalides—a distance of 30,000 yards—not such a meagre allotment for a branch of industry supposed to be on the decline in France. On his way he will visit in the annexed buildings the exhibitions of navigation, of life-boats, of fisheries, etc., reaching at the end of all the department of French colonies—an Eastern tableau after the manner of Decamps. The visitor has a right to be fatigued after this lengthy promenade. A hundred snow-white Egyptian donkeys, low and convenient, richly caparisoned in red, will serve as palfreys for fatigued dames to span the distances—an æsthetic improvement on the mode of transportation during former expositions, when tired women had to resort to the doleful conveyances known as Bath chairs. But a more rapid transit will be found in a miniature narrow-gauge railroad.

Just opposite, on the other side of the Seine, and in close proximity to the row of M. Garnier's houses, is a panorama intended to produce the illusion of being on board a transatlantic steamer leaving Havre. It is curious to note the mania for panoramas; in face of the uncertainty of covering expenses during a six months' exposition, fifteen applications have been refused. Two canvases only will stand on the grounds, the one just mentioned and *Le Tout Paris* at the furthest extremity of the Esplanade des Invalides. The latter is a kind of album of Parisian personalities met by chance on the boulevards or promenades or grouped in club windows. For that matter, pages might be written, if space allowed, to enumerate all the amusements in preparation for the public. To entice the crowd to the Champ de Mars, a novel idea originated in administrative and financial circles the other day: the issue of two millions of tickets at twenty francs a piece, good for twenty entrances to the grounds. The little operation is not without interest. These tickets, independent of admission, have another value, that of lottery tickets —3,500,000 francs' worth of prizes will be drawn during the six months of the Exposition by the lucky numbers. This is not all. Each ticket-holder will be able to boast, at some time or other, that he entered the Exposition of '89 free, for his twenty francs will be reimbursed during the seventy-five years to come. Some favored ones will get their money back in 1890, and the grandchildren of many will claim the cost of the twenty festive visits their grandparents made to the Universal Exposition of 1889.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

THE IMPERIAL LIBRARY AT ST. PETERSBURG.

ST. PETERSBURG, February 18, 1889.

I RECENTLY read a letter in the *Nation* about the Imperial Library in Berlin, which touched my feelings as a fellow-sufferer, there and in St. Petersburg at another Imperial Library. I once spent half an hour in the Berlin Library. I saw no books; I found that that was out of the question without a certificate from a University professor, the American Minister, or some other person who knew nothing about me. It seemed simpler to step into the other end of the building—the palace—and ask amiable Emperor William I. to be one's surety. So I admired learning as exhibited in five fanciful rapier wounds in one cheek of a student who entered, went round and gazed at three more wounds on his other cheek, and walked away content, merely wondering if the library owned such commonplace implements as dust and scrubbing-brushes. I thought that I should get books enough in St. Petersburg.

There are plenty of books—in fact, about twenty miles of shelves and a million and a half of books (not counting MSS.)—in the Imperial Public Library. They are so numerous that they have quite got the upper hand of the librarians and the public. The librarians are extremely obliging, but the whole system is so radically defective that individual effort can effect but little. There are 300 to 400 visitors a day, on an average—120,000 a year; and the numbers are increasing so fast that the great reading-room must soon be enlarged again. There are a good many crying wants; but the real shrieking, howling want is a catalogue—and a card catalogue at that. At present, there is, practically, none at all. The method of procedure is as follows: at the entrance door the soldier who takes your cloak and shoes gives you a sheet of paper on which he notes the number of your peg. You will not be allowed to reclaim your garments and leave the building unless that paper bears the proper cancelling stamp to show that you have returned all books. On this paper you write your name and the number of your card. This card, by the way, is issued to you on your personal signature with address, and without an appeal to professors, ministers plenipotentiary, or other potentates. Herein this library decidedly scores a point over Berlin. On your paper the attendant at the desk writes the titles of all your books, after you have got them. After you have got them! That's the rub. At the top of the grand staircase, outside the reading-room, on the landing, stand some desks provided with some catalogues, in divisions such as: Russian, Foreign Literature, Dictionaries, and a few more. As it is necessary to go through the alphabet several times, in some of these leaflets, in order to make sure that you have not overlooked your book, the search is sometimes lengthy, and at certain seasons and hours there are more candidates for catalogues than catalogues. If you find your book, you write its name, author, date, number (if given), etc., on a small slip of paper, adding your card number and the date. If you do not find it, and know enough to ask for them, you may have another series of combined leaflets, which are issued from the desk on special application. These consist of a couple of yearly lists of acquisitions (foreign), 1856-57, and of half-yearly lists beginning in 1863 and ending, after some irregularity in issuing, with No. 19, containing the additions for 1882-83. After that date there is a blank.

When your slips are ready, you pass them in at the proper opening of the desk (for periodicals or books), find a seat near at hand if possible, or lounge about and wait for the books. No women are employed about the establishment, and there are no angelic little boys to wait upon one, as at that blessed Boston Public Library. (I used to think those infants imps sometimes; I am now firmly convinced that they were winged cherubim.) No. Each person takes his own books from the desk. As not a single dictionary, encyclopædia, or other reference book can be had otherwise than by the regular official plan, this sometimes means not a little physical as well as mental labor! The paper received from the hall porter must be presented when the books are taken; the title of each is carefully noted. A written or stamped receipt is given, in bulk or as each separate volume is returned.

If the books desired happen to be in the reading-room section, they are delivered promptly. If elsewhere, they can only be had after three P. M., or on the following morning—*provided*, the application is handed in before one o'clock, the ordinary hours being from ten A. M. to nine P. M. If the next day chances to

be a Sunday or holiday, you cannot have the book, although the library is open from twelve to three P. M., but must wait until the first ordinary day. The building is hermetically sealed for a week at the Christmas holidays, about the same length of time at Easter, if I recollect aright, and for several days at another season, when they are "taking account of stock." It is as well not to feel in haste at such seasons; but human nature is contrary, and sometimes one does pine for a book just then.

Certain books are never given out for reading: of course this means in the reading-room. No book is ever given out for home reading—by regulation. Of this and other points hereafter, when the case, so far as the general public is concerned, has been stated. Setting apart books under censure, unique copies, works of a private nature, and works in course of publication in numbers, as aside from the question, the inaccessible section includes "romances, novels, poetical and dramatic works in living tongues." Daily papers and the monthly magazines are given out, however (the latter in temporary bindings), as soon as received. But, although this library, like the National Library in Washington, receives by law *everything* that is printed in Russia, the books do not come directly from the authors; they are forwarded from the Censor's office, and are sometimes days and weeks on the road. The road is not long—about one block. I was informed at the Library that this was owing merely to their allowing matter to collect into heaps convenient for forwarding. It was upon the occasion of my asking for the latest number of a Moscow periodical, and receiving one two months old. With foreign books the process is longer, naturally, as it is everywhere. Time must be allowed for selection, ordering, etc., etc. And I suppose that binderies operate pretty much on the same plan all over this planet, so that I need not discuss that melancholy point as a peculiar feature of this institution. A complaint has recently been made that only 16,000 rubles out of the yearly allowance for the Library of 82,649 rubles are spent on books, and that chiefly on valuable manuscripts, leaving but little for the acquisition of new foreign works.

Novels are not allowed—probably lest the reading-room should be filled with the readers of light literature, who would crowd out others. But novels are published first, in parts, in the monthlies. The result is that people go there early, take every number of the novel monthlies for the year at once, and read at their leisure. At first I tried to wait until these people got tired or hungry, when there was a serious article in one of the numbers which I desired to read. That was before I understood the powers of endurance of the Russian stomach and brain. After trying one of the numerous circulating libraries, paying for fresh periodicals, and getting only one in the course of two months, I tried the plan of going to the Public Library at ten A. M. and asking for four times as much as I could read in a week, in case I might wish for it within a few hours. This, however, is not convenient, and periodicals, which are very dear, cannot be bought in single numbers, but must be taken for a year, six or three months. This is well enough for permanent residents, who have some place to store books.

One morning at ten o'clock I asked for a book. "You can have it after three o'clock this afternoon." "But I neither wish to wait here until three nor to return." "To-morrow, then." "To-morrow is a holiday." "The next day." "But I want it *now!*" We argued the question. I wound up with: "We do these things much better in America." "How?" I gave a brief but vigorous sketch of the American idea of a free public library, and several attendants listened in amazement at the liberty and peremptory ways of readers. I sat down to read, and ten minutes later the unattainable book was softly deposited at my elbow. I was still full of the subject when I met the director of the library on my way down stairs. I forget his numerous distinguished titles: the Most Amiable of Librarians will suffice. "Can I help you in any way to-day?" he asked, as he paused to shake hands. "Yes, please to tell everybody here to give me whatever I want, and when I want it, without waiting until afternoon or the next day." "But no library can do that." Then I favored him also with a brisk American sketch, which included the small boy who is expected to bring the best-hidden book to your hand in ten minutes at latest. "Boys!" he gasped; "they must make a terrible mess." "Not at all; and the advantage of boy runners is, that they are supposed to have wings on their heels. And if they have not, one can scold them better than one can a boy of larger growth." "But we have so few readers, that we cannot serve fast." "I should have argued just the other way," I retorted. The amiable Director admitted that I seemed to be reasonable, on the whole, and gave his orders. One of the first results was, that an attendant in the reading-room suggested my consulting my particular work of that date on the shelf upon the street floor, instead of wasting from twenty minutes to half an hour every time in mounting the stairs myself and having the big volumes brought up. I gladly availed myself of this forbidden privilege, under the eye of the sub-librarian of that department, until I happened one day to encounter the chief librarian, who, to my amazement, treated me as an interloper. A lengthy discussion ended in my going to the door and ordering the soldier to conduct me to "His Excellency" the Director. Making my way through surprised workers in the depths of the building, I reached the sanctum, stated the case, and was sent back with the amiable general order that I was to do just as I pleased. Nevertheless, I always stoutly refused to avail myself of the guardian soldier's invitation to roam among those precious ancient books alone. I confined myself to the librarian's hours of 11:30 to 3.

I relate this incident because it has an important bearing upon another feature of my experience later on. As I have said, the rules allow no books whatever to be taken home. Nevertheless, if one knows a librarian who will take books on his own name, rendering himself responsible for them, one can get plenty and keep them at pleasure. Also, one can refer to foreign belles-lettres, which is otherwise impossible, through the same intermediary. Last summer I was compelled to consult some foreign books. I made a special trip to town. The Director was away; ditto the head librarian; a friend on whom I depended would not arrive before five o'clock, "if at all." The only librarian on hand flatly refused to allow me a sight of the books: "It was against the rule; he did not know where they were; it was not in his department, and etiquette forbade his touching anything which did not belong strictly to him; and—he did not know who I might be"; "he remembered no orders about me." "These soldiers and others down stairs and the attendants in the reading-room all know me," I said. "I have lost my breakfast, and now you ask me to wait three hours and a half, on the chance of Mr. X. coming, travel back another thirty versts, and lose my dinner, perhaps in vain!" He was not in the least moved, but I was beginning to be, when the librarian with whom I had had the long dispute about the books on the shelf, and who had afterwards been almost oppressively kind, made his appearance on the stairs. He promptly suppressed my enemy, who was then willing to relax, carried me off, invaded another man's department in spite of etiquette, and gave me so much that I was afraid that I should lose my train through too much attention, instead of through too little.

This will serve to show that the people at the Imperial Public Library mean to be kind, but that they do not know how. The building is magnificent, and full of treasures. A stroll through its departments with the special librarians is a rare treat—for instance, an explanatory trip through the rooms where the old parchments and sheepskins are kept, with Dr. Abraham Harkavy, the Hebrew scholar, who is as agreeable as he is learned, to explain how he proved the forged character of those documents which had cost so dear, not to mention other departments and librarians. That is the exhibition side of the institution, and the learned side. As such, it is eminently satisfactory. But the lack of a promptly accessible reference collection and of any catalogue renders the working side of the institution a kind of lottery, which inspires one with a sort of dread. One does not feel like wasting time in "tackling" it often, on the chance. As I pass the fine building on chilly days, and glance up at the long row of ancient philosophers (in bronze) which decorates the front, I find myself involuntarily addressing them in familiar terms: "Poor fellows! They have done the best they knew how by you, even if it is rather a cold post; but then we moderns inside are almost as much 'out in the cold' as you are in your niches outside!"

Such is one of the results of living in Boston, where books almost walk about the streets begging to be read, like the little pig with his knife and fork crying, "Come, eat me!" Were I a New Yorker, I should be far less spoiled and critical in the matter of libraries.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

THE SEVIGNES IN PROVENCE.

PARIS, March 7, 1889.

WHENEVER I see the name of Mme. de Sévigné on the title-page of a new book, I cannot help reading it. I am sometimes rewarded—for instance, in the case of M. Gaston Boissier's recent notice. The Marquis de Saporta gives us now a volume entitled 'The Family of Mme. de Sévigné in Provence, from inedited documents.' The Saportas are an old family of Provence; and the daughter of Mme. de Sévigné, Mme. de Grignan, spent the greater part of her life in that province. The volume has two portraits, one of Mme. de Sévigné, from a picture made by Mignard for Mme. de Grignan, left by Mme. de Simiane (the daughter of the last named) to her own daughter, Mme. de Vence, and now in possession of the Countess de Lucay (born De Vence); the other is the portrait of Mme. de Simiane, very stern-looking, somewhat in the style of an old Mme. de Maintenon, in black clothes and a widow's cap, with her grandchild Julie de Vence.

The new volume, which bears every mark of great inexperience in the art of classifying and developing a subject, but which is nevertheless interesting, begins with a long dissertation on the iconography of Mme. de Sévigné. The author, after interminable explanations, concludes that there are only four authentic paint-

ed portraits of Mme. de Sévigné. His explanations are very confused, and his conclusions do not seem to me to be perfectly sure. I will say, in passing, that it is generally easier to find a real resemblance in engravings of the time than in paintings, for the engravings are made either from special drawings or from the best paintings, while the paintings are often retouched and spoiled, besides not seldom being bad likenesses from the beginning.

M. de Grignan had not an easy task in Provence during the last ten years of the life of Mme. de Sévigné. He was very prodigal, and we know that his mother-in-law tried in vain to moderate his expenses. Some of his expenses were compulsory: he often had to entertain as governor important personages. His political difficulties were great also. He was obliged to execute the orders of Louis XIV. in Avignon and in the principality of Orange; he found himself in antagonism at the same moment with the Pope and with the Protestants of Orange. It became also his duty to execute the edict which revoked the famous Edict of Nantes, as there were in Provence, chiefly in the mountainous part of the region, nearly eight thousand Protestants.

Mme. de Sévigné was at Grignan in 1694; her grandson, the Marquis de Grignan (whose life has been the subject of a volume by M. Frédéric Masson), was married to the daughter of a rich financier, Arnaud de St.-Amans, who brought him a dowry of 400,000 francs, a very large sum for the time. Mme. de Sévigné gives a very pretty account of the marriage ceremonies to Coulanges. Mme. de Grignan, her daughter, in speaking of this marriage of her son, is said to have exclaimed: "You must have manure on the best soil." A second marriage followed soon: Pauline, the beloved granddaughter of Mme. de Sévigné, was married on the 2d of September, 1695, to Louis de Simiane, Marquis of Esparron, first gentleman of the Duke of Orleans (who was afterwards Regent). Only a few months later, on the 17th of April, 1696, Mme. de Sévigné died at the Château de Grignan. Her remains were kept there, in the family vault, till 1793, when the castle was partly demolished and all the tombs were emptied.

The death of Mme. de Sévigné became the signal for all sorts of troubles and misfortunes. The young Marquis de Grignan, who commanded a brigade of cavalry at Höchstädt, died during the disastrous retreat which followed this defeat, at Thionville on the 10th of October, 1704. The poor mother was literally crushed by his death, and she succumbed on the 16th of August, 1705, to an attack of smallpox at Mazargues, near Marseilles. The Comte de Grignan remained alone with Mme. de Simiane, and continued to accomplish all the duties of his post with activity and firmness. He took a very essential part in the defence of Toulon, which was besieged in the year 1707 by the imperial troops, the troops of the Duke of Savoy, and by an English fleet. The allies intended, if they could take Toulon, to land an army which was to join the Protestant rebels of the Cevennes. Villars had been sent against the insurgents. He had contrived to divide the Camisards, and to conclude a sort of treaty with Cavalier, their most important chief. Cavalier had received a brevet of colonel with permission to organize Protestant regiments on the model of other foreign regiments which served in France. He went to Geneva, then passed into Piedmont, and thence crossed to Catalonia, where he fought at the battle of Almansa (April, 1707). He left Spain to take his place in the Austro-Piedmontese army which was on the point of invading Provence, hoping to make his appearance again in the Cevennes and to raise a rebellion.

M. de Grignan, as we have said, showed much prudence and activity in the preparations which he made against the invaders: he opened the eyes of his Government to the peril of Toulon, he visited the place, organized the militia, and, at the end of the campaign, had the satisfaction of seeing the Duke of Savoy obliged to raise the siege and to leave with his army for Piedmont. He remained, so to speak, in the saddle to the end, travelling constantly from Marseilles to Grignan, from Grignan to Aix or to Lambesc, which was the seat of the Assembly that took the place in Provence of the former States. It was at Lambesc that he died suddenly, in an inn, on the night of December 30–31, 1714. He was eighty-five years old, and had governed Provence for forty-five years. He left the highest reputation for integrity, vigilance, and moderation. His daughter, Mme. de Simiane, found the affairs of her father in the greatest confusion, and made it the object of her life to pay his debts. Her husband, the Marquis de Simiane, first gentleman of the Duke of Orleans, was appointed Lieutenant-General of the King in Provence, in place of his father-in-law. The Simianes left Paris and the Court, where they were much liked, and settled completely in Provence.

One of the most interesting parts of M. de Saporta's book is the history of the relations between Mme. de Simiane and the Chevalier Perrin, who became the editors of the letters of Mme. de Sévigné. The first edition appeared at Troyes in 1725. It is very rare, and I have never seen it. Some of Mme. de Sévigné's letters had appeared already in the Memoirs of Roger de Rabutin, Comte de Bussy, her cousin (Paris, 1696), and in the collection of his letters, which appeared in the same year, and in 1709; but these were merely the letters addressed to Bussy. Mme. de Simiane had copies made of many of her mother's letters to Bussy and to his son, the abbé, who afterwards became bishop; and these copies reached through several hands the Troyes editor and the editors of the more complete editions which appeared in 1726. There are several of these, one with a preface by Bussy, Bishop of Luçon, and notes by Thiriot, without any indication of place; another appeared at The Hague in 1796; another at Rouen. An edition was printed in 1728, almost identical with the edition of Rouen of 1726; but the editions of 1726 have two volumes, the edition of 1728 has a third volume. All these details are amply given in Hachette's fine edition of Mme. de Sévigné.

What interests us is to know that all these editions were the result of indiscretions, and made Mme. de Simiane very unhappy, as allusions were often made to people who were still alive, or who were the friends of the Grignans. Mme. de Simiane tried in vain to have the editions of 1726 suppressed; as she found it impossible, she thought it best to have an edition of her mother's letters made under the supervision of a friend. The Chevalier de Perrin offered his services. Who was he? The son of Louis Perrin, a merchant who had ennobled himself by buying an office of secretary of the King. Denis Marius Perrin was one of nineteen children; he was called the Chevalier, as he had obtained the cross of St. Louis in the army. He was a literary man and a man of the world. He was fifty years old when he began the edition which has preserved his name, and which has for a long time been the classical edition of Mme. de Sévigné (four volumes, published in 1734). We know now that the Chevalier softened, suppressed, and altered some passages of the letters. We know also too well that Mme. de Simiane, who lived in Provence, destroyed almost all the letters of Mme. de Grignan to her mother, and we can only guess at their contents by the answers to them. Mme. de Grignan had a sarcastic turn of mind, and if her letters had been published, the good people of Provence would probably have taken much offence at many of her remarks. Mme. de Simiane had so many scruples that she destroyed also the originals of the letters of her grandmother, and as the Perrin publication drew to an end, she became more alarmed, till finally she tried to stop the publication. Perrin resisted, and said it was too late. Perrin formally disobeyed the orders of Mme. de Simiane when in 1737 he added two volumes to the four volumes published in 1735. His disobedience caused her much annoyance, and was the beginning of a long quarrel, the details of which are minutely related by M. de Saporta.

I have not said much of Mme. de Simiane herself—she is well known. She had resigned herself to her provincial life, had left the Château de Grignan, and was finally obliged to sell it. She lived in the neighborhood at the Château de la Garde, near Grignan, inherited from an uncle. She had three daughters: one, the eldest, entered a convent; the second married in 1723 the Marquis de Vence; the third was married in 1725 to Jean-Baptiste de Castellane Marquis of Esparron. The Vences and the Castellanes were among the first families of Provence. Afterwards, Mme. de Simiane resided at Aix, where she bought a house, which still exists, and where her apartments may be seen. She took much pleasure in adorning it, and employed for the painting of some panels Joseph Vernet, who was then unknown. She did not enjoy long her new home, and died at the age of sixty-three years.

The Chevalier de Perrin could now do as he pleased with Mme. de Sévigné's letters. M. de Saporta gives some details on the end of this personage. He went to Paris, surrounded by the halo of Mme. de Sévigné's letters. He became a sort of diner-out, was attached as secretary to the Marshal of Belle-Isle, and accompanied him to Provence during the invasion of the Austrians, which was a sort of repetition of the invasion of 1707, and which resulted as disastrously for the allied forces. Perrin ended his days happily, in the brilliant society of Paris, and died of indigestion at the age of seventy on the 7th of February, 1754.

Correspondence.

SHOULD CREDIT BE PAID FOR?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Judge Brewer, in his recent decision refusing an injunction to certain railway companies against the Railway Commissioners of the State of Iowa (on the ground, substantially, that the new schedule of rates established by the Commissioners has not yet been shown to be unreasonable), quotes as applicable to the case the language used by Mr. Justice Woods in another case, where railroad commissioners had asserted "that their schedule was framed to produce 8 per cent. income on the value of the road, after paying cost of maintenance and running expenses."

Assuming, therefore, for the purpose of argument only, that 8 per cent. is a reasonable return upon railroad property, it follows that for a railway system in the State of Iowa which would to-day cost one hundred million dollars, the owners ought to be allowed to re-

ceive, if they could command the skill to earn it, the sum of eight million dollars annually, or dividends of eight dollars a share on a million shares of one hundred dollars each. But suppose that these stockholders, being willing to increase their risk for the chance of greater gain, mortgage their whole railway system to more timid capitalists than themselves for fifty million dollars at 4 per cent., and use the money to pay back one-half of their own capital stock. They could now in prosperous years make annual dividends of 10 per cent. on their remaining half million of shares, thus gaining for themselves, by the use of their own credit, a million dollars a year, while saving another million to the people of Iowa. Ought the people of Iowa to object to the second method of providing capital because it gives the stockholders too large a dividend? Can they reasonably expect stockholders, without hope of profit, to assume great risks for their benefit?

That the risks taken by railway stockholders whose property is mortgaged are very serious, is a fact now apparent to everybody. Many poor New England people, and a few rich ones, who subscribed less than two years ago for new shares of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé railroad at par, in the hope of assured dividends, are having to day a bitter experience of the burden of fixed charges, which now leave no income for their shares, and have already, so far as they are concerned, swept away a large part of the capital they so lately paid in.

E. W. H.

Cambridge, Mass., March 12, 1889.

OUR HISTORICAL TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think the historical recurrence to the origin of our tariff legislation by the President in his inaugural address, in order to justify our present tariff, is rather an unfortunate one.

"Commercial emancipation," says the address, "had to be added to the political freedom so bravely won. The commercial policy of the mother country had not relaxed any of its hard and oppressive features. To hold in check the development of our commercial marine, to prevent or retard the establishment and growth of manufactures in the States, and so to secure the American market for their shops, and the carrying trade for their ships, was the policy of European statesmen, and was pursued with the most selfish vigor. Petitions poured in upon Congress urging the imposition of discriminating duties that should encourage the production of needed things at home. The patriotism of the people, which no longer found a field of exercise in war, was energetically directed to the duty of equipping the young Republic for the defence of its independence by making its people self-dependent. Societies for the promotion of home manufactures and for encouraging the use of domestics in the dress of the people were organized in many of the States. The revival at the end of the century of the same patriotic interest in the preservation and development of domestic industries, and the defence of our working people against injurious foreign competition, is an incident worthy of attention. *It is not a departure, but a return, that we have witnessed.*"

Now, it seems to be very clear, from the President's own statements at the beginning of this passage, that the tariff law enacted July 4, 1789 (which, it may be remarked in passing, levied an average duty equivalent to an ad valorem of 8½ per cent. only), was passed to counteract *the hard and oppressive features of the policy of the mother country.* Now for more than forty years these measures, so injurious to us, have all been repealed or greatly modified. Duties are levied on but few articles, and we have an open market for all our breadstuffs, cotton, and nearly everything else we produce or manufacture. England has not obstructed our carrying trade, which is kept down by no country but our own, by absurd legislation.

It is an old maxim in the law that when the reason for a law ceases, the law itself ceases. If the President had argued as a lawyer, he would have had to state that, the mother country having ceased to oppress us, our tariff ought consequently to be modified accordingly. Instead of that we meet with the assertion: *Our tariff is not a departure, but a return (to the policy of 1789) that we have witnessed.*

G. K.

Belleville, Ill., March 14, 1889.

A GREEK EXAMPLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: No one that has any interest in the affairs of contemporary Greece needs to be told that return to specie payments, and not the disposal of an accumulating surplus, is the engrossing problem of its national finance to-day. In view of this, the liberality of most of its recent legislation bearing on trade, ship-owning under the Greek flag, manufactures, etc., is remarkable. Indeed, its results are already so gratifying that we may well stop to consider whether the commercial intelligence of the Greeks is not proving itself very much more alert than our own.

A fresh illustration of its working is under my eye in a report, given by the Athens Ακρόπολις for January 26, of a tariff debate in the Greek Assembly during its session of the day before. Mr. Tricoupis, the Prime Minister, spoke at length in defence of a projected reduction in the duties on lumber. He observed: "It is in the interest of Greece that raw lumber should be imported, in order that the cutting down of our forests may be in a measure checked; as now conducted by us it results in their destruction. Therefore there is need of a reduction of from 35 to 38 per cent. in the duty, which is the more imperative if the loss of material by sawing and squaring is taken into account." After this and one other explanation from the Prime Minister, the tariff-revision bill was passed at its third reading.

Yours sincerely, Alfred Emerson.

Lake Forest University, March 11, 1889.

A SPUR TO LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Public interest in the electoral-reform measure known as the Saxton bill does not make itself felt as much as it should do in order to convince our legislators that it is really desired by the people. There is no doubt that an immense majority desires its enactment, but it is so difficult to get an expression of this wish that the politicians conclude that it is not really desired, while the legislators having the people's interest at heart are discouraged because they find so little popular support. If this popular desire could be focussed upon our legislators at Albany from all parts of the State, I am confident that they would respect it, and grant the people's wish.

A very simple and effective way to accomplish this result, and one to which anybody can "lend a hand," was brought to my attention only the other day. Four gentlemen of different political views, but who heartily desire the enactment of the Saxton bill, formed a little club, and pledged themselves to speak to every one of their acquaintance regarding it. They subscribed an insignificant sum, and purchased postal cards, and one of their number printed them with the following blank form on the hektograph:

New York,.....1889.

Hon.....
Assembly Chamber.

Dear Sir:

I am heartily in favor of the electoral-reform measure known as the Saxton bill, and trust that you will use your influence to secure its enactment.

Respectfully,
(Name of signer) .....
(Residence of same) .....

If the man spoken to was in favor of the reform, he was to be asked to fill out a card and forward it to the Assemblyman from his district.

This is a very simple and practicable method for exerting a powerful influence for good, and I am informed that these gentlemen are very much encouraged by their success in securing signatures. Will not others try it, and "lend a hand" to this good work?

Respectfully, Wm. S. M. Silber.

New York, 2111 Fifth Ave., March 18, 1889.

THE POWER OF STATE LEGISLATURES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The evident care with which Professor Bryce prepared his great work upon the 'American Commonwealth' has not precluded an error which, in my opinion, is a very serious one. In discussing the powers of the various departments of our State governments, he declares that the Legislature of a State is as potent as the Parliament of Great Britain, and may enact any law whatsoever, however unjust or iniquitous, provided such law is not expressly prohibited by the Constitution of the State or United States, or does not involve an assumption of the authority delegated to the coördinate departments of government.

I am aware that very eminent judges have asserted and sanctioned this doctrine, but I believe it to be repugnant to the spirit of our institutions, and contrary to the prevailing opinions and judgments of the great jurists of the country.

"I cannot subscribe to the omnipotence of a State Legislature, or to the doctrine that it is absolute and without control, although its authority should not be expressly restrained by the Constitution or fundamental law. . . . There are certain vital principles in our free governments which will overrule a flagrant abuse of legislative power, as to authorize manifest injustice by positive law, or take away that security for personal liberty or private property for the protection whereof the government was established" (Chief-Justice Jay, 3 Dall., 386).

"It may well be doubted whether the nature of society and government does not prescribe some limits to the legislative power. . . . How far the power of governing may involve every other power, in cases where the Constitution is silent, never has been, and perhaps never can be, definitely stated. The validity of an act [revoking a grant of land] might, then, well be questioned without regard to the Constitution" (C.-J. Marshall, 6 Cranch, 135).

Justice Story invokes the "great and fundamental principles of Republican government," the "common sense of mankind," the "maxims of eternal justice," the "principles of natural justice," the "spirit of the Constitution"; and upon such authority avoids an unjust law in 9 Cranch 43, and 2 Peters, 627. Mr. Webster, of counsel in the last case, based his argument chiefly on the fundamental principles which received the sanction of the Court, and Mr. Wirt, his adversary, did not dare to question their authority.

"The theory of our governments, State and national, is opposed to the deposit of unlimited power anywhere. There are limits on the legislative power which grow out of the essential nature of all free governments, implied reservations of individual rights, without which the social compact could not exist. A government which recognizes no such rights, which holds the lives, liberties, and property of its citizens at all times in the absolute disposition and un-

limited control of even the most democratic depositary of power, is but a despotism" (Justice Miller, 20 Wall, 655).

"That absolute, despotic power which, it is said, must in all governments reside somewhere, and which is exercised by the British Parliament, was, by the people, in the formation of our Government, carefully retained" (1 Aiken, Vt., 121).

"The security of life, liberty, and property lies at the foundation of the social compact. The Legislature has therefore no power to defeat one of the greatest ends for which government was established" (4 Hill N. Y., 143; 4 Barb. N. Y., 64).

"It is not pretended that we have any express constitutional provision upon the subject; nor have we any for numerous other rights dear alike to freedom and justice" (Judge Kent, 7 John N. Y., 489).

"It is conceded that there are certain limitations on the taxing power not prescribed in the express words of the Constitution, but inherent in the subject itself, which are as inflexible and absolute in their restraints as if directly imposed in the most positive form" (Judge Cooley, 20 Mich., 473).

"Natural rights are higher than law" (1 N. H., 199).

"It is fortunate for the rights of the people when a case occurs which causes the courts to pause and retrace the boundaries of delegated power. . . . A law plainly, palpably, rankly, ruinously unjust, is against the Bill of Rights" (Judge Agnew, 82 Pa. St., 365).

"The right of private property is an original, fundamental right existing anterior to the formation of the Government. Independent of constitutional declarations, a law invading a private right, or impairing the obligation of a contract, would be a violation of one of the great primary objects for which governments are instituted, and a usurpation of power" (1 Ohio St., 631).

I engage to furnish a hundred similar cases, wherein limitations have been imposed upon the legislative power which have not been provided by any constitutional declaration. The doctrine underlying them is as old as the Government, and survives to this day in all its original vigor. It was formally declared nearly one hundred years ago (1798), and was the basis upon which counsel for the corporation of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints founded their recent argument before the Supreme Court of the United States. It involves the principle which controlled the Court in the case of the people of New York vs. O'Brien.—Yours truly,

ISAAC H. LIONBERGER.

ST. LOUIS, March 13, 1889.

Notes.

WE learn that Dr. Woodrow Wilson, whose 'Congressional Government' met with such a favorable reception, will soon have ready for publication a more extensive and serious study of governmental functions, entitled 'The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics.' This work has been in hand for several years, and is now finished. It will contain about 550 pages, 12mo.

A 'History of West Virginia,' from 1732 to the present time, has been written by Prof. Virgil A. Lewis of Mason City, Mason County, West Virginia. Only a limited number of copies will be published, and they will be sold by the author. Prof. Lewis has carefully examined all authentic records of the State, the archives at Richmond, and those at county-seats—in all, nearly one hundred. The first part of the book treats of the first permanent settlement in the Shenandoah Valley, and comes down to the Revolutionary War. Part second covers the ground between the Revolution and the Civil War, and part third brings the narrative down to the present time.

Mr. Cabot Lodge's 'George Washington,' in the American Statesmen Series of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., will be ready, in two volumes, before the inauguration festivities next month. The same firm publish directly 'A White Umbrella in Mexico,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with the author's illustrations; and Prof. A. S. Hardy's 'Passe Rose.'

Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly bring out 'The Pretty Sister of José,' a Spanish story by Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett. Scribner & Welford will be the American publishers of a new and enlarged edition of Sir Spenser St. John's 'Hayti; or, the Black Republic'; a new and cheaper edition of F. H. Guillemard's 'Cruise of the Yacht *Marchesa* to Kamtchatka and New Guinea'; 'The Alps,' by Prof. F. Umlauft; and 'Iris,' a volume of essays on colors and flowers by Prof. Delitzsch.

Longmans, Green & Co. have in press a selection from Mr. Andrew Lang's social and literary articles in the London *Daily News*, under the punning title, "Lost Leaders."

'Footprints of Travel; or, Journeyings in Many Lands,' by M. M. Ballou, is announced for immediate publication by Ginn & Co., Boston.

Mr. Thomas S. Townsend awaits the necessary support in preliminary orders for publishing through the Messrs. Putnam a work entitled 'The Honors of the Empire State in the War of the Rebellion,' an octavo volume of about 225 pages. Subscriptions are payable to Mr. Samuel O. Fields, Columbia College Library.

The fourth volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell & Co.) is devoted to the fourteenth century, and contains the usual elaborate accounts, each of which is practically a scholastic monograph, of the more prominent authors. Another volume will be necessary to complete the story of the century. The leading topics here are the 'Romaunt of the Rose,' Petrarch and Boccaccio, Miracle Plays, Gower, Maundeville, and Langland. We have already noticed the great value as a convenient reference book of this encyclopædic work, the fruit of a lifetime's learned acquaintance with our literature.

The school and students' editions of Bierbaum's 'English Literature' (B. Westermann & Co.) are at hand, but a teacher must be German-mad to put so dry and barren a compilation of dates, titles, and facts into the hands of the young with any hope of helpful knowledge resulting. Apart from objection to the plan of the work, the matter itself lacks discretion in criticism and lags behind our present knowledge. In details there are several material errors, particularly in biography. It would be interesting to know whence the author derived his quoted criticism, such as the statement that Milton's 'Samson Agonistes' is "neither impassioned nor strong in character, nor poetical in its lyrical parts." He decides that Milton "cannot be considered a true-born poet touched with the heavenly flame." He says that 'Comus' was "founded on an actual occurrence," and the error is of a sort to throw light on his superficial acquaintance with the subject he treats. Under the metaphysical poets he includes Suckling and Lovelace, but does not mention Donne, the greatest of them, for whom we have to look in four or five lines of fine print under Miscellaneous. The American section is capricious, though an effort has been made to have it full, since it includes Mrs. Whitney and Charles Egbert Craddock; but it is indiscriminating. As a whole, the work bears every mark of being a second-hand compilation, in which literary and historical perspective has entirely disappeared.

Dr. C. W. Cutler's 'Essentials of Physics and Chemistry,' written especially for the use of students in medicine (Putnams), is by no means without merit, and certainly contains a great deal which is valuable and which a student of medicine must know. It would be easy to find fault with it, and to point out defects both of definition and of statement. These, however, are seldom misleading. The chemical is better than the physical portion of the work; yet it is disheartening to read the chapter on animal chemistry, which takes up only three pages of a work intended for students of medicine, when we consider what has been done in animal chemistry and what ought now to be required of a well-educated physician. Dr. Cutler's book will doubtless be useful to a certain class of students, but all such compends are wrong in principle, and tend to encourage superficial knowledge.

Mr. J. Scott Keltie's 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1889 (Macmillan) is prompt in appearing, and requires no introduction to our readers in this its twenty-sixth year. The two heads of our present Administration are named side by side with the outgoing President, but by an odd typographical blunder Mr. Harrison is "elected reporter of the Supreme Court of Morana [Indiana]," and an editorial lapse in the same paragraph bestows on him a political honor not enjoyed—"Governor of Indiana, 1880." In the table of Presidents, Mr. Harrison is assigned in the column "from State" to his birthplace, Ohio; but this introduces an inconsistency into the table, the elder Harrison being also assigned to Ohio, Cleveland to New York, Grant and Lincoln to Illinois, Arthur to New York, etc.—by virtue of residence and not of birth. To the books of reference on this country Mr. Keltie has added Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.'

When Sydney Smith explained the Englishman's reticence as not being because he did not know how to speak, but because he had nothing to say, he illustrated the most serious and permanent difficulty encountered in the literary training of the young. With sufficient pains, almost any child can be taught to write correctly, but his powers of expression will be limited by his natural endowment of brains and capacity for reflection. It would be hard to say whether the teaching of science or of English as a preparation for college presents the more serious problem. The latter has been the chief concern during the past year of that useful body, the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, of which the second annual report (1887-88) is before us, and may be had of the Secretary, Prof. W. C. Poland, 7 Cooke Street, Providence, R. I. The college instructors in English have been brought together in conference and counsel with the heads of preparatory schools, and the result is a more stable list of requirements, of which those for 1889-92 are published in the report. How far the works prescribed to be studied shall be trusted to have had, from simple perusal, their effect on the youth's culture, and how far they must be treated and enforced (and loathed) as text-books, is one of the points in debate. The report deserves wide attention.

We have received the 'First Annual Report of the Board of Trustees, New Jersey Industrial Education, City of Hoboken.' The first movement towards manual training, of which the present Board and system are the outcome, was begun in 1885, with the favor of Gov. McClellan, and received for three years help from both State and city. There are now 1,450 pupils in the public schools profiting by it. The report states the nature of the instruction in the several branches, from plain sewing to mechanical drawing, wood-carving, and clay-

modelling. The result seems to be eminently encouraging.

An exceptionally good piece of work in local church history is that performed for the First Congregational Society of New Bedford, Mass., by its pastor for thirty years, the Rev. William James Potter. "Its History as Illustrative of Ecclesiastical Evolution" is the sub-title of the monograph, and is well justified. The original town of Dartmouth was in Plymouth Colony, and a large majority of the settlers were Quakers and Baptists—sects then having a much closer affinity than nowadays. These successfully resisted the efforts of their own, and afterwards of the Bay, Government to establish a church and a minister, and in the last resort of the authorities to coercion they triumphantly appealed to England. Mr. Potter's researches led him further than he at first intended for a memorial discourse, and he has produced a valuable contribution to Massachusetts history. His style is genial, and free from any trace of either bigotry or dulness.

The February and March numbers of the *Studio* are full and lively as regards the text, and abound in many interesting illustrations, of which we will mention the two copies of Rembrandt portraits loaned by Mr. Henry Havemeyer to the Metropolitan Museum, and Mr. Edward Kemeys's masterly design of the American panther and her cubs. We unite with Mr. Cook in his hope that the endeavor to have this work cast in bronze for the Central Park will succeed. We agree also with the editor's strictures on the refusal of the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum to open the building on Sundays at the cost of Mr. Walters of Baltimore, in accordance with his generous offer.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for February contains the conclusion of an account, by Dr. C. Diener, of the fourth journey of Gen. Przevalsky in Central Asia, with an admirable map, on which are noted the routes of Carey, Younghusband, and other recent travellers in this region. Dr. O. Baumann, a member of the unfortunate expedition of Meyer in East Africa, describes Usambara, that part of the German possessions lying opposite Zanzibar on the main land, and the principal theatre of the recent hostilities. He concludes that, while it is a beautiful and promising country, to dream of settling it with German colonists is utopian, on account of the climate. Plantations, however, can be cultivated profitably with negro laborers. The great obstacle to the peaceful settlement of the land is the hostility of the Wakilindi, the ruling race of the three which dwell in this region, who are Mohammedans and thoroughly sympathize with the Arabs.

The Euphrates Valley Railway is the subject of a paper by M. A. Dumont in the last *Bulletin* of the Paris Société de Géographie, in which he urgently advocates the route from Constantinople to Alexandretta, and thence by Aleppo and Bagdad to Bassorah on the Persian Gulf. This is followed by an interesting sketch of the island of Réunion, off the coast of Madagascar, by M. Ad. Blondel. The method of the construction of the artificial harbor at the Pointe des Galets is described, as well as the railway which now nearly surrounds the island. The manufacture of sugar, which was formerly the staple industry, is nearly ruined from various causes, the product having fallen off from 60,000 tons in 1867 to 39,000 in 1886, so that it is seriously proposed to abandon the cultivation of the cane for that of tea, tapioca, tobacco, and the geranium, and for the manufacture of rum and perfumes. M. Al. Piat advocates the construction of a naval and commercial port at Cabourg, not far from Havre, the chief feature of which is an internal basin more defensible than Havre or Cherbourg. This proposition has excited some interest in the French Chamber of Deputies and in commercial circles.

Le Fifre, a new satirical weekly paper, made its first appearance in Paris on the 23d of February. It is a handsome sheet of four pages, containing two large drawings by M. J.-L. Forain, the well-known realist-impressionist painter. M. Forain, in fact, will be the paper, since he is its owner and publisher as well as its editor and sole contributor with pen and pencil. It may be expected to be very clever, very keen, very Parisian, and very modern. In his first number M. Forain merely makes his bow to the public, being presented by his friends, M. Richepin and M. Aurélien Scholl.

As was generally expected, M. Berthelot has succeeded M. Pasteur as Perpetual Secretary of the Physical Sciences at the Institute. He received 47 votes out of 55, the others being 3 blank, 2 for M. Milne-Edwards, and 1 each for MM. Daubrée and Bouchard. M. Pasteur has been appointed Perpetual Honorary Secretary by the Academy.

Some obituary praise of the late H. Gagnière for his modesty and love of work rouses the *Revue Critique* to unwonted warmth. It asserts that M. Gagnière was a simple plagiary, who gave as the fruit of his own labor what he found in foreign books of which the French public has generally no knowledge. His book on Mary Caroline, which he asserted was based on unpublished documents preserved in the British Museum, "contains not one unpublished line." It was constructed wholly out of Palumbo's 'Maria Carolina, regina delle due Sicilie, suo carteggio con Lady Emma Hamilton,' and of some letters printed in Nelson's correspondence. In 1888 he published "Les Confessions d'une abbesse du XVIe siècle," with a statement that it was taken from a manuscript in the Ravenna library, when he had never even seen a Ravenna manuscript. The book was simply stolen (as we reported the other day) out of Ricci's 'Cronache e documenti per la storia ravennate del secolo xvi,' Pasolini's 'Memorie storiche della famiglia Rasponi,' and from an article of A. Borgogni's in the *Nuova Antologia*. No acknowledgment of the sources from which these books came was ever made. "C'est ainsi," says the *Revue Critique*, "que M. Gagnière, pour nous servir des expressions de la *Nouvelle Revue*, 'honorait la valeur morale.'"

—For every letter of Washington's that Sparks printed, at least ten are now available, says Mr. Worthington C. Ford, in enumerating the distinctive features of his new edition of the 'Writings of George Washington' (vol. i, 1748-1757. G. P. Putnam's Sons). Moreover, Mr. Sparks neglected all but a very small part of the commander-in-chief's official correspondence during the Revolution. And, finally, it is well known what liberties the Cambridge editor took with the style of his hero, in order to maintain his dignity in the eyes of posterity. Mr. Ford not only has had access to collections hitherto jealously guarded, but is heir to all that has come to light since Sparks's day, and is imbued with the exact historical spirit of our time. His undertaking calls for some fourteen volumes, uniform in size, print, and manufacture with the Hamilton and Franklin series from the Knickerbocker Press, which have been so well received. An examination of the first volume convinces us that Mr. Ford's editing will compare to advantage with that of Mr. Cabot Lodge or Mr. John Bigelow. The subsequent volumes will more fully reveal the difference between himself and Sparks in the matter of restoring the retouched texts by strict copying of the originals. There was less call for sophistication in these early annals of border warfare with the French and Indians. The main pieces are the Journal of a Survey in 1748; the Journal of the expedition to spy out the French forces on the Ohio in 1753; and the Journal of the march to the Ohio in the spring of 1754, involving an attack on the French and the death of their commander Jumonville, followed by the defeat at Great Meadow the last of May—with glimpses rather than a connected narrative of Braddock's ill-fated expedition in 1755. The rest of the volume is occupied with letters relating to the thankless service to which Washington was next assigned as commander-in-chief of the Virginian forces, in defending the frontier against French and Indian invasion. Gov. Dinwiddie's fussiness, want of business methods, not infrequent complaints and censure, and standing dread of a slave rising, with the French for liberators, made the young soldier's life almost intolerable—to say nothing of the troubles he had with deserters from the militia, Quakers who would not assist in the common defence even by unmilitary labor, scanty supplies and poor pay, rascally contractors' goods, the panic state of the population, etc. All this was admirable preparation for what was to be endured as leader of the Continental forces. The volume closes with Gov. Dinwiddie's return to England, with Washington's hearty assent. Mr. Ford's judicious editing is shown in his treatment of the French *précis* of Washington's Journal of the March, here retranslated and intermingled chronologically with Washington's contemporary correspondence. The journey to Boston in 1756 is also well looked after. The proof-reading seems to us more scrupulous than that of the Hamilton and Franklin series; the table of contents is sufficiently analytical. Desirable at the close of the work would be a tabular chronological view of Washington's doings and whereabouts year by year, and even month by month.

—The most noteworthy article in the January number of the *English Historical Review* is by E. Armstrong, upon "The Political Theory of the Huguenots." The author shows that the massacre of St. Bartholomew was the great crisis, not only in the Huguenot wars themselves, but in the literature of the reformers: "The supreme importance of the massacre of St. Bartholomew to the literary history of the wars," we are told, "may be proved by the fact that all the important works of genuine Huguenot parentage are written within seven years of that event." The principal part of the article is taken up with an analysis of the two most famous of these works—the 'Franco-Gallia' of François Hotman and the 'Vindiciæ contra tyrannos,' a book of uncertain authorship, usually attributed to Hubert Languet. It is interesting to note that at this point of time the Huguenots were rather favorably disposed to the House of Guise, and one of Hotman's points was an attack upon the Salic Law, which excluded this house from the throne. It was he who showed that this law properly "only referred to private allodial property. It did not exclude male descendants in the female line." This view completely supports the claim of Edward III. to the English throne, which we have always maintained was not, at that time, so preposterous as modern writers assume. Other articles are "The Growth of the Freedom of the Press," by Douglas M. Ford; "The Roman Emperors, from Basil II. to Isaas Komnênos, Part i," by

John B. Bury, and an entertaining episode of the war of the Spanish Succession—"The Captains of the *Nightingale*," by J. K. Laughton. The Notes and Reviews are many of them of considerable interest; the one of most importance is perhaps "Cromwell and the Insurrection of 1655, Part iii," in which Mr. Reginald Palgrave develops further the thesis of the previous part, "that fraudulent exaggeration of the designs and resources of the Royalists, and the manipulation of plots, were essential features in Cromwell's home policy."

—Of late years the current of opinion among librarians seems to have been running strongly in the direction of closer shelf-classification, and outsiders have been fairly bewildered by the numerous schemes of classification, in which all possible combinations of letters and figures have apparently been exhausted, and even hieroglyphics been pressed into the service, to denote the positions of the books. Doubtless the authors of these schemes have derived no little satisfaction and pleasure from their self-appointed task of mapping out the whole domain of science and literature into microscopic sections, and theoretically these systems are all more or less admirable; but their cumbersome and intricate notation must always be a fruitful source of error in calling for books, while it is not likely that ordinary readers will ever become so familiar with it as to obtain any benefit from the elaborate classification. And, indeed, signs of a coming reaction against the prevailing tendency are beginning to show themselves both here and abroad. Among these may be noted the simultaneous appearance of two articles, by librarians of experience, maintaining that too much importance has been attributed to shelf-classification and that its usefulness has been greatly overrated. One of these articles is by Dr. Kerler, Librarian of Würzburg University, and is to be found in the February number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen;* the other is by Mr. Fletcher, Librarian of Amherst College, and is contained in the January-February number of the *Library Journal*. The objections to the current systems are forcibly stated, and it is clearly shown that, even under the best system of classification, it is impossible to secure the chief object of the system—namely, the exhibition in a given place of the resources of the library on a given subject, since in the nature of things only a portion, and that not always the most valuable portion, of the library can be brought together upon the shelves; for, to say nothing of the necessary separation of books of different sizes, no librarian would seriously think of breaking up the numerous sets of periodicals, transactions, etc., which form so large a part of a modern library, in order to distribute under the specific subjects the monographs they contain. Mr. Fletcher rightly lays stress upon the evil tendency of these systems to encourage reliance upon this necessarily imperfect presentation of the resources of the library, to the neglect of the catalogue and of special bibliographies—a neglect which must often prove fatal. These articles foreshadow a return to simpler methods, and certainly, between the extreme of fixed location, with no classification, on the one hand, and that of movable location, with minute classification and its intricate notation, on the other, there is room for a system which, while retaining some of the undoubted advantages of the fixed-location systems, shall have sufficient elasticity for all practical purposes, and at the same time combine a reasonable measure of classification with a simple and self-explanatory method of notation.

—Three recent numbers of the *Week* (*Nedyéla*) contain a chapter from Count Leo Tolstoi's new philosophical work, 'Thoughts about Life.' This extract is entitled "The Fear of Death," and the author tries to show that this fear is without foundation, as nothing either ends or begins with death; for life in its various phases will always continue its unvarying and eternal movement onwards. He says:

"The idea that I am about to die and that my life will end, torments and frightens me, and somehow I am sorry for myself. But what is it to die? Why should I be sorry? What sort of thing am I from the most usual point of view? First of all, flesh—what then? Do I fear about that? Am I sorry for that? Apparently not. My body as a substance will never perish, in no case, not a single particle of it. This part of me being assured, there is nothing to fear for that. Everything will be preserved. But no, one says, I am not sorry for that—I am sorry for myself, Leo Nicolaievitch, or whatever my name may be. But then no one is the same person that he was twenty years ago, and every day he becomes somewhat different—why should I be sorry? No, one says, not sorry for that, but sorry for my individuality, my Me. But then your individuality has not always been the same, but has varied. You were different a year ago, still more different ten years ago, and totally different before that. As far as you can remember you have been always changing; why are you so pleased with your individuality at this particular moment that you are so sorry to lose it. If you had always been the same, it might be intelligible, but there has been nothing but change. You don't remember the beginning of you, and you can't find out; and suddenly you want no end, and that this little temporary individuality which you have at this moment should last for ever. Your whole life has been a passage through a fleshly existence; you have gone on, and even hastened, and suddenly you are sorry for the accomplishment of what you have been unceasingly doing. You are horrified by this great change in your position—the death of the flesh. But the same sort of change took place in you at your birth, and nothing bad happened to you; on the contrary, it turned out so well that you don't want any change. You say, then, that you are only sorry for yourself with your present feelings and thoughts, and your views of the world and your present relations with the world. So, then, you are only frightened at the possibility of losing your relations with the world."

Tolstoi goes on in a fatalistic way to assert that death occurs only when and because the blessings of the man's real life cannot be increased in this world, and not because he has disease of the lungs, or cancer, or happens to be shot. In this same spirit he discusses the question of early death, which sometimes seems so sad; and even brings in his dogma of non-resistance to evil. He says: "If we live, it is not at all because we take care of ourselves, but because the act of living is being accomplished in us, which subordinates to itself all these conditions. We are alive, not because we take care of ourselves, but because we are accomplishing the act of living." Apparently, from this, Tolstoi is fairly on the road to joining the Plymouth Brethren; but the Countess, with her good sense, will probably call in the doctor when their lately born thirteenth child has the croup.

THOMAS HILL GREEN.

Works of Thomas Hill Green, Late Fellow of Balliol College, and Whyte's Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Oxford. Edited by R. L. Nettleship, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. Vol. III. Miscellanies and Memoir, with a portrait. Longmans, Green & Co.

An accidental interest attaches to this memoir and the miscellaneous matter printed with it on account of the dedication of 'Robert Elsmere' to Prof. Green, and the identification of him with the Prof. Grey of the novel. Had there been no dedication, and no passages in the novel avowedly taken from Prof. Green's 'Witness of God,' those who had any knowledge of Prof. Green's position and work at Oxford, and in particular of his personality, must have identified him with the Professor of Mrs. Ward's delineation. Now, as they read the memoir, those who have read the story will see that Mrs. Ward had Prof. Green very steadily in her mind, and that she has given us a very luminous and faithful representation of his personality. This was very strong and interesting and engaging. Those who are least attracted by his thought will be attracted by the man, the fulness of whose nature was not by any means exhausted by his philosophical opinions. There was nothing of the Langham, Amiel, Obermann tendency in his thought to sickly o'er his hue of resolution. Nor was there anything singular or peculiar in the absence of such tendency. There is a brooding kind of intellect that is inimical to action, but the metaphysicians have not often been afflicted with it. An active disposition and public spirit have been almost invariably concomitant with the metaphysic mind. The more attenuated the thought, it might perhaps be said, the less the infirmity of will. Fichte's resolution of God and nature into shadows of himself did not prevent his being one of the most ardent patriots and politicians of his time. Prof. Green's Neo-Hegelianism was not less attenuated than the idealism of Fichte, and he was not less a man of warmest human sympathies and reformatory zeal.

For those who were interested in Prof. Green on the religious side, the two sermons on "The Witness of God" and "Faith" were the most significant expression of his thought. These were published by themselves a few years ago, and it is from them that the 'Robert Elsmere' quotations are taken. It was a custom with tutors at Balliol to speak to their pupils on the evening before the communion was administered; and though Prof. Green was a layman, he had a prophetic soul, and he could not resist its urgency to speak out and impress, if possible, the young men of his charge. But he only spoke twice—in 1870, when he gave "The Witness of God," and in 1877, when he gave the discourse called "Faith." The undergraduates who listened to these things must have been quite exceptional, or they must have squinted as absurdly as the gypsies when George Borrows read to them the Lord's Prayer in Romany. Each of them turns upon Prof. Green's philosophic doctrine of self-consciousness as "itself and not itself in one." In "The Witness of God" he works out the idea that God is the ideal human self. It sweeps away, as of inferior importance if not non-existent, "A God who made us and knows us as from without, a Christ who at a certain time did certain miraculous acts on our behalf," etc., and substitutes for them "an immanent God, a God present *in* the believing love of him and the brethren, a Christ within us, a continuous resurrection." Wherever he translates his thought into vernacular speech, or wherever we are able to do this for ourselves, we find it in its general bearings helpful and inspiring. But it has particular bearings in these sermons. Preached before communion, they endeavor to adjust the use of this office and the ritual of the Church in general to a Christianity without miracle and indifferent to the historical Jesus. The Prof. Green of these passages is the Prof. Grey of 'Robert Elsmere,' who distinguishes between the ability of the clergyman and the layman to use forms of worship which do not agree with his conception of historical truth.

The following sentences will show the drift:

"The Christian ordinances are at hand for our rejection, and if we are wise we shall not neglect them. We cannot afford to individualize ourselves even in respect to outward symbols. We do wrong to ourselves and them if we allow any intellectual vexation at the mode in which they may be presented to us to prevent us from their due use." . . . "Inability to adopt the creeds of Christendom in their natural sense—and in any other sense they are best left alone—need not disqualify us from using its prayers. . . . In prayer we need not ask whether our words as such would be understood by others in the same sense as by us, or whether they convey a correct theological conception. They are not meant to be heard by men. . . . The fact that others who use them have beliefs as to historical occurrences which we do not share, need not prevent us from sharing with them what is not the expression of an historical belief but of a spiritual aspiration." . . . Some "persons are much too ready to acquiesce in isolation as a necessary result of their opinions. . . . The days of tests and declarations, except for clerical functions, are over, and it is surely a weakness, when we are not pressed for our opinions, to make so much of them to other people or to ourselves as to be excluded or to exclude ourselves from joining in a common activity, the spirit of which we inwardly reverence and would gladly make our own, while in separation we are almost certain to lose it."

This is not the kind of teaching that is calculated to make Robert Elsmeres in the churches. If the layman can use forms and prayers which are intellectually false or obsolete to him, the clergyman will think it a great pity if he cannot do as much, and he will find some way of worming himself into a conclusion favorable to his right. Moreover, such a method as that advocated by Prof. Green assumes either that the clergy will be much more ignorant than the laity of the results of critical inquiry, or that they will do what he does not allow—use creeds and forms which have for them no longer intellectual truth. This, or no administration of religion.

In another particular the teachings of Prof. Green were little calculated to make Robert Elsmeres. To reconceive the historical human Jesus was the animating motive of Robert Elsmere's "New Brotherhood." But to the historical human Jesus Prof. Green is quite indifferent. The first three Gospels, in which, if anywhere, we have the material for such a reconception, are that part of the New Testament to which he is most indifferent. Paul's Epistles and the Fourth Gospel, where Jesus is already much idealized, are the parts for which he cares, and in them for what is vaguest and on this account lends itself most readily to further adumbration. Prof. Green deals somewhat sharply with the imposition of theological conceptions on the New Testament in the past, but it may be doubted whether his own exegesis has as much of critical warrant as that of the theologians whom he regards as misinterpreters of Christianity.

The miscellanies in this bulky volume—clxi and 476 pp.—other than the two sermons, which will engage the widest interest, are of extremely various character and importance. They range in date all the way from his first post-graduate years to the last years of his life. His Hegelianism is already clearly manifest in two of the earliest papers, on "The Force of Circumstances" and "The Influence of Civilization upon Genius." The paper that brought him a Chancellor's prize in 1862, when he was twenty-six, was on "The Value and Influence of Works of Fiction in Modern Times," a subject with which he had little sympathy. His treatment of it has now something of additional interest in view of the wider currency which a work of fiction has given to his name and fame. His relations to the Neo-Kantian and Neo-Hegelian philosophy in Great Britain are brought out most clearly in his reviews of Edward Caird's 'Philosophy of Kant' and J. Watson's 'Kant and his English Critics.' Watson's judgment is for him the fairer of the two as being less strenuous to make Kant consistent with himself. A more interesting paper than either of these is his review of Dr. John Caird's 'Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion.' His difference with Dr. Caird comes to this, "that in his method, though not in his conclusions, he has been too much overpowered by Hegel." He suspects that all along Hegel's method has made men hesitate in accepting his conclusions. What he cares for most in Hegel is nowhere more succinctly stated than in this paper:

"That there is one spiritual self-conscious being, of which all that is real is the activity or expression; that we are related to this spiritual being, not merely as parts of the world which is its expression, but as partakers in some inchoate measure of the self-consciousness through which it at once constitutes and distinguishes itself from the world; that this participation is the source of morality and religion—this we take to be the vital truth which Hegel had to teach."

The other miscellanies in the volume consist of certain exegetical lectures, of a fragmentary character, on Romans, Galatians, and the Fourth Gospel; a course of four lectures on the English Commonwealth, sympathetic in the main, finding in English dissent the great spring of the best political life of England from that time to this; and three or four lectures or articles upon various aspects of public instruction in its secondary and lowest grades—a matter to which he gave close attention.

But the account of the man in this volume will be of greater interest to the majority of those who read it than the writings which we have imperfectly described. That, however, will be found to be taken up very largely with summaries and criticisms of the papers published with it. It is evident that it was the personality of Prof. Green which attracted men to him, rather than his special philosophical opinions. It is little likely that these will ever have any depth of root in English soil. They are too exotic in their character to flourish vigorously for any length of time. Prof. Green has now been six years dead, and already Prof. Andrew Seth, the rising hope of neo-Hegelianism in Great Britain, the man on whom the mantle of Prof. Green had, it was thought, preëminently fallen, in certain lectures on "Hegelianism and Personality," which were reviewed in the *Nation* a few months ago, has recalcitrated the neo-Hegelian movement in an almost violent manner, insisting that its doctrines are destructive of both divine and human personality. As Prof. Green insists that the results of Hegel, and not his method, are our best inheritance from him, so it will be his own results, the religious contents of his philosophy, that will long outlast the dialectic by which he endeavored to establish them. So strong was his conviction that the whole world of human experience is the self-communication or revelation of an eternal and absolute being, and that self-sacrifice is the divinely appointed method of becoming one with God, that earnest spirits could not come within reach of his personal influence without being swept away in the flood of his enthusiastic faith and love.

Thomas Hill Green was born in a Yorkshire rectory, April 7, 1836, and died at Oxford March 26, 1882. The father is described by the son as having been prevented from making the best of himself by "a union of magnanimity, indolence, and bad digestion." The magnanimity descended to the son, and also the indolence, over which he triumphed measurably as time went on. At Rugby he did himself little credit, and the same is true of his first years at Balliol, Oxford, where he entered in 1855. He obtained a Balliol fellowship in 1860, but even after this only the influence of Jowett and Conington kept him from sinking into permanent lethargy. The first serious work that he attempted was a translation of F. C. Baur's 'Geschichte der christlichen Kirche.' This he never completed, but Baur's *tendency* method and its results remained with him. An edition of Aristotle was another unfulfilled desire, but the attempt brought him into connection with Edward Caird, and led to a criticism of Aristotle that is one of his most important works. In 1864 he competed unsuccessfully for the chair of moral philosophy in St. Andrew's University.

The man's practical energy came out in his sympathy with the North during our Civil War. He made speeches right and left; he assisted largely in raising $2,000 at Balliol for the Lancashire sufferers. In English politics he was an ardent Liberal, with a peculiar admiration for John Bright. In 1864 he was one of the Royal Commission for the examination of those schools not comprised within the commissions of 1858 and 1861, and his own views were to a great extent those adopted by the Commission in 1868. His strong middle-class sympathies found expression here, as well as in his Edinburgh lectures on the English Commonwealth. In 1871 he married a sister of John Addington Symonds, the brilliant critic of the Italian Renaissance. In 1874–5 a new edition of Hume's works contained a series of Prof. Green's introductions, which are among the most important of his philosophic works. In 1878 he obtained the Whyte's professorship of moral philosophy, a position wholly to his mind. His 'Prolegomena to Ethics' was the outcome of his lectureship. It was not quite completed when he was taken ill, March 15, 1882, and he died on the 26th of the same month. The impression that he made on those who came into sympathetic relations with him was very strong. He was an earnest worker in the fields of education, temperance, and political reform. One gets a very high opinion of the man from Mr. Nettleship's memoir, and the analyses of his philosophical positions are as clear as their abstruseness will allow. The etched portrait suggests the man of vigorous action more than the recondite philosopher. The absence of an index to the biography is a very great defect.

EUROPE IN THE FIFTIES.

Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Von Ernst II., Herzog von Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha. Zweiter Band. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. 1888. 8vo, pp. 543.

THE second volume of the memoirs of the Duke of Coburg extends from 1850 to 1860, thus including two such important episodes as the Crimean war and the Italian war of 1859, and treating of the rapid rise of Napoleon III. from a position of ridiculed obscurity to that of the arbiter of Europe. Its interest is more historical and less personal than that of the first volume, and considerable portions of it, dealing in detail with the fluctuations of public sentiment in Germany, appeal but feebly to non-German readers. It opens with a very full account of the Dresden conference of German governments, held from December 23, 1850, to May 15, 1851, with a view to settling the German Constitution on a generally satisfactory basis, but resulting in nothing more encouraging than a return to the old confederacy

of 1815. From the start the old preponderance of Austria made itself felt in carrying out what, in our political dialect, is known as "the slate"; in other words, in constituting the permanent committees in such a way as to have everything cut and dried beforehand in the interest of Austria. In a letter written January 18, 1851, Prince Albert, who had a gift of forcible expression, described the European situation in the following words: "The Emperor Nicholas is for the moment complete master of Europe, Austria only a tool, Prussia a dupe, France a cipher, England worse than nothing, led in its foreign affairs by an immoral statesman [Palmerston]." In March, 1852, he says:

"Austria wishes to become a state, for which she needs time, and demands that Europe shall stand still until Austria shall have become a state. If Europe is satisfied, Austria is quite right to make the demand. . . . But Austria overestimates her strength if she thinks she can continue, in her own interests, to dictate to Europe. To place her for the moment in the position even to attempt such a thing required the well-known weakness of the King of Prussia and the enormous blunders of Lord Palmerston."

The Austrian view of Germany was expressed by Prince Schwarzenberg, who, when the Duke of Coburg remarked to him that the wants of Germany and the weight of its demands did not seem to be recognized in Vienna, replied, "Let us not speak of Germany: it does not exist. As a soldier and a diplomat I have always been abroad, and have constantly found that nobody knows it."

The reassembling of the Frankfort Parliament was the starting-point in the diplomatic career of Bismarck, who had made his appearance in May, 1851, as first Secretary of the Prussian Legation, and in 1852 succeeded General von Rochow as Prussian representative in the Diet. The drastic manner in which he asserted the Prussian dignity against the hitherto undisputed pretensions of Austria, is well known from the descriptions given by Busch and other biographers. It will suffice to cite here the high praise accorded by the Duke of Coburg, often politically opposed to Bismarck, to his official reports from Frankfort. He calls the four stately volumes in which these reports have been printed a genuine national treasure, and says that "their wealth of contents may justly be regarded as the high political school of our times, for hardly in any other nation does there exist anything in the way of diplomatic correspondence to compare with the reports flowing from the never-resting, intellectual pen of the Prussian envoy in Frankfort. . . . I confess that I have often felt that my own opinions and actions might have been modified if I had been as familiar with his point of view and his reasons as I am now."

Outside of Germany a most important event at this time was the elevation of Louis Napoleon to the throne of France. Almost from the date of his election to the Presidency, his course had been a conservative one, calculated to conciliate the rulers of Europe, and to disabuse them of their prejudices and of the alarm with which they had witnessed his successful appearance upon the political scene. He was particularly desirous of cultivating friendly relations with the English court, and the rebuffs with which his first overtures were received in that quarter, so far from discouraging him, only served to increase his assiduities. As a means of ingratiating himself, he warmly seconded Prince Albert's pet project, the London Exhibition of 1851, which had a powerful influence in breeding a more friendly feeling between France and England as nations, without adding much cordiality to the relations between their rulers. The *Coup d'État* only tended to confirm the aversion which Queen Victoria and Prince Albert entertained for Napoleon, for both of them condemned the act from a moral point of view, while such governments as Austria and Prussia hailed it as a death-blow to revolutionism, and Palmerston (actuated, however, by different considerations) also welcomed it, but paid the penalty of his rashness by his dismissal from the Foreign Office.

The Duke of Coburg believes that the war panic which broke out in England in 1852 was without reason, and that at the very time when all Europe was crediting Napoleon with all manner of warlike schemes, the French ruler, feeling the insecurity of his position, was anxiously watching for a sign of good-will from her English Majesty. It is difficult to form any decided opinions as to the real intentions of a man who was on principle and habitually untruthful; it is a fact that he attacked every leading Power of Europe except England; and in the diary of the Emperor Frederick there is an entry under date of March 8, 1871, to the effect that Napoleon was seeking a modification of the conditions of peace under promise of a joint war with Germany against England. A similar indication of his secret feelings towards that country is found in a conversation which he held in March, 1860, with the Comte de Falloux, when he said, "England never is a true ally; she is ever an enemy; she spoils everything she touches." There was good ground for the opinion expressed by King Leopold in a letter to Prince Metternich in February, 1852, that the idea which had ruined Napoleon I., viz., that he could not possibly rule the French without foreign complications and wars, would possess even greater force for his nephew, who had much greater internal difficulties to contend with, and that the only way to hold him in check was to keep Europe united —in other words, to revive the Holy Alliance.

Still, it was characteristic of Napoleon III. throughout his career, that he sought alliances on every side. The Duke relates that only a few weeks before the Emperor announced his intended marriage with Eugenia Montijo, he had applied for the hands of two German princesses, and on being refused in both quarters had declared that he would never again seek a connection with any of the old families, which were incorrigible in their prejudices.

Napoleon's first opportunity was offered him by the Emperor Nicholas. Although war between Turkey and Russia was seen to be inevitable after the Russian manifesto of November 1, 1853, in which Nicholas maintained that he was forced to take up arms in order to demand satisfaction for the insults put by the Sultan upon the holy Russian Church, the French Emperor, uneasy at the lack of war feeling among his subjects, sent an autographic letter to the Czar (on January 27, 1854), breathing the most peaceful sentiments, to which the latter replied with a most unfortunate assurance that the French would find Russia to be as patriotic then as they had found her at Moscow in 1812. Nothing more was required to inflame the French people to a proper degree of ardor.

In the meantime, Napoleon, pursuing his plan of conciliating the good-will of the reigning families, had sent a son of ex-King Jerome on a visit to the King of Belgium, who, having every reason in the world for being on good terms with a powerful and dangerous neighbor, had received the young man with a cordiality so much at variance with what was then the prevailing disposition towards the French court as to excite a good deal of comment. The Emperor made the most of this incident, the friendship of the house of Coburg having especial importance for him at home on account of its connection with the house of Orleans, and abroad through its relationship with the English royal family. The Duke of Coburg, thinking it advisable to cultivate such amicable feelings, offered to his uncle to go to Paris to return the visit in case the latter did not wish to send one of his sons, and the offer was gladly accepted.

The Duke's visit was the first appearance of a reigning sovereign during the new empire, and was regarded as a most important occasion. The Duke at once entered on intimate relations with the Emperor, and prints the notes which he took at the time of their conversations. A great portion of them was concerned with the probable attitude of Prussia and Austria, which would have great influence in the course of the impending war with Russia. The Emperor was profuse in declarations that his policy was far different from that of his uncle; the latter, he said, had been too much intent on interfering with the governments of other States and on suppressing them, but that in the present enhanced national consciousness of the various peoples, it would be folly on his part to follow in his uncle's footsteps. In regard to securing the aid of Prussia against Russia, he said, in German, "I presume the Prussians do not imagine that they are to go into this war for nothing and to derive no territorial advantage from it. But what are really Prussia's wishes? Hanover? Saxony?" (This reminds one how the first Napoleon bought the neutrality of Prussia in 1805 by the cession of Hanover.) To the Emperor's question the Duke replied, that the disinterested policy of Prussia would never permit her to cherish definite wishes of this kind, but that it would be only according to common sense if at some future time she should contemplate a union of her eastern with her western territory. The dignity of the interlocutors forbids the supposition that at this stage of the conversation they exchanged a wink: it is more probable that they maintained a gravity equal to that of the Roman Augurs. The Duke adds, "We agreed upon the one point, that at the outset it was impossible to move Prussia to an alliance by promises." The Emperor was much surprised to learn to what dangers Prussia would be exposed on her left flank from Denmark and Sweden if she undertook to move against Russia. In regard to Austria he said, very impressively, "If it depended upon me, Austria should be welcome to the Danubian principalities; and if I were Emperor of Austria, I should cling less tenaciously to Lombardy, which always remains a gaping wound, is always insecure, demands constant sacrifices, while sooner or later a general rising in Italy is bound to come." He then dwelt in general on the idea that, after a favorable result of the war with Russia, a general European peace congress would be absolutely necessary in order to a final solution of all the questions incompletely decided by the Vienna Congress, and in order to give the nations a lasting peace.

There is no room to give more of these conversations here, but it may be well to mention that it was expected and intended that they should be reported in Berlin and in Vienna, and serve to secure the coöperation of Austria and Prussia. This expectation was not entirely disappointed, for the Duke took pains to communicate what he had learned, and exercised all his influence to weaken Russia, whose preponderance in German affairs he regarded as an obstacle and a menace.

Concerning Napoleon's personality the Duke has some interesting remarks:

"He was quite an uncommon man, and contrasted in every respect with his surroundings and with everything that could be called specifically French. When he sat in his armchair gossiping genially, smoking one cigarette after another, speaking almost dreamily, one imagined one saw a German professor rather than the ruler of France. At such times he could recite whole poems of Schiller and Goethe, and took pleasure in suddenly jumping from French into German conversation."

As the Duke of Coburg was the first sovereign who had bearded Napoleon in his den, and had drawn from him a sort of avowal of his programme and intentions, his reports concerning the man and his opinions were received with interest at the other European courts, and, as already remarked, had some influence in moulding the course of Austria and Prussia, and in bringing about a more cordial personal feeling on the part of Prince Albert. From this time on, the Duke was almost continually flitting back and forth from Paris to Vienna and Berlin, and he describes with great detail the fluctuations and vacillations of policy of all the European Powers, and especially of Austria and Prussia, before and during the Crimean war, and again at the time of the Italian war of 1859. His own little State did not suffice to absorb his energies, aside from the circumstance that he had granted it a constitutional government, and that, consequently, the real work of governing was done by his ministers. The one point which he took in hand personally was a scheme for uniting in a single State his two duchies of Coburg and Gotha. The difficulties which he encountered in carrying it out, and which it required years to overcome, throw a good deal of light on the organic obstacles to a union of Germany. Perhaps it was partly in recognition of the Duke's fitness to shine on a larger stage, and partly from a feeling that the Coburgs were predestined to kingly station, that projects were broached from time to time to offer him the crown of Greece or of Poland; moreover, it was intended, in case Prussia and Austria had jointly allied themselves with France and England in 1854, that he should command an army corps, and in 1859, if Prussia had taken the field against France, he would have had an important command.

While cherishing a military ambition, the Duke also cultivated the arts of peace, and, in addition to dabbling in literature, his competency for which is amply demonstrated by the excellent style of his memoirs, scored some successes as a musical composer. His opera of "Santa Chiara" was produced in Paris in September, 1855, and attained to sixty representations. His rank did not absolve him from the preliminary negotiations, and, in company with Meyerbeer, he visited the principal artists to secure their coöperation. For the wedding of his brother-in-law, the Prince-Regent of Baden, with the Princess Louise of Prussia, he composed a march which, together with one by Meyerbeer, was chosen from among a number of competing compositions. His dominions were a refuge for literary men who had incurred the displeasure of other German governments, and whom he shielded from imprisonment and perhaps graver penalties. The most eminent writer whom he thus befriended was Gustav Freytag, the novelist, whose works are widely known even to the English-reading world.

Freytag, Max Duncker, the historian, Friedrich Gerstäcker, and other lesser lights of literature and journalism, were members of a patriotic literary association established by the Duke in 1853 for the purpose of creating a new national party that should stand midway between the reactionists and the revolutionists, and, if possible, neutralize them both. One of the means of accomplishing this object was to be the influencing of public opinion through the public press, and a project was even entertained for establishing a liberal daily paper; but this was abandoned for lack of the necessary funds. The Duke prints a letter from Lord Clarendon offering to raise £12,000 in England to aid the enterprise, and adds that the negotiations were dropped because a large number of the members of the association did not feel comfortable at the thought of accepting an English subvention. In the absence of a regular journal, the literary activity of the club found vent in pamphlets, but, more particularly, in a lithographed correspondence which was issued from Leipzig to a number of newspapers, and speedily became a power in Germany. It was because Freytag wrote some of the articles in this correspondence that an order for his arrest was issued by the Prussian police. He applied for protection to the Duke, and requested to be appointed to a small nominal office which would make him a citizen of Gotha, and thus enable him to travel outside the duchy without being molested. As he intended going to Leipzig, and there was some danger of his being extradited if the Prussian Government demanded it, the Duke resolved to write on the subject to King John of Saxony (the translator of Dante); but, on the advice of his minister, addressed his letter to the Saxon minister, Von Beust, afterwards famous as the reconstructor of Austria, and received a reply to the effect that Freytag would be safe in Leipzig.

As characterizing the peculiar condition of things in Germany at that time (September, 1854), and the constraint under which public men often exercise their functions, it may be mentioned that, in a postscript to this very reply, Von Beust requested the Duke to obtain a professorship at Jena for Professor Biederman, who, for a violation of the press laws, had been sentenced, in Saxony, to imprisonment for two years. "Although," says Beust, "he has, as a political opponent, attacked me violently, I should like to see him in an independent position, where his great talents would find a new sphere of activity." This same professor was also an active member of the Duke's association. At the request of Freytag, the Duke also interceded with the Austrian Government in behalf of the poet Moritz Hartmann, who had been since 1848 a refugee in London and Paris, and had been captured by the Austrians at Bucharest, while attached to the army of Omar Pasha as newspaper correspondent. The Duke relates an anecdote concerning another liberal writer, Gustav Diezel, whom he invited to Coburg. At a public ball the burgomaster of Coburg accosted the Duke in great alarm, and informed him that one of the most dangerous democrats had just arrived there, which might lead to serious consequences. The Duke replied that if the man was wanted, there would be no trouble in apprehending him, as he was living at the Duke's palace.

There are a score of other interesting topics touched upon in this book, which ought to be made accessible to American readers, at least in an abridged translation, from which matters of merely local importance could be omitted. Perhaps space may still be spared here for three or four striking passages. Many of these are from the letters of Prince Albert. Thus, he likened the situation of the Emperor of the French to that of a theatrical manager whose audience expect a new play every day. Of the Chevalier Bunsen he writes: "Bunsen is the complete opposite of a diplomat: his best qualities are those which for such a calling are the most dangerous—particularly his incredible fecundity and imagination. In 1848 I saw him elaborate to the minutest detail at least five complete constitutions for Germany and as many for Prussia, each of them proceeding from entirely different principles." In March, 1854, the Duke attended a council held by Napoleon with almost all the principal French generals. On going away he expressed, to Marshal Magnan, his surprise at the absence of St. Arnaud, who had been selected to command the expedition against Russia. Magnan answered, with the appearance of the utmost indifference, that it did not matter whether the man were present or not; St. Arnaud was sickly, he said, and would not carry the thing through. "La canaille crèvera en route," he concluded. The peculiar mixture of contempt and venom conveyed in these few words could hardly be adequately expressed in English. A phrase from a letter which Napoleon wrote from the scene of war in Italy in 1859 to his war minister at home, found unmistakable confirmation in 1870. Complaining of the deficient equipment of the army, he says: "I am not reproaching you. I only address myself to the general system, from which it results that in France we are never ready for war." He might have added that unfortunately France is only too ready to provoke war.

The Unknown Horn of Africa. An Exploration from Berbera to the Leopard River. By F. L. James. With additions by J. G. Thrupp. London: G. Philip & Son. 1888. Pp. xiv, 344, 8vo.

SOMALI-LAND is that part of Africa which lies east of a line drawn south from the head of the Gulf of Aden to the Indian Ocean, or what has been called from ancient days the "horn of Africa." Though comparatively valueless, it has not escaped appropriation in the recent "scramble" for Africa by the European Powers, the northern coast having been under English protection since 1884, while Germany now claims the eastern littoral. The Somals, however, a brave and warlike race of Hamitic origin, and, with the kindred but hostile Gallas, the finest of all the African peoples, have till recently successfully resisted all attempts on the part of Europeans to explore the interior of their country, turning back some and murdering others. Mr. James's expedition, of which this volume is the record, would also undoubtedly have failed but for its exceptional fitness for its difficult and dangerous task. Five of the seven Europeans composing it had served an apprenticeship together in African travel in the Sudan east of the Nile, and the head-man was one Dualla, who had been trained by Stanley on the Congo. They had all learned by experience the absolute necessity of unlimited patience and firmness in dealing with the natives, as well as of sleepless vigilance.

The starting-point was Berbera, the port from which Aden draws a large part of its supplies, and the route was directly south, the object being to reach the Leopard or Webbe Shebeyli River and follow its course to the Indian Ocean. They had no difficulty in crossing the mountains which separate the coast from the high interior plateau, and on January 3, 1885, they encamped on the edge of the Haud, a waterless plain which stretches for 250 miles to the south. Here the travellers were overtaken by messengers bringing telegrams in which Lord Granville forbade their undertaking the expedition and ordered the authorities at Aden to stop them, by force if they persisted. As they were ten days' march from Berbera, however, they determined to proceed, although the dangers of the journey were

greatly increased by the Government disapproval, which had unfortunately not been concealed from the natives.

It was no slight undertaking to cross the Haud with a caravan consisting of a hundred men and women, a hundred and thirteen camels, besides horses, mules, sheep, and oxen. For nine days they marched, the animals finding some nourishment from the coarse grass and scraggy mimosas which grew in spots, but not a drop of water was to be had save what they carried in their "huntahs." The only objects which broke the horrible monotony of the scene were an occasional antelope or bird, and the giant ant-hills, some of which were thirty feet high, tall red columns of earth, that "assumed shapes which made us imagine we were passing through a gallery of colossal statuary in terracotta." During the last three days the water-supply ran so low that they were put on an allowance of a pint a day for each man. When, on the ninth day, they reached the Hodayu Pans, they found them "quite dry and sun-baked." With almost frantic eagerness they dug holes in the pans, and soon a "number had a thin surface of dark fluid, overlying liquid mud," which was greedily drunk. The digging had to be conducted with great care, "for if the sand below the mud were exposed, it immediately sucked up every drop of water collected above it. All day and all night well-digging was continued, and by degrees we were able to partially water the horses and mules and the four Aden camels." A four-days' journey still lay between them and the southern limit of the desert, and this had to be traversed before the Somali camels could be watered. "Since leaving Burao, they had, with bad food, carried their burdens 215 miles, *travelling for thirteen days without drinking a drop of water.*" The camels which showed this unparalleled endurance are of a different species from those of the Sudan, lighter, carrying only half the burden of these, and needing food every day. "The Sudan camel, carrying 400 pounds, will go several days without food or water, but he rarely lasts six days without the latter."

The first wells which the expedition reached were "hewn out of the solid rock, and some seventy or eighty feet in depth," and of unknown origin. They were surrounded by great herds of camels, oxen, and sheep attended by shepherds who showed neither friendliness nor hostility, but simply astonishment, believing that "the white man's caravan had descended from the heavens." A strong zariba was formed about the camp, and the travellers waited patiently for a fortnight before the native chiefs would permit them to proceed. All obstacles were finally overcome, however, and the Webbe was reached two months after leaving the coast. The river at this point, apparently about midway in its course of not far from a thousand miles, is nearly sixty yards wide, and yet this great volume of water never reaches the ocean, but "loses itself in a vast swamp a few miles from the coast." The land along the banks is extensively cultivated; corn, pumpkins, beans, melons, and cotton being grown. The natives are mainly negroes, called Adones, but the governing classes, a mere handful in comparison, are Somals. They are Mohammedans, their principal village, Barri, containing "a school, where we found boys reciting the Koran." All the large game of Africa is to be found at or near the river, which was "literally swarming with crocodiles," the natives being obliged for protection against them to make zaribas in which to water their animals. A fortunate shot by which one of these pests was killed on the day of their arrival had much to do with the friendly treatment which the travellers received.

Notwithstanding the peaceable behavior of the Adones, Mr. James could not prevail upon his men to go further down the river, and he was reluctantly compelled to retrace his steps after a stay at Barri of three weeks. The homeward journey was by a caravan-road, slightly to the west of the route by which they came, and was unmarked by any special incident. The crossing of the Haud was comparatively easy, as the rains had begun, and Berbera was safely reached by the middle of April. This successful traversing a land of which it has been recently said, "to be killed was the fate of nearly every white man who ventured" into it, without losing a man or firing a shot in anger, though there were daily provocations and hostile demonstrations, places Mr. James and his companions in the front rank of African travellers. The secret of their success was partly owing to the effect produced by their firearms, of which the natives in the interior were entirely ignorant. But it was chiefly due to their considerate tact in dealing with them, and the ceaseless vigilance which they maintained. The natives were never trusted for a moment, even when most friendly. It was for the lack of this suspicious caution that the Italian exploring expedition under Count Porro was massacred the next year, not in 1885, as Mr. James erroneously states.

From a geographical point of view the expedition was not so successful. It passed through a part of the country which had never before been visited by Europeans, and reached the Webbe, but unfortunately had no opportunity to explore its course in either direction, so as to settle the questions as to its source and relations to the river Jub. The ethnographical facts in regard to the origin, habits, and religion of the various tribes inhabiting Ogadayn, the region to the south of the great plain, are rather meagre, though very possibly they did not differ materially from the well-known coast tribes. Far different were the results as respects natural science. The collections of the fauna and flora of the Somali-land were very large and valuable, containing many species new to science. These are described in an appendix by different scientific specialists.

Mr. James writes easily and with some humor, though he is at times a little coarse and his work lacks revision. The following description of the camp at night is picturesque and graphic:

"As darkness came on and the camp-fires shone out, the scene was lurid and almost theatrical—the camels parked and all kneeling; the horses and mules tethered on one side, and the sheep huddled together on the other, the fancy attitudes of all our men and women, with their clean white tobes falling gracefully about their figures, the gleaming spear-heads and glinting rifle-barrels, and the unceasing babble in an unknown tongue. Then a moment of silence, while several dozen men advanced a short distance carrying their prayer-carpets. Standing in long line with Dualla a few paces to the front, they chanted an evening orison, and then, kneeling on their carpets, bent forward till each man's forehead touched the earth."

This volume, which in typographical excellence leaves little to be desired, is made still more attractive by some very beautiful colored plates of the new species of animals and birds, collected principally by Mr. E. Lort-Phillips. We cannot praise so highly the "narrative illustrations," some of which, however, are not without force, and all are, apparently, faithful representations of the natives and the scenery. There is also an admirable map, the work of Messrs. W. D. James and Percy Aylmer

The Cavaliers and Roundheads of Barbados. 1650–1652. With some Account of the Early History of Barbados. By N. Darnell Davis. Georgetown, British Guiana: *Argosy* Press. Pp. 261.

THIS attractive little volume is creditable to the author and to the printer, and shows that the heat of the tropics is no bar to mental effort or to skilled mechanical labor. As the title indicates, it does not profess to be a history of that very interesting island, but merely a chronicle of one episode in its history.

The first settlement of Barbados was in 1627, by vessels sent out by Sir William Courteen of London, under a grant to Philip Herbert, Earl of Montgomery, afterwards Earl of Pembroke. But King James also made a grant to James Hay, Earl of Carlisle, which was decided in 1629 to be of higher authority, and the latter nobleman became Lord Proprietor. The island proved very attractive to colonists, of whom in 1636 there were about 6,000 Englishmen, some 750 of whom owned ten acres or more. In 1645 there were 5,680 negro slaves there; the sugar industry having been established by Col. James Draxe. At that date there were 18,300 effective men on the island, 11,200 being proprietors, and in 1650 the total population was computed at 30,000.

Our author gives the following list of the first colonists whose names have become extinct there: Bourchier, Bromley, Byron, Carey, Carleton, Conyers, Coverley, Darell, Digby, Dimock, Estwick, Fitz James, Fortescue, Frere, Godwin, Hawley, Hay, Howard, Isham, Jermyn, Kendall, Lacy, Lee, Littleton, Middleton, Modiford, Needham, Ogle, Ouseley, Pickering, Prideaux, Quintins, Rich, Rous, Rowland, Russell, Shelly, Southwell, Tyrell, Usher, Walmsley, Wells, and Woodhouse. The next list is of those still represented there or in the neighboring islands: Alleyne, Austin, Briggs, Buckley, Burrowes, Byam, Chester, Clarke, Clinkett, Codrington, Cox, Dottin, Edwardes, Ellis, Farmer, Gill, Gibbes, Gittens, Hawtayne, Jones, Kirton, Marshall, Martin, Mathew, Maycock, Mills, Moss, Parris, Parsons, Pearce, Sandiford, Taylor, Thornhill, Redwood, Walrond, Waterman, and Webb. It may be added that the communication with Virginia and New England was constant, and that many emigrants seem to have gone first to the island and then to the mainland.

In 1646, the Earl of Carlyle leased the island for the term of twenty-one years to Francis, Lord Willoughby of Parham. The majority of the planters, led by Colonel Humphrey Walrond, were Cavaliers; but an influential minority were for Parliament, and of these Colonel Draxe was chief. The loyalty of the islanders found vent in a proclamation issued May 1, 1650, proclaiming Charles II. King, and declaring the Book of Common Prayer the only pattern of true worship. Lord Willoughby arrived out there at this juncture and assumed control. For about a year the Royalists held the power, imprisoning, fining, and banishing their opponents. But in England, Parliament was not unmindful of this rebellion, and measures were taken to assert its supremacy. A squadron of seven vessels, with 860 men and 238 guns, under the command of Sir George Ayscue, sailed August 5, 1651. This fleet duly arrived, and found the island well defended by a force estimated at 5,000 men. A blockade was established, and on one occasion troops were landed and a successful attack made.

The battle of Worcester was fought September 3, 1651, and two months later Admiral Ayscue sent official information to Lord Willough-

by, together with an intercepted letter from his wife urging his submission. Willoughby held out for some two months, but the defection of Colonel Modiford and others, who saw the folly of a contest with England, finally caused a treaty to be accepted, on January 11, 1652. By it liberty of conscience was granted, and it was provided that "no taxes, customs, imposts, loans or excise shall be laid nor levy made on any the inhabitants of this island, without their consent in a General Assembly." Lord Willoughby was to be restored to all his lands in England or in the other colonies, though he was to leave Barbados. Nine of his principal adherents were also banished, but apparently without any confiscation of estates; and the island peaceably submitted to Daniel Searle as Governor for the Parliament.

Thus ended the contest; and the story is clearly told by Mr. Davis, without prolixity or exaggeration. Although not a great matter, it was a characteristic one, and is well worth telling.

Afloat (*Sur l'eau*). By Guy de Maupassant. With illustrations by Rou. Translated by Laura Ensor. George Routledge & Sons. 1889. Pp. 256.

LAST spring, immediately after the publication of 'Pierre et Jean,' M. Guy de Maupassant went off for a solitary coasting trip along the French shore of the Mediterranean, in his little yacht *Bel-Ami*. The present volume is the record of his ten days' voyage: of what he saw, and his musings thereupon. M. de Maupassant is more than anything else a poet, and can bear solitude and at times rejoice in it. He experiences a keen delight at feeling himself to be a part of all life, rather than a part of merely human life. But there is very little of the joy of life in his book. Parts of it are thick with inspissated gloom. It might have been written by his own poet, Norbert de Varenne. That most men are weak and miserable, and the rest strong and miserable; that we know nothing; that war is horrible, and love empty and vain, and friendship exacting, and the life of society, and especially of courts, ridiculous; that the most delicately organized beings suffer most keenly; that helpless poverty, and sickness, and old age are dreadful things—these are the themes of his musings.

They are not new, and perhaps not truer today than they were yesterday, and M. de Maupassant can point out no way of escape from them. If he could grasp the whole sorry scheme of things, and shatter and remodel it, he would live, he says, after his heart's desire, in a palace, by the sea, apart from men, with everything to gratify the senses and the mind, in peace. But, surely, this would be a honey bitterer than any gall. For this world, after all is said against it, is at least better than a Mohammedan paradise, and the house of mourning better than the house of feasting for whatever is best in man. M. de Maupassant might well be content to accept this truth; for it is precisely because this is true that his book, blackly pessimistic as it is, outweighs in value a wilderness of Tartarins.

The book is not all of it new. Part—not the best—saw the light in the *Revue Bleue* some time last summer, a part in *Les Lettres et les Arts*. It makes a handsome volume, with illustrations of the Tartarin stripe.

The Dead Leman, and Other Tales from the French. By Andrew Lang and Paul Sylvester. Scribner & Welford. 1889. 8vo, pp. xvi, 336.

THIS is a volume of short stories by authors of repute, and is a well-meant attempt to cultivate in England a taste for the *conte*. English readers are intolerant of short stories, especially if they appear in a volume, the translators sorrowfully admit, but they hope against hope that the present collection may win some hearts. It consists of Gautier's "La Morte Amoureuse," two of Mérimée's tales, one each of About's and "Th. Bentzon's," one of Tolstoi's, and Balzac's "La Grande Brétêche."

The work of the translators seems to us to deserve less than entire praise. Their English is not always clear, nor always elegant, nor always devoid of affectation. Such phrases as "meseemed that I had fallen on sleep" very inadequately reproduce "the faint archaism, the perfume, the poetry of Gautier's prose," while one passage in the Tolstoi story is simply unintelligible. In this story, too, there is a yet graver fault: the translators follow, or make, a version of "A Candle" in which the ending of the tale is quite changed, and the wicked prikáshtchik dies of drink instead of meeting the violent death which Tolstoi describes, and which the plan of the story demands. The tales of which the volume is made up are all well known, and call for no remark, save possibly this: that the book may impress some readers, perhaps almost startlingly, with a sense of the gulf that lies between the work of writers like Gautier and Mérimée—or even of Balzac—and the work of a writer who seems vast as the Steppes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. D. By-Ways in Bookland: Short Essays on Literary Subjects. Lockwood & Coombes. $1.25.
Alcott, Louisa M. A Modern Mephistopheles. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Alexander, Prof. W. J. Introduction to the Poetry of Robert Browning. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Andrews, T. Scientific Papers. With a Memoir by Profs. P. G. Tait and A. Crum Brown. Macmillan & Co. $5.
Baker, W. S. Bibliotheca Washingtoniana: A Descriptive List of the Biographies and Biographical Sketches of George Washington. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay.
Belford's Magazine. Vol. I. June, 1888—November, 1888. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Bell, M. His Fatal Success; being the Strange Adventures of John Stuart. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Cameron, Mrs. H. Lovett. The Cost of a Life: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Carr, F. Essays of William Hazlitt. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Clarke, K. Where the Trout Hide. Brentano.
Cook, F. Manual for the Use of the Legislature of the State of New York. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Cooper, C. W. F. Horace's Odes. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Curry, J. L. M. Constitutional Government in Spain. Harper & Bros.
Curtis, G. W. The Correspondence of John Lothrop Motley. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Cutler, Rev. Dr. C. The Beginnings of Ethics. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Dorling, W. Selected Poems by Dora Greenwell. With a Biographical Introduction. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke: His Statement, as made to his Grandchildren during the Hard Winter of 1734, wherein is contained a Full Report of Certain Passages of his Early Life, etc. Collected from the Original Manuscripts. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Duff, J. D. T. Lucreti Cari De Rerum Natura. Liber Quintus. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Edwards, G. M. The Odyssey of Homer. Book X. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Elson, L. C. The History of German Song, from the Time of the Minnesingers to the Present Age. Boston: New England Conservatory of Music.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports of Cases Decided in Courts of Last Resort of the Several States. Vol. IV. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Goethe's Werke. (Weimar ed. Vol. 2, Poems, Part 2. Vol. 6, West-östlicher Divan. Vol. 7, Notes, etc., to the foregoing. Vol. 15, Parts 1 and 2, Faust, Second Part. Diaries, 1790–1800. Letters, 1775–1778.) Weimar: Hermann Böhlau; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Green, T. M. Historic Families of Kentucky. First Series. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Hardy, Prof. A. S. Elements of Analytic Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hauff, W. Das Bild des Kaisers. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Hawthorne, J. Constance, and Calbot's Rival. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Hints for Teachers of Physiology. No. XIV. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hockheimer, L. A Manual of Criminal Law as Established in the State of Maryland. Baltimore: Harold B. Scrimger.
Hodgkin, T. The Dynasty of Theodosius; or, Eighty Years' Struggle with the Barbarians. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Jonnson, H. T. Jack of Hearts; a Story of Bohemia: The Judge Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Johnson, T. A Bluegrass Thoroughbred: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year Book for the Year 1889. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Levy, Amy. The Romance of a Shop. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Murray, D. C. and H. A Dangerous Catspaw: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Nettleship, Prof. H. Essays by the Late Mark Pattison, sometime Rector of Lincoln College. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Nevinson, H. W. Life of Friedrich Schiller. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Ohnet, G. Dr. Rameau. Translated by Mrs. Cashel Hoey. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Owen, Catherine. Choice Cookery. Harper & Bros.

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THE CENTENNIAL OF A REVOLUTION: An Address by a Revolutionist. 1888. pp. 171. 12mo, cloth, $1.25.

The author of this anonymous discourse is John Codman Hurd, LL.D., author of 'The Law of Freedom and Bondage' (1858), and of 'The Theory of Our National Existence' (1881). In this publication the writer professes to have accepted, against his earlier convictions, a Revolutionary origin for the Constitution, in 1787-9, and attempts, by a course of ironical argumentation, to expose the logical consequences of taking such an assumption as the basis for the extreme national theory and the refutation of the fallacies of the State-rights doctrine. The views actually sustained by the author are those presented in his earlier writings.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 28, 1889.

The Week.

A MORE melancholy picture of the humiliating position into which the spoils system forces a President, could not be drawn than is Mr. Harrison's own statement of his present situation. The Washington correspondent of the *World* says, that the President is growing very restless under the criticism made upon the deliberation with which he is filling the important offices, and that to an importunate Congressman who called to urge the claims of a constituent for office he said: "I am daily criticised in the papers, and even by individuals who call upon me in quest of office, for being slow to nominate men for those important missions. The reason is the simplest in the world. I have not had time. I have been overrun with office-seekers since I arrived in Washington, and instead of having the time to devote to the consideration and selection of foreign ministers and other important officials, I have actually spent it all in listening to the statements of delegations, and in the purely clerical labor incident to the proper classification and arrangement of applications for office." Think of the chief executive of a great nation, with all the onerous duties which devolve upon such an official, which of themselves would consume all his time and strength, complaining that he has to spend all his time and use up all his strength in listening to the pleas of spoils-hunters, and in performing the purely clerical labor of classifying and arranging applications for office!

Secretary Windom has had the following notice posted in the Treasury:

"The Secretary of the Treasury reserves the time from 10 till 11:30 A. M. for receiving Senators and members of the House of Representatives. Other persons desiring to see him upon matters relating to official patronage will please call between 11:30 A. M. and 1 P. M. The Secretary requests that he may be excused from receiving visitors after 1 P. M., in order that he may be able to devote a part of the day to the consideration of the current business of the Department."

It appears from this that the Secretary begins his official day at 10 A. M.—a very proper hour—but does not reach the business of the Government, or "the current business of the Department," as he calls it, until 1 P. M., after three hours of that most exhausting of occupations, listening to people who, in nine cases out of ten, are making either impossible requests or impracticable suggestions. We grant that he ought to give some portion of the day to interviews with Senators and Representatives on public business, but we presume there can be no doubt that the business he transacts with them between 10 and 11:30 A. M. is of precisely the same nature as that which he transacts with the persons who come to "see him upon matters relating to official patronage," between 11:30 A. M. and 1 P. M. That is, he spends three hours of his day talking about "spoils" with importunate beggars to whom the taxpayers whom he represents, and with whose interests he is charged, owe nothing whatever. Consequently, he comes to his own sworn work jaded in mind and body, and is compelled, when in arrears with it, to take out of the hours which he owes to health and recreation, enough time to make up for what he has lost with office-seekers in the morning. All this waste of time and strength is the direct result of the practice of treating offices as party booty, and making changes in the service simply to satisfy electioneering claims. In other words, half the official time of the Minister of Finance of the greatest commercial and manufacturing State in the world is given to consultation over plans for corrupting the fiscal administration and diminishing its efficiency.

The appointment of Corporal Tanner as head of the Pension Bureau commits the Administration to support of the wholesale pension schemes which are so zealously pushed by the claim-agents and the politicians who make bids for the "soldier vote." Tanner is one of the most prominent of the Grand Army politicians who have converted that organization into a machine for securing pensions, and, as the Washington correspondent of the *Press* says, "has long been regarded as a pension liberalist of the most pronounced type." The same correspondent says that "Tanner's appointment is generally regarded as the beginning of a new pension era. It may, and likely will, result in universal pensions as the simplest and cheapest way out of it. In fact, a universal-pension bill will early be introduced in the next Congress, and, unless it should be deemed inexpedient and killed by caucus, it will become a law." We regret to say that there is too much reason to fear that this forecast will prove to have been correct.

Republican newspapers as a rule thus far are slow in expressing any opinion regarding the New York Post-office. Occasionally one is found, like the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle*, edited by the Hon. Charles E. Fitch, Professor of Journalism, which takes the ground that Mr. Pearson ought not to be reappointed, on the ground that he "has had the place long enough"; but most of them take refuge in silence. An honorable exception is found in the case of the Buffalo *Express*, which says that Mr. Pearson "is a Republican who has so nobly vindicated the principles of his party during the last four years that the Democratic Administration could find no pretext for removing him," and makes this comment upon the course of those Republican papers which advise President Harrison not to reappoint him: "They invite him to write himself down lower than Grover Cleveland. Such counsel is an insult to President Harrison's intelligence, to say nothing of his civil-service-reform professions."

The Indianapolis *Journal* publishes a leading editorial article which, without mentioning the new Postmaster in that city, rebukes all spoilsmen who talk about the Civil-Service Law in the way he is quoted as talking. The *Journal* begins with the statement that "the Republican party is pledged in every possible way to the principle of civil-service reform, as embraced in the present law and the rules under it." After setting forth the scope of the law, it explains its application to the Indianapolis Post-office, which is the only one in the State embraced by the statute. It points out that, with the exception of ten positions out of about one hundred, all the places are subject to the law, and that, while the incumbents may be removed at pleasure, their successors can only be appointed in accordance with civil-service rules. "The Postmaster," it adds, "can discharge a clerk or carrier for any cause satisfactory to himself, but he cannot appoint one except in compliance with the Civil-Service Law; *and if a vacancy is to be filled, the law does not permit him to know whether it will be filled by a Republican or a Democrat.*" In order to leave no possible doubt as to its meaning, the *Journal* concludes with the following remark, which Postmaster Wallace may well regard as in the light of a warning: "The idea that the law can be construed out of existence, or juggled with in such a way as to run Republicans in without complying with its provisions, is a great mistake."

Justice Stanley Matthews, who died on Thursday, had been a member of the Supreme Court for about eight years, having been confirmed by a very narrow margin in the spring of 1881, upon President Garfield's nomination, after his name had been rejected when sent in by President Hayes the previous winter. He had served four years in the Senate, and his record in favor of the permanency of the greenbacks, the payment of the public debt in depreciated silver, and the unlimited coinage of silver, rendered his selection for the highest bench a surprise and disappointment to the country. Although a good lawyer, he had never won the highest rank in his profession, and his service as judge has been without special distinction. His death precipitates upon the President a fresh contest for place which must almost make him despair. Ohio will undoubtedly insist upon the succession, as she has not got much so far, and is now left without representation in the Supreme Court for the first time in sixty years. John McLean, who was appointed by Jackson in 1829, served until 1861, and was succeeded by Noah H. Swayne, who was given Salmon P. Chase as a colleague in 1864, and Morrison R. Waite upon Chase's death in 1873. Swayne retired in 1881, and was succeeded by Matthews; while William B. Woods, who was appointed in 1880, and credited to Georgia, al-

ways remained much more an Ohio man than a representative of the South.

There are strong reasons for believing that complete ballot-reform laws will be passed in at least two more States before the close of their present legislative sessions, namely, Missouri and Wisconsin. It is possible that Connecticut also will be added to the list, though the Republican majority in that State appears to be acting in a double-faced way in regard to the subject. While seeing the necessity of paying heed to the strong public demand for such legislation, the Republicans do not yet unite in favor of a bill which embodies the most approved principles of the reform system. In Missouri all authorities agree that the Legislature will pass a bill embodying a complete application of the Australian system. In Wisconsin the Senate has passed a bill extending the provisions of the present admirable Milwaukee law and making them applicable to the entire State. As passed, this bill provides for secret, official ballots printed and distributed at the public expense. It is interesting to note that in all quarters of the country in which the ballot question is discussed, Gov. Hill is recognized as the leading enemy of the reform.

The movement among American artists for the repeal of the duty on works of art is a step which ought to have been taken some time ago. That all except a feeble minority of our artists feel pained and humiliated by this duty, has been known to Congress ever since the present tax of 30 per cent. was imposed, but Congress does not pay attention to unorganized opinion on any subject. If the artists take steps to organize their opinion, they can make it effective. We notice that one of the speakers at the late meeting wanted a definition of works of art, so that the term might not include chromos and colored photographs, but should be limited to paintings in oil and water colors. This would be a fair distinction if the Treasury wanted the money collected on such works. But since it does not, the distinction seems to be either frivolous or of a protective character. In either case it should not be allowed, and we venture the prediction that Congress will never allow the pictures which rich men buy to come in free, while the humbler decorations of the poor man's home are taxed 30 per cent.

Somebody in Washington has been "stuffing" the correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*. He writes on Saturday:

"Treasury officials say there is no reason why the work of Secretary Fairchild in ferreting out the sugar frauds should be affected at present by the change of Administration. If the work had been left half completed, there might have been some reason to fear that it would not be carried forward, but it was left so near done that it is only a question of 'letting well enough alone.' Secretary Fairchild restored the proper method of appraisement, and he dismissed the men who had been guilty of dishonesty, and put new men in their places."

There is not one word of truth in this. Secretary Fairchild "ferreted out" no "sugar frauds." He does not even pretend now that he did. He did not "restore the proper method of appraisement," because he found no wrong method. He did not dismiss men "guilty of dishonesty." He dismissed men against whom he brought charges for which he had no proper evidence whatever, and whom he never brought before any tribunal, and whom he stultified himself by slandering on the eve of his own retirement from office.

Mr. Henry C. Bowen, the senior editor of the *Independent*, accuses us of falsehood in saying that the evidence against Quay and Clarkson in the matter of the theft of the *Voice's* mail-lists was "undisputed," inasmuch as the *Independent* had "published the completest denials authorized by both Clarkson and Quay." We notice Mr. Bowen as often as we do, because he edits the only religious paper which has ventured with openness and minuteness to undertake the defence or vindication of the various prominent Republican corruptionists of the late canvass. But it is impossible to treat him very seriously. He was expelled from his church in Brooklyn on the 18th of May, 1876, for repeated and complicated lying, when he was about fifty years old, a misfortune which usually extinguishes a moralist for ever. We had had before this, to wit, on the 8th of October, 1874, to expose his secret sale of his columns to the old Northern Pacific Railroad, under a contract by which he bound himself, in consideration of $50,000 in bonds and $460,000 in stock (which he actually received), to give the "exclusive interest and influence of his money and editorial columns" to promote the sale of the securities of the road. After Jay Cooke's failure, the trustee in bankruptcy discovered the transaction, demanded restitution, on the ground that the contract was immoral, and legal proceedings were, we believe, begun to compel it, but somehow the editor managed to hold on to his booty. Controversy about truthfulness or journalistic honor with such a man is of course a little ridiculous, but we will continue it far enough to say that the Quay-Clarkson "completest denials" in the *Independent* consist simply of an assertion by Mr. Bowen that "he is authorized to say that these gentlemen make the following statements," which "statements" are simply quibbles or evasions. The matter will, we believe, almost certainly soon come before the courts at the instance of the *Voice*, so that we need to say no more about it now.

In a speech in the Assembly on Friday, the Speaker, Mr. Fremont Cole, made the following remarkable statement concerning the mysterious appearance of $4,000 upon his private bank account about the 1st of November last:

"Then the State Committee, in its kindness, in its generosity, realizing the fact, I presume, that I was in the native county of Gov. Hill, that we have a large vote that is questionable, sent quite a large amount of money into that county. Of course, my friends, perhaps that was not a wise thing. Perhaps it was not a wise thing for me to be the receiver of that money. Yet I have explained the facts. I have withheld nothing. I have told Mr. Seward and the other attorney the places where that money came from. It came from Republicans high up in official life; it came, a large part of it—almost all of it, with the exception of a few hundred dollars—from the State Committee, and yet they say that should be explained."

This is as frank a confession as that of Mr. Ainsworth to the effect that, if it had not been for the ceiling job, Harrison would not have been elected.

Trust certificates are becoming the favorite gamble in Wall Street, and the rapid rise of the Sugar Trust has given a great impetus to the trading. Of course speculators will take hold of anything that they see, or think they see, a profit in, but the investing public should not be deluded by the idea that Trusts are safe places for money in the long run. They have as yet no legal status, and in the present temper of the public mind they are not likely to gain any. They have not the element of continuity, and they cannot acquire it. Dodging from one State to another to pick up charters, they take on a fugitive character, which should make people cautious about putting money into them. It has been held in this State that a corporation is dissolved by going into a Trust. Therefore all corporations are dissolvable which go into Trusts. The next step of the Trust will probably be to get the dissolved corporation reincorporated in another State until that State dissolves it. But eventually all the States will spew them out, and we think the process will be rapid as the monopoly character of Trusts discloses itself.

The Dundee (Scotland) *Advertiser*, commenting on the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Oregonian Railway case, says:

"Whatever are the grounds on which the Supreme Court has set aside the decision of Judge Deady, this decision will give a serious blow to American credit in this country. The faith of British investors in the safety of contracts under the Constitution of the United States, which has hitherto been free from doubt or fear, will receive a rude shock, and the remarkable passage in Mr. Bryce's new book, which practically suggests that even the highest of the American judges cannot be trusted where questions as between States are concerned, will receive a meaning which could not till now have been read in it."

The immediate occasion for this comment on judicial honor and American credit is the fact stated by the *Advertiser* that the Oregonian Railway securities—stocks, bonds, and claims of various kinds amounting to £540,000—are held in Dundee and the vicinity thereof. The decision in the case, as we recall it, was to the effect that a corporation cannot exercise powers not conferred upon it either expressly or by necessary implication, and that neither the Oregonian Railway nor the Oregon Railway and Navigation Company had the power conferred upon it to execute a lease or to receive one. This is no new principle in the line of Supreme Court decisions or in the law of corporations. In point of fact, if the court had decided the case differently, it would have been obliged to reverse itself. How far American credit would have been helped by the Supreme Court deciding questions one way to-day and another way to-morrow, we shall not undertake to determine. But if the Supreme Court of the United States has made any reputation for itself in the way of holding the scales evenly, it

has done so by holding them evenly between Americans and foreigners. The amount in controversy in this case, present and contingent, was about $800,000. To suppose that the Court took this sum of money, or any sum, into consideration in rendering the decision is too preposterous. We do not recall the passage in Mr. Bryce's book to which reference is made, but we venture to say that it does not warrant the application which the Dundee *Advertiser* gives it.

Sir Thomas Farrer's letters to the London *Times* on the Sugar-Bounties Convention have been published by the Cobden Club as a treatise for general circulation. A more destructive commentary on an economical project has seldom been put in print. It is hardly possible to conceive, after reading these letters, how the anti-bounty treaty can ever go into effect. The force relied on to make it effective is the boycotting clause, which excludes the sugar of bounty-paying countries from all the countries that are parties to the Convention. France is not a party to the Convention. Austria has made reservations which leave her at liberty to join or not according as circumstances shall appear in September, 1891, the time fixed for the Convention to go into operation. Sir Thomas shows that the effect will be merely to turn the bounty-fed sugar from England to the United States, where it will displace an equal amount of free sugar grown in the English and other West Indies. No gain will accrue to the English colonies, in whose behalf the Convention was in large part drummed up. On the other hand, England will cut herself off from the cheapest sugar that is to be had. The idea of making it a grievance that foreigners want to give you something for nothing, to make you a present of one of the most valuable and desirable products of modern art and industry, is turned into immeasurable ridicule. The operative parts of the treaty are shown to be full of difficulty, as, for example, the mode of determining whether any particular sugar is bounty-fed or not. It is a curious feature of the treaty that Great Britain alone is forbidden to levy differential duties on sugar in order to favor her own colonies. Spain and Holland, which are both parties to the Convention, and which have the largest sugar-producing colonies in the world, may do this, but England cannot.

The copper conspiracy was made the subject of debate in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, and the Ministry barely escaped defeat on a motion for a public prosecution of the conspirators. But for the fact that the Ministry is only a few days old, and that the French people are beginning to feel the force of foreign criticism on the ephemeral character of their governments, it is most likely that the motion for a prosecution would have prevailed. In the end the Minister of Justice promised unequivocally that he would cause an investigation to be made, and would institute a prosecution if he should find that the law had been violated. Probably he has no serious intention of prosecuting anybody, since his colleague, the Minister of Finance, who has put himself in the attitude of a harlequin by helping the Comptoir d'Escompte to prolong its existence by about ten days, would be still further shown up as having used the powers of the State to prolong the life of the conspiracy. In the course of the debate the Paris house of Rothschild was mentioned as one of the leaders in the alleged conspiracy. M. Rouvier repelled the insinuation, saying that its refutation could be left to the good sense of the public. It is to be hoped that it will not be left to that fleeting tribunal, whose judgments are apt to be shifty and indeterminate. It is of much importance to know whether houses like the Rothschilds and the Barings, upon which the soberer classes of the community are accustomed to repose with absolute trust, are speculators, or whether they adhere through all the ages to sound principles of finance.

The *Christian Union* is engaged in a curious controversy with some Bostonians over the "Boston Monday Lectureship," a name given to himself some years ago by the Rev. Joseph Cook. It appears that the Boston correspondent of the *Christian Union* has reported that public interest in the "Monday Lectureship" is waning, and cited as proof of this the meagreness of the reports of his addresses in the daily papers. Some friends of the "Lectureship" thereupon alleged that this was unfair and misleading, and that the public interest in him was as great as ever. The *Christian Union*, however, stands its ground in the matter of fact, and now adds some reasons why public interest in the Lectureship should decline. It says:

> "He was for a few years a leader. His orthodoxy was both liberal and positive. He put rationalism on its defence; and, as an interpreter of the progressive thoughts of a foreign school of teachers, did real service to the American Church. But he lacks moral perspective. He failed to comprehend the moral and theological issues of the latter quarter of the nineteenth century. He allowed himself to become the partisan of a sect within a sect."

The truth is—the true truth, as the French say—that Mr. Cook was for some years an excellent Monday entertainment for ministers tired with their Sunday work, and for religious people of little reading or cultivation of any kind, who were puzzled by the heavy assaults on religion which followed the appearance of Darwin's book, and some smaller publications of Tyndall's and Huxley's. These simple souls were pleased with the rhetorical blows which Mr. Cook administered to the enemies of the faith, and above all with the air of "science" which he managed to give his discourses by charges of inaccuracy and blundering against real scientists. He may have "done real service to the American church"; but that he ever "put rationalism on its defence," would be hard to show. If this means anything, it must mean that some acknowledged representative or representatives of rationalism felt bound to answer him. Who were they? It ought to be easy to name them. We have not the least doubt that "the Boston Monday Lectureship," and his career from first to last, have done religion lasting harm, by giving prominence to a champion of such slender intellectual equipment and such extraordinary recklessness and inaccuracy. We might even go so far as to say that they are one of the least creditable episodes in the intellectual history of New England.

There has been no such contribution of "scientific thought" to theological controversy in a long time as that which the Rev. Dr. Talmage made in his sermon on Sunday. He was speaking of Jonah, and rebutting the charge so often made by scientists and other sceptics that Jonah could not have lived for three days in the whale's belly. Here is the answer, and we advise the Rev. Joseph Cook to look to his laurels, for it is far ahead of any of his "science" that we have ever seen:

> "And as to Jonah remaining alive in the monster's belly for three days—why, the fact is, the gastric juice had no chance—Jonah kept bobbin' around so. And what more natural than that the monster should after this regurgitate Jonah on shore? The sea monster was as tired of Jonah as he was of the fish. There's not the least bit of improbability or impracticability about it."

The theory which Dr. Talmage propounded some years ago, and which formed the subject of some acrimonious controversy with Dr. "Bob" Ingersoll, was that Jonah avoided the action of the gastric juice by taking refuge in the whale's mouth. To this Dr. Ingersoll replied that an inspection of Dr. Talmage's photograph explained how he came to entertain so grotesque a hypothesis.

The appearance of Mr. Chamberlain on the scene with a fresh plan for the settlement of the Irish question is one of the things which now lend a touch of humor to the almost tragic condition of English politics. He is said, we believe, to have now produced something like fifteen proposals for making Ireland happy, as substitutes for Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill, and they are invariably received with much laughter, owing to the fact that he has lost all the influence he ever had with his own party outside the town of Birmingham, where he is gratefully remembered as an efficient municipal reformer and administrator. For some time after he broke with the Liberals, he used to be got to write a letter in behalf of the Liberal-Unionist candidate at "bye-elections," but this was so frequently followed by Gladstonian victories that it began to be very amusing also, and he has dropped it. The trouble with all his plans, as well as with those of the Tories and Liberal Unionists generally, for the pacification of Ireland, is, that they do not take the feelings of the Irish into account. No plan can succeed which the Irish will not accept, and they will not accept any plan about which they are not consulted, and which emanates from men who habitually revile them and their leaders, as Chamberlain does. They hate him as he hates Gladstone, and will not adopt his plans for the same reason as he will not adopt Gladstone's. Human nature is distributed among politicians of all nationalities in tolerably equal proportions.

THE BEHRING SEA QUESTION.

THE President's proclamation forbidding the catching of seals in Behring Sea except by persons authorized by the United States Government, *i. e.*, the Alaska Commercial Company, is issued in pursuance of an act of Congress passed in the last days of the Cleveland Administration. This act is imperative in terms, leaving no discretion with the President. It applies to all persons, of whatever nationality. Although we cannot give law to the subjects of other nations in waters more than a marine league from our shores, we can and must bring the seal fishery within some sort of regulation, unless we are to allow the seals to be destroyed, as we have unfortunately allowed the buffalo to be destroyed on our own territory. The method we have adopted is awkward. It would have been more conformable to reason and courtesy to have concerted a plan with the other nations interested, viz., Great Britain, Russia, and Japan, before warning them off, especially since the official correspondence just published shows that all three were quite willing to join us in measures for protecting the seals.

We judge that these facts were not known to Congress when the act of March 2 was passed. We now stand before the world as having acknowledged the right of other countries to a voice in the settlement of the question, having invited them to join us in adopting a particular policy, having received their acquiescence, and then, without any kind of warning, ordered them out. This is one of the frequent *gaucheries* of the conference committees of Congress. It seems as though Mr. Bayard had been neglectful of his duties in the premises, but we cannot pronounce judgment until we know what were his reasons for not replying in 1887 to the request of the three Governments for a draft of regulations to protect the seal fisheries in Behring Sea. Under the circumstances, we cannot wonder that the Canadians are taken by surprise at the issuing of the proclamation. We may indulge the hope, however, that the proceedings taken under the proclamation may not make the situation more awkward than the act of March 2 has already made it.

It will be recalled that in 1886 and 1887 a number of schooners sailing from British Columbia were seized by our cruisers in Behring Sea for catching seals in violation of our laws. They were released because it was found upon investigation that our laws did not prohibit foreigners from catching seals there, but only our own citizens, and because the right to police Behring Sea outside the three-mile limit, although at one time asserted by Russia while Alaska was under her jurisdiction, had been virtually denied by us at that time, and was at all events a matter of dispute. The necessity of coming to an understanding with other nations claiming and exercising rights of navigation and fishing there was patent. Secretary Bayard accordingly addressed an identical note to all the Powers interested and to several not interested. Among the latter were France, Germany, and Sweden. The note invited the Governments "to enter into such an arrangement with the Government of the United States as will prevent the citizens of either country from killing seal in Behring Sea, at such times and places and by such methods as at present are pursued, and which threaten the speedy extermination of those animals and consequent serious loss to mankind." The assent of all the Governments addressed was received except those of Germany and Sweden. The former did not reply at all. The latter replied that she had no interests in Behring Sea, but would be glad to join hereafter in case her subjects should engage in the seal fishery in that quarter of the globe. The Government of France replied that she had no interests in that quarter, but would none the less be disposed to consider any plan for a conference on the subject. The reply of England was given in a despatch from Minister Phelps, dated November 12, 1887, in the following words:

> "His Lordship [Lord Salisbury] promptly acquiesced in this proposal on the part of Great Britain, and suggested that I should obtain from my Government and submit to him a sketch of a system of regulations which would be adequate for the purpose. I have therefore to request that I may be furnished as early as possible with a draft of such a code as in your judgment should be adopted. I would suggest also that copies of it be furnished at the same time to the Ministers of the United States in Germany, Sweden, and Norway, Russia, France, and Japan, in order that it may be under consideration by the Governments of those countries. A mutual agreement between all the Governments interested may thus be reached at an early day."

Here the matter was, for some unexplained reason, allowed to drop.

Our position on the Aleutian Islands is a very fortunate one. We own the trap to which the fur-seals resort in great numbers every year. Other seal-catchers can only find them in the open waters and in limited numbers, but the result of such fishing is to kill off the females and gradually to exterminate the race. Under the regulated fishing of the islands, nobody is allowed to kill the females, and thus the continuity of the fur-seal family is assured. The British Columbian seal-fisher, like the American buffalo-hunter, has no care for the continuity of the family. He is concerned only to take as many skins as possible. Obviously, something must be done to protect an industry so important to civilized mankind and to the natives of the islands, whose very existence depends upon the preservation of the fishery. The negotiation which was suspended in 1887 ought to be, and we presume will be, renewed. Although the act of March 2 has put us in an unfortunate and somewhat grotesque attitude, we cannot refuse our medicine. We have acknowledged other people's rights in Behring Sea, and we must listen to what they say.

THE PENSION SHARKS.

IN his veto of the Dependent Pension Bill, President Cleveland used the following language: "Recent personal observation and experience constrain me to refer to another result which will inevitably follow the passage of this bill. It is sad, but nevertheless true, that already in the matter of procuring pensions there exists a widespread disregard of truth and good faith, stimulated by those who as agents undertake to establish claims for pensions, heedlessly entered upon by the expectant beneficiary, encouraged, or at least not condemned, by those unwilling to obstruct a neighbor's plans."

Some Republican organs two years ago were inclined to think that the Democratic President was guilty of uttering slanders when he said this. A new witness now takes the stand, who cannot be accused either of Democratic partisanship or of a lack of sympathy with Union soldiers. Gen. H. V. Boynton, the veteran Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, has just sent that journal a letter on the pension question which should command general attention. "The fact is," says Gen. Boynton, "the pension system calls for sharp revision. The pension roll is the most sacred list of the Government. It should not, therefore, be tainted even in the name of patriotism. *There have been estimates made by the best Republican friends which the soldiers ever had, which indicate that at least a quarter of the pension roll is what may be called, without harshness, unworthy.*"

Gen. Boynton points out how this state of things has come about. The chief agency has been the claim-agents, who, with their advertising dodgers and their circulars, have kept the veteran element in constant ferment on the subject of pensions. He admits that there are honorable exceptions, but says that they are few. These agents have held out false expectations, and led thousands upon thousands to apply for pensions who, except for these confidence men, would never have entertained the idea. They also work in countless and insidious ways upon every organization of veterans, and are industrious and untiring in securing petitions for every form of wholesale pension legislation, with which they spur Congressmen to one scheme after another. "As a class," he says, "they have been a demoralizing element in the country, and large numbers of them deserve no other designation than that of sharks."

The situation has become so serious that Gen. Boynton thinks it necessary to sound an alarm to prevent the national bankruptcy which would be threatened by the passage of the service-pension scheme now so zealously pushed. He shows that the appropriations for pensions for the next fiscal year reach the enormous sum of $81,750,000, and that a service pension would require in round numbers fully $100,000,000 a year more—which is, we are persuaded, an underestimate. Moreover, the question of arrears also enters here, since the proposition to remove all limits is pushed with quite as much pertinacity, and with quite as much influence, as is the scheme for a service pension. It is altogether within bounds, Gen. Boynton thinks, to say that the two propositions would carry the pension appropriation to $200,000,000; and here again most students of the subject will hold that he has underestimated the actual outgo required. As the excess of receipts over expenditures has been estimated at only $49,000,000, a great deficiency of course would

be created immediately, and taxes would have to be increased.

This vast outlay would be largely for the benefit of men who have no valid claim whatever upon the Government. Already there are far too many men drawing pensions who are not entitled to them. "There is not a community in the North," says Gen. Boynton, "where there are not men drawing pensions who, all their neighbors know well, are no longer disabled, even if they ever were. Of late years there has been more old-soldiering in connection with obtaining pensions than there ever was in the field. The fact that men were once shot, or once disabled by any of the various casualties of the field, is no equitable reason why they should remain on the pension rolls, if they are now well, unless their first disability brought them into financial need from which they haven't recovered."

What is really needed, in the opinion of this excellent authority, is not the putting of everybody who was ever in the army upon the pension roll, but a rigid scrutiny and close pruning of the present roll, to get off the names of the many who have no right to draw pensions; and then liberal provision for those who are really disabled and destitute, so that no veteran shall be obliged to remain in a poor-house or to depend upon private or organized charity. "But in order to enable the Government to perform this work on the liberal scale which should attend it," Gen. Boynton concludes his letter, "the comrades who are in health and comfortably fixed in life, or so fixed that their own efforts bring them a fair support, should scorn to ask for pensions merely on the ground of having been in the service. They should unite to devise and urge legislation to protect and support these needy ones, as they once cared for their wounded on the field. To those who carried the flag to victory and have present health and are surrounded with moderate comforts, these should be rich compensations far above any that a pension roll can give."

All this is eminently sound doctrine, and the best thing about it is that it comes from a source which entitles it to great weight. It had begun to look as though the pension sharks were to meet with no opposition in their raid upon the Treasury, but Gen. Boynton's manly and earnest protest should serve as a rallying-cry for all those who do not want to see the honor of the Union soldier entirely obscured—all the more since the appointment of Corporal Tanner to be Commissioner of Pensions.

THE NORTHWEST RAILWAY SITUATION.

Under reductions begun by the Chicago, Burlington and Northern Railroad, the old flour and grain rate of 7½ cents per 100 pounds between Minneapolis and Chicago, which was raised to 12½ cents by great efforts last fall, seems likely to be reëstablished. It is unfortunate for the effect upon the investor's mind that this reduction should have followed so soon upon the completion of the inter-State agreement, and it is therefore pertinent to inquire how far the Chicago, Burlington and Northern was justified in its action. In spite of the doubt as to the class to which the Soo Line should be assigned in any grouping of competitors; in spite of the fact that it is in part a rival of the Lake Shore, Michigan Central, and other roads of the Central Traffic Association, it also in part belongs geographically to the group of roads running south from St. Paul and Minneapolis. It was probably a mistaken policy which did not arrange to include this road and the St. Paul and Duluth under the presidents' agreement in some form, for the Minneapolis and Sault Ste. Marie was built by Minneapolis millers for the express purpose of providing an independent outlet for flour, and thus preventing a combination of the Minneapolis-Chicago roads to raise the rate on that traffic—in short, to frustrate the very plan and object for which the presidents' agreement was made. In railroading, as in all other branches of trade, the one competitor settles the pace for all the rest.

But there is one factor more powerful than the Soo Line which must soon determine the question of Minneapolis rates, and that is the open lake. It is a fact, all-important in any study of the railroad situation in the Northwest, that Duluth during navigation is as near New York as is Chicago, and that flour or grain can be and is carried at the same tariff from Duluth to Buffalo as from Chicago to Buffalo. If we remember that Minneapolis is 150 miles from Duluth, we are prepared to understand why the flour rate for those 150 miles is the maximum rate which can be obtained on through shipments from Minneapolis to Chicago, three times the distance. Hence we see the reason of the great pressure brought to bear upon the St. Paul and Duluth Road last year to advance its rates to the head of Lake Superior, a pressure which the millers, mindful of fixed Liverpool values and of the necessity of cheapest transportation for any profit on export sales, succeeded in resisting. The position of Duluth is not always correctly understood as regards transportation interests. We think of that city as far away from Nebraska, for example, but in truth the distance from Omaha to Duluth is almost exactly the same as from Omaha to Chicago; and of all that great wheat country lying north of Nebraska and Iowa, Duluth is the natural geographical water outlet. It is only a question of time when these conditions will assert themselves, and as the currents of trade flow from the interior to Duluth and to Chicago, the roads between will find it hard to secure competitive traffic at high rates, though increased local business then may take its place.

There is another complication in the problem, the milling-in-transit question. This has many ramifications, but the principle can be briefly stated. It is conceded by all railroads that Minneapolis as a milling centre is supreme. Tariffs must take this into account. If all wheat-carrying roads terminated there, and all flour-carrying roads led from that city, it would be easy to arrange the matter; but the road which brings in the wheat and can carry out the flour, feels, rightly and naturally enough, that the flour belongs to it. The Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul has lines into fine wheat districts. The rate from a wheat station to Chicago is, we will say, 20 cents per 100 pounds, and from this station to Minneapolis it is 12½c. The agreed rate meanwhile from Minneapolis to Chicago is 12½, making a total of 25 cents to Chicago if the wheat was stopped in Minneapolis, ground, and reshipped in the regular way. But the road with feeders grants permission to have the wheat milled en route and reforwarded as flour at the old through rate of twenty cents. It is evident that this saving of five cents per hundred will secure to this road as flour through to Chicago every car of grain which it brings into Minneapolis; and a railroad like the Burlington and Northern, which is dependent upon traffic from Minneapolis straight, and has no branch feeders, will get nothing unless it makes from Minneapolis to Chicago the same rate as its neighbor's proportion of the through rate from the wheat field, which in the case mentioned is the difference between 20 and 12½, or 7½c. per 100 pounds. In addition to this stop-over freight, the milling-in-transit road thinks itself entitled also to a fair share of the "free" grain and flour, for which it hopes to receive the higher 12½-cent rate, a total which the non-transit roads generally think much more than belongs to it. A plan to harmonize these differences was thought out by which the transit road was to redeem its orders when carried by other lines at a certain price, but the old difficulty crops out continually.

To show where this "free" grain comes from, and in general to give a clearer idea of the situation, we present the figures below, taken from the report of the Minneapolis Chamber of Commerce for 1888:

Statement of flour and grain received at Minneapolis and shipped out in 1888:

Railroads.	Am't rec'd in bushels, flour being reduced to wheat.	Shipped out.	
		Flour, No. of bbls.	Wheat, & flour reduced to wheat, in bush.
C. M. & St. P.....	9,317,485	1,111,005	13,150,030
Omaha..... (C. & N. W)	4,669,505	954,771	5,612,780
Minn. & St. Louis.. (Rock Island)	2,210,382	242,909	1,410,360
Wis. Central.....	1,778	184,500	1,171,530
Manitoba	21,538,735	112,615	879,528
St. Paul & Duluth..	71,730	856,520	3,925,020
No. Pacific.....	5,450,812	4,727	42,282
Chic. St. P. & Kas. City	111,135	865,688	4,749,810
C. B. & N.....	11,437	1,512,198	7,356,370
Minn. & Pacific..	509,010	245	29,030
Soo	975,593	931,502	4,309,370
	44,867,600	6,776,680	42,636,100

The excess of wheat over flour shipments on the Chicago, Minneapolis and St. Paul can be best explained by saying that the wheat probably went to supply local millers, not much of it being exported. The above figures of course include local as well as

through shipments. The strong hold of the Chicago, Burlington and Northern upon the flour traffic is strikingly shown, while nearly all the south-bound lines show an increase of shipments out over supplies in. The great supply of wheat, one-half of the entire receipts, is brought into Minneapolis by the Manitoba, one of the largest wheat-carrying roads of the world. Heretofore this railway has been content with carrying the grain in; lately, however, the company has completed a line of its own from Minneapolis to Duluth, and thus holds the balance of power. It is known that its president is very aggressive, and already there is railroad gossip that a milling-in-transit plan has been talked over to secure for its line out to Duluth a goodly share of the large wheat shipments carried into Minneapolis. The danger of such a system, if put in force on the Manitoba, to the Minneapolis-Chicago roads would be extreme; it would at once put in doubt one-half of the free supplies of wheat which as flour they have been carrying South. Fortunately, other considerations work against the adoption of the plan by that company.

If this be a true statement of the situation in the Northwest, if the competition of the Soo Line and of the lakes must be taken into account, and if milling-in-transit complications threaten all attempts at peace and high tariffs, it would seem to follow that large net earnings between Minneapolis and Chicago on through freight must be problematical for the future. Under the present system of tariff-making, the local rates fall with the through, but this may not always be so. A through-shipment from Minneapolis to New York could be taken at a proportion to Chicago less than the local rate. All through-shipments could be so taken, but are not, for that would ruin Chicago's commission trade in Northwest grain and flour. If any fact stands out prominently in our Western railroad history, it is the fact that Chicago can bend all tariffs and rates to her own needs, no matter what the consequences may be. This is certainly true of the past. Whether it will be true for the future, no one can say.

THE REASONS FOR PRIVATE LAND-OWNERSHIP.

Our article on Henry George's land theories has called forth many letters of protest—so many that we have not sufficient space to publish them. We are accused of unfairness in two points: first, in misstating Henry George's position; and, second, in drawing some inferences from Mr. Cowen's facts about Maryland's oyster-beds which were a little different from those of Mr. Cowen himself. To the second charge we plead guilty. Our inferences did go somewhat further than Mr. Cowen's. That was why we made an article of our own, instead of quoting part of his. But the other and more serious charge, of misstating George's position, we deny *in toto*. We believe that the misunderstanding is on the part of our critics rather than ourselves.

We have received more than one letter containing phrases like this: "Your article on the single-tax theory, or Henry George's land theory, as you prefer to call it." Now we did *not* publish an article on the single-tax theory; and we do *not* prefer to call it the Henry George land theory. We much prefer to call each by its own name. We believe that the confusion between the two has resulted in great mischief. The single-tax idea involves a practical proposition which deserves most serious consideration, and which, within limits at any rate, has a great deal to be said in its favor. The Henry George land theory is an historical generalization which is all but wholly false. The attempt to support a partially true idea by false history involves hopeless confusion.

The Henry George land theory may be stated as follows:

> "Historically, as ethically, private property in land is robbery. It nowhere springs from contract; it can nowhere be traced to perceptions of justice or expediency; it has everywhere had its birth in war and conquest, and in the selfish use which the cunning have made of superstition and law" ('Progress and Poverty,' p. 333).

If this were a true statement of the case—if private property in land were a purely arbitrary institution, the result of force rather than expediency—then each industrial abuse which arises under the present system would furnish at least a prima-facie ground for its total abolition. But this statement is not true. As we showed in our previous article, private property in land has been gradually adopted as being the only way of securing the investment of capital for the sake of remote returns. Under any other system the land was exhausted. Where all agriculture was rude, common ownership could prevail. As improved methods were adopted, the law adapted itself to new technical conditions. The community which did not thus change fell behind in the industrial race. Private property in land, instead of producing the evils of over-population which George charges upon it, postponed the appearance of those evils, by enabling a system to be adopted which would support a larger population with less labor than under the old.

The history of agricultural land tenure repeated itself in mining law. Where the miners roamed from place to place, like tribes in the nomadic state, no rights to land were recognized other than the right of occupancy. When matters had so developed that capital was needed for mining, laws were adopted protecting land tenure. The same process is repeating itself in the matter of oyster culture. As between the two systems which have been actually tried—common use and private ownership—the latter has given far the best results for the community as well as the individual owners. So marked has the constant repetition of this history become that Prof. Wagner of Berlin, after a most careful examination of the whole subject, declares that "the argument against any absolute right of private land-ownership becomes a strong justification of such ownership relatively to present conditions." He also takes pains to say that it is for the sake of the community as a whole, and not for the landowners alone, that the system has proved necessary. And these are not the words of an "orthodox" economist, but of one who is called a Socialist in many quarters.

It must be admitted that the distribution of land under the present system is, in many cases, the result of force and fraud. But the system itself is not. To confuse the two things is a serious fallacy. Any practical inferences which might be drawn under such a confusion would almost certainly be bad. It would be like refusing to arm soldiers with breech-loading rifles, for fear they might fire away their ammunition too rapidly. We are quite willing to admit that a better system than the present one is conceivable. Anything which should give the same incentive to improvements that exists at present, and at the same time avoid the abuses under which we suffer, would be a great advance. A reform which should take burdens off from invested capital and transfer them to the owners of ground rent would be a desirable one. But we believe that the proposal of the more radical single-tax men would do vastly more harm than good.

In the first place, it is not quite true that the security for improvements, even if realized, would be as great an incentive to the owner as the right to the land itself. The "magic of property" is a somewhat indefinable economic factor, but it is none the less a real one.

Second, and far more important, we do not believe that the proposed security for improvements could be made full or complete. The practical alternative in the past has been insecure tenure or direct ownership. We have no doubt that George and his followers sincerely believe that a middle course is possible; but the failure to carry it out in practice is most conspicuous. The various instances cited by Henry George, as showing private ownership to be unnecessary, are cases where improvements were not made on the scale demanded by modern civilization; cases where people could be content to support a smaller population in a ruder state.

George's idea is, that the assessors should tax ground rent 100 per cent., and leave improvements untaxed. But what board of assessors could be trusted to determine where the value of land ended, and where that of improvements began? Any man would be afraid to put too much capital into his land on such terms. If his investment proved less wise than was expected, he would have to bear the whole loss; if it proved wiser, he would enjoy none of the gain. The greater the wisdom with which a man had managed such property, the less protection would he have against the arbitrary action of the assessors in depriving him of the fruit of his good management. If it were the duty of the State to take the whole rent, everybody would be shy of giving it the power to take too much. Any theoretical security for improvements would be practically insecure.

But there is still another and perhaps deeper difficulty. A sudden reversal of precedent, which takes away the security for property of one kind, reacts upon security of every other kind. If people suddenly destroy land titles in obedience to the theo-

ries of Henry George, why will they not abolish other titles in obedience to the theories of Proudhon? If one form of property can be confiscated, the practical guarantees for the safety of other forms of property are greatly weakened. The insecurity thus created is a destructive force of tremendous moment.

When George says, "We should satisfy the law of justice, we should meet all economic requirements, by at one stroke abolishing all private titles, declaring all land public property, and letting it out to the highest bidders in lots to suit, under such conditions as would sacredly guard the private right to improvements," we are reminded of a recent piece of railroad legislation in one of our States. A law had been passed looking towards decided reductions in rates and fares. It was feared that the effect of this law would be such as to hinder the investment of new capital for building railroads in the State; and to avoid this unpleasant contingency, it was provided that this act should not apply to any railroad hereafter to be constructed. The attempt to confiscate rent and hold improvements sacred has a little more theoretical justification than the attempt to confiscate old railroads and hold new ones sacred; but we do not believe that investors would place much reliance on the promised distinction in either case.

LAWYERS IN POLITICS.

The trouble in which Sir Richard Webster, one of the ablest lawyers at the English bar, has got himself in the Parnell case is one of the natural results of the general confidence felt in his party that the *Times's* charges were going to kill the Irish question as a disturbing element in English politics. When the *Times* brought out the forged letters, with an air of triumph, it not only made the passage of the Coercion Bill very easy, but seemed to insure the complete disgrace and political destruction of the Irish leaders. Sir Richard Webster, therefore, when he took the *Times* brief, was doubtless carried away by the political considerations which often govern great lawyers in the conduct of politico-legal trials. It is not possible, in fact, for a counsel in such cases as Horne Tooke's, or Queen Caroline's, or Peltier's, or O'Connell's, to live within the four corners of his brief, and take simply a professional interest in the proceedings. He becomes, in spite of himself, the champion of the political party whose fortunes are to be affected by the result, is thrilled by their indignation and inspired by their hopes, and feels as if their future was dependent on his exertions. People understand all this, and are not displeased by it. Sir Charles Russell, an Irishman and an ardent Home-Ruler, for instance, has brought a good deal of heat into the conduct of the defence, and has more than once shocked the judges' sense of decorum by the vigor of his language, but he has not shocked or surprised the British public. They know that he in this trial stands for his party, and has to bear the burden of far graver responsibilities than the guilt or innocence of Parnell or his individual followers. People expect a man in such a situation to glow with something higher than professional ardor; they are disappointed and even disgusted if the man does not under such circumstances get the better of the lawyer.

What has brought Sir Richard Webster to grief, therefore, is not that, although a Government lawyer, he took the *Times's* brief, and not that, having taken it, he brought some of the passion of a politician to the conduct of the case, but that, after he had taken the brief, with a full appreciation of its exceptional political importance, he either wilfully neglected to go to the bottom of the *Times's* case and find out on what it rested, or did go to the bottom of it, discovered its weakness, and trusted to luck to keep the knowledge of it from the defendants. In either case, they say, his conduct was "unprofessional," to use a mild word. His speeches in Parliament before the trial and in the O'Donnell case indicated that he fully believed in the authenticity of the letters, and was not unwilling that the expression of this belief should influence public opinion against the Parnellites. But people ask with amazement, Was it possible that in a case of this magnitude a counsel of Sir Richard's standing kept his eyes fixed on his brief, as if he were trying a horse case, and never asked Soames, the attorney, and Walter, the plaintiff, where they got these letters, or whether they had any reason for believing them genuine except the resemblance of the signatures? Or, if he did ask them, and they told him, is it possible that he neither made nor suggested any inquiries as to Pigott's character? And, finally, what did he mean by calling Pigott on the trial, when he had had for a week in his possession a letter from Pigott to Soames warning him that he could not stand cross-examination? This letter—seeing the terrible nature of the exposure—Sir Richard said in the House of Commons when attacked, that he had communicated five days before Pigott was called, to Parnell's counsel. He had, on Monday last, in the presence of their indignant denials, to confess that he was mistaken; that he and Soames had kept it to themselves, and had produced Pigott just the same, hoping, doubtless, that he would somehow pull through.

We cannot recall a more lamentable situation than that in which this confession places him. It has given the Liberals fair justification for tearing him to pieces, but it has also furnished one of the most curious illustrations on record of the professional solidarity of the bar. There are in the present House of Commons seventy-three barristers and twenty-two solicitors, probably about equally divided between the parties—that is to say, about fifty are Liberals. When the division was ordered the other night on the motion to reduce the Attorney-General's salary, by way of censure, twenty Liberal lawyers walked out of the House before the vote. Had they remained they would have reduced the Government majority to forty-six, the lowest point it has yet reached, and the moral effect would have been very great. But they followed the immemorial custom of the bar in standing by a brother lawyer in trouble—a custom over which the public has vainly grumbled for twenty centuries. There is no other calling in which the *esprit de corps* is so strong, in which professional jealousy so rarely finds outward expression. Doctors are very faithful to each other, but their quarrels are numerous and savage. Clerical bickerings, too, are very bitter and not infrequent, and soldiers and sailors are by no means unwilling to use the knife of criticism on each other. But "brother lawyers" seldom fail each other in times of danger, necessity, and tribulation. The effect of this last display of fidelity on the English voters is said, however, to be very unfavorable to the future prospects of legal candidates for Parliament.

FRANKLIN'S ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

Washington, March 20, 1889.

It has been a somewhat puzzling question to historical students, how Franklin's proposition for a confederation of the colonies was received by the Continental Congress in 1775. The journals of the Congress, carelessly kept and more carelessly printed, contain no mention of such a proposition. Though "bro't in by committee," as an endorsement shows, no committee was appointed to draft one, no formal report was made upon it when submitted, and no correspondence of the day contains mention of any debate upon the proposals. It was, to all appearances, the individual act of Franklin, informally performed, and the treatment of it by Congress proved how little support it could count upon. Mr. Bancroft merely notes that the proposition was, "for the time, put aside"; and Mr. Bigelow, in his edition of Franklin, says: "What proceedings were had to them cannot be ascertained from the journals; but it is probable that after some debate they were referred to a committee." In his correspondence Franklin makes no mention of his original proposition or its fate, and does not appear to have given it a second thought—an omission suggestive, perhaps, of the determined and convincing opposition on the part of Congress. Even the historical rake of Peter Force—and a very fine-toothed rake it was—did not discover any facts respecting the inception, framing, submission, and final postponement of this plan of union; and, but for the existence of the original manuscript of the articles in the collections of the Department of State at Washington, it might with good reason be doubted if such a scheme had been laid before Congress.

Important as was the intention of Franklin, and original and sweeping as his plan must have seemed to a body but barely launched upon the sea of rebellion, it is curious that so little impression was made upon the members. Had it met with the approval of a majority in Congress, or had it given occasion to a marked difference of opinion, it would have been alluded to in some of the letters that the delegates wrote to the colonial governments, many of which have come to us and form the best source of information on the acts and debates of the Congress. Meagre as are these records, an act of union would surely deserve mention, as a year later the Declaration of Independence was widely discussed while pending before Congress, and, subsequently, the Articles of

Confederation that were based upon the earlier propositions of Franklin.

In looking over a very imperfect file of one of the rarest of colonial newspapers, the *Virginia Gazette*, my attention was attracted by an extract of a letter printed in its columns, as was usual at that time, without names, but containing every evidence of undoubted authenticity :

Extract of a letter from a gentleman in Philadelphia to his friend in this city [Williamsburg], dated November 24.

"The confederation is an article mentioned in your letter. Let me give you a state of that matter: in the last congress it was observed by a gentleman, with whose extensive knowledge and abilities the world is well acquainted [*i. e.*, Benjamin Franklin], that when we set out originally upon the plan of a commercial opposition, an instrument was formed by which the colonies were bound to stand by one another till certain ends were obtained. This was the association; that Great Britain had now rendered an opposition by arms necessary, in which case he thought there should be also some bond of union, in writing, that each colony might know how far it had a right to rely on its sister colonies. He therefore introduced a form of confederation to be moulded into any shape thought proper, and merely to set the thing a-going. I do not recollect whether it was read or not, but I well remember that the congress refused to enter into any consideration of it, to send it to the conventions for their approbation, to have it printed for public perusal, to have any entry made in their journals of such a paper being offered, or in any manner to make any order which should imply either approbation or disapprobation of it; it was simply permitted to lie on the table, from which it followed, that if gentlemen thought proper to say anything about it afterwards, it was to be on their own authority individually, and not as proceeding by the order, or even the desire, of congress. Since this, not a word has ever passed in congress upon it, nor had we heard anything without doors till Mr. Inglis informed us such a paper had been solemnly laid before a neighboring convention for them to say whether they would accede to or reject it in the lump, it being said that the alteration or diminution even of a letter would not be admitted; that in the lump they chose to decline it; and that the thing began to make some noise in Virginia. This is the whole I know of it. Though I might not approve of the confederation proposed, perhaps, as it stood (for really I do not remember what it was), yet I am ready openly to declare to the world it is my opinion we ought to be bound together by some treaty of alliance, or confederacy, in which the objects of the war should be defined, the terms of closing it delineated, and the colonies of the union bound to each other to contribute their respective force to obtain these objects, and when these objects were attained, that any one colony should have a right to say they would go no farther." (*Virginia Gazette*, December 13, 1775.)

This letter throws not a little side light upon what has been already published. John Adams, whose sense of self-importance fortunately led him to keep a note-book of the events passing before him, came to the second Congress full of ideas of independence and a union of the colonies—independence of the mother country and a union among themselves. From conversations with the delegates of other colonies, he became convinced that such was the "general sense at least of a considerable majority of that body," and an opportunity for urging his views soon presented itself. Congress assembled on May 10, 1775, and, after a few days spent in organization, was at once confronted with the perplexing question of what the individual colonies should do for themselves, and what might be expected from a general control. For up to this time the Eastern colonies had monopolized attention as the centre of action. It was a New England army before Boston, commanded by provincial officers, and not subject to the direction of Congress. New York applied for "advice" how to "conduct themselves with regard to the troops expected there." That was but an example of what was asked of the Congress, for the inefficiency of the provincial generals before Boston called loudly for a change, and this change the Provincial Congress was only too willing to lay upon the Continental Congress.

With such responsibilities before it, it was a perfectly logical step to regard the possibilities of a more complete union than was then afforded by the Congress acting as a Revolutionary body and meeting the emergencies as they arose. Adams's ideas would thus be received with favor, and were in a measure adopted. The army before Boston was made a Continental army under Continental pay, control, and officers. A Continental treasury was constituted, Continental paper money issued, and in many other ways a spirit of union was manifested. But all this was done without any formal declaration of an independence of British control; and a spirit of moderation, a desire to temporize in the hope of a peaceable reconciliation with the mother country, more than any other single factor, led to the postponement of what should have been the first steps—a declaration of independence, a form of confederation and free ports, according to some such plan as Franklin's propositions embodied. This peace-at-any-price party of that day (and John Dickinson was one of its leaders) received its support chiefly from the Middle and Southern colonies, the New Englanders being the "radicals"; and its strength was sufficient to defeat the measures that were so urgently pressed by Adams.

It was very natural that Franklin should have presented a plan for a confederation. His experience in the Congress of 1754 proved his earnest desire to bring about a union, and his moderation and popular esteem made him a fitting instrument to overcome the opposition of the Dickinson party. Adams had had a sharp altercation with Dickinson, and had very likely gone to Franklin to enlist his aid against his (Franklin's) colleague. At all events, the letter we have just quoted lends a new interest to Adams's noted letter against Dickinson—the "certain great fortune and piddling genius, whose fame has been trumpeted so loudly, has given a silly cast to our whole doings." Congress ought to have had in its hands "a month ago, the whole legislative, executive, and judicial of the whole continent, and have completely modelled a constitution." This was written on July 24, or three days after the Franklin articles had been tabled, and postponed, according to all appearances, through the efforts of the Dickinson party.

It will be curious to know how the draft of these articles, without having received the endorsement of Congress, was submitted to the local legislatures of the respective colonies. The writer of the letter speaks of its solemn submission to a "neighboring convention," and the fact that the draft is printed in the New Jersey archives (vol. x. p. 691), leads me to believe that New Jersey was the "neighboring" colony. This conjecture is further supported by the fact that Charles Inglis, A.M., was one of the signers of the "Address of a Committee of the Church of England in New York and New Jersey to Secretary Hillsborough, relative to the distressed state of the Church in those parts, through the want of Bishops," and probably was from New Jersey. This is, of course, only conjecture, as "Mr. Inglis" is too indefinite a description to pin a positive statement upon. Was the draft sent to any other colony? That it should "make some noise in Virginia" may show that it was sent there also, or had been printed in one of the *Gazettes*.

Fortunately, from an English source, we are able in a manner to trace the matter a little further, and in so doing to add a proof of the authenticity of the letter from the *Virginia Gazette*. The writer of that letter speaks of the individual authority of the members (*responsibility* would have been a better term) for any action on the proposition. The delegates from South Carolina sent it to the Provincial Congress with the following letter:

"The Provincial Congress are to view the following articles as a subject which will be proposed to the Continental Congress at their next session; it therefore becomes the duty of the Provincial Delegates now assembled, to instruct the gentlemen whom they shall make choice of to represent them in the next Continental Congress what they are to express to be the sense of this province. The former delegates beg that this plan may be considered, not as having had the sanction of the Continental Congress, or as recommended by them, or as expressing the sentiments of the Delegates who represented this province in the last Continental Congress, but wish they may be dispassionately debated, and approved or condemned upon their own intrinsic merit."

Unfortunately, the letter is without date or signatures, and may have been a mere circular addressed to all the local legislative bodies. It was accompanied by the articles as prepared by Franklin, and was probably intercepted by the British.

One further step can be given. The proposition was laid before the Provincial Congress, sitting at Hillsborough, on August 21, as a "paper purporting a confederation of the united colonies," and after some debate the following resolution was framed:

"That the committee [of the whole House] have taken into consideration the plan of general confederation between the United Colonies, and are of opinion that the same is not at present eligible; and it is also the opinion of the Committee that the delegates of this province ought to be instructed not to consent to any plan of confederation which may be offered in an ensuing Congress, until the same shall be laid before and approved by the Provincial Congress. That the present association ought to be further relied on for bringing about a reconciliation with the parent State, and a further confederacy ought only to be adopted in case of the last necessity."

It may not be useless to add a word of conjecture as to the author of the letter. The Virginia delegates to the Congress of 1775 were: Peyton Randolph, George Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, Edmund Pendleton, Benjamin Harrison, and Richard Bland. The writer of the letter must have been in Congress in July, when the Franklin propositions were submitted, and probably in November, when the letter was written. Randolph retired in May and died in October, Jefferson being elected in his place. Washington was out of Congress when the articles were submitted, Henry was not reëlected, and Bland and Pendleton had both resigned before the end of August. Lee and Harrison were thus the only two members of the delegation of Virginia who were present at both dates. Lee was quite as much of a "radical" as Adams, and would probably have felt the postponement of the scheme in July with sufficient force to have recalled the circumstances attending its reading—for it was read when presented, as an endorsement by Charles Thomson, the Secretary of the Congress, proves—more definitely than the writer. This leaves only Harrison, a man of known moderation that oftentimes amounted almost to indifference. When Harrison soon after visited the camp with Lynch and Franklin, he was shocked by the extreme democratic views he heard expressed; and General Charles Lee, who never hesitated to blurt out the truth, and could never be accounted a conservative in any direction, made his (Harrison's) surprise the text of a letter to Benjamin Rush,

warning him to repress his extreme sentiments, as unacceptable to the Southern colonies. The matter possesses some interest, and it is to be hoped some of your readers will be able to throw more light upon it.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

A DAY IN ALTENBURG.

LEIPZIG, February 21, 1889.

THE rain was just beginning to fall as I stepped out of the railway carriage at the Altenburg station, and my first care was to inquire when there would come a train to carry me back to Leipzig. Having ascertained this, I took a hasty observation from the station platform, and, seeing nothing remarkable on either hand, determined to follow my fellow-passengers, who were moving off all in the same direction. The feeling of agreeable anticipation that usually accompanies setting foot for the first time in a new place was considerably blunted by this wet reception. When I left Leipzig, an hour before, the sun was shining brightly, and, in spite of the season of the year, there was scarcely a touch of winter in the air. Fortunately, I had brought an umbrella, and, armed with this, I made up my mind to do my sight-seeing in spite of the rain, and get back to Leipzig before evening.

Five minutes' walk, followed strictly in the wake of my car-companions, brought me into full view of the bold rock upon which is built—so fitly that it seems only a natural development of the rock itself—the Schloss of the Dukes of Sachsen-Altenburg. In the hollow at its base, and up the slope of the hillside opposite, lay the old town, a collection of picturesquely distorted old houses, enclosing several church-spires in their midst, and here and there leaving space for a larger building of modern erection. The red tiles on the high-peaked roofs shone through the moist atmosphere with that soft effect so easily reproducible in a water-color. As far as they were concerned, it would have been a pity to have the sun shine. Red tiles look incomparably better in the wet.

Comforting myself with this reflection, I continued along what was evidently the "main street" of this portion of the town, and, after turning a short curve following the outline of the hill, found myself at the driveway entrance to the Schloss. A stately road, very brown when I saw it, with recent gravel, winds up the side of the cliff, fringed by a low stone wall that gives it finish and an even edge against the sky. Two old stone gate-posts, placed in face of the town several feet above where the ground begins to rise, add that imposing something which gate-posts seldom fail to lend a road. In ordinary cases, one accepts them as a sort of guarantee that the road leads somewhere worth going to; they convey a promise and announce a patronage. In this case, where no such guarantee is needed, one having only to look up to see the obvious goal of the journey, they might seem superfluous; but, whether from the association of habit or some other cause, here too they add distinctly to the imposing effect. The effect was inviting as well as imposing, and as I began the ascent, I half expected to gain a region above the level of the rain clouds, where sight-seeing would be made easier. The celerity of my approach, however, proved conclusively the extravagance of such hopes; the elevation, though abrupt, being really very slight. I paused a moment where the road bent, almost doubling on itself, and looked down through the rain on the old town. Altenburg, I have read, is mentioned in a manuscript as old as 980; and though it contains at the present day assuredly no monuments of so early a period, it did not seem so wildly improbable that some of the mustiest of the old houses had originated in the rebuilding that followed the burning of the town by the Hussites in 1430. I say the "mustiest" advisedly, for if there be any specimens of this period still extant, they must, by measure of their solidity, be less picturesque than the more slender and toppling structures, enriched with quaint gables and lattices and striped with cross-timbers, of later erection. Of this latter description are the great majority of Altenburg houses, and where they exist, the view—to American eyes—must always be an interesting one.

The road enters the castle-yard under a square tower which has stood since some time in the eleventh century. Nothing else about this tower is particularly calculated to arouse enthusiasm, and even in respect to age it is surpassed by another tower, this one round, which stands detached on the highest ground of the court, and is alleged to date from the eighth century. From the top of this, one can see (when the rain permits) all the country around, and the approach of all the foes of Altenburg in times past has, without doubt, been heralded from its lookout windows. The various buildings composing the Schloss join hands in an irregular ring about this tower; those to the rear of it being the humble quarters of retainers and the guard of soldiery. A sunken place about in the middle of the court contains a not very limpid pool intended for the watering of horses. On a shaft rising out of the water stands a little old-fashioned stone image of the god Poseidon, trident in hand, who looks, as far as one can make out his expression, thankful to be so safely removed from the muddy element below him. The main building of the Schloss is quite a plain, barrack-like structure, which, on account of its mass, makes a good effect when seen from below, but is uninteresting on closer inspection. The part occupied by the ducal family is all new, the Schloss with the grand *Saal* having been burned in 1864. Not a soul was in sight while I made my observations, save the sentinel at the gateway, and he had retired to a corner sheltered from the rain. I made up my mind to follow his example, but walked first towards the residential portion of the Schloss to have a look at a three-tiered gallery that decorated one of the walls in striking incongruity with the prevailing style of architecture. As I passed by the windows of the ground-floor, an individual in the uniform of an army officer jumped up from his seat, and, advancing to the casement, continued to observe me as long as I remained, with an interest that I could not but consider flattering. Already on climbing the road to the castle, I had remarked, fluttering over the wing nearest the town, the tiny green and white flag that announced the presence of the Duke in his "ancestral halls." Was it possible that his Highness found it so dull on this rainy day that the passing of a casual stranger assumed for him an altogether disproportional interest?

The salvation of Germany on a wet day lies in her cafés. There is hardly any place so small as not to contain a more or less agreeable retreat where excellent beer or passable chocolate, and that national institution the *Fliegende Blätter*, may be obtained. In all but the largest cities, some of the tables scattered about the main room of such an establishment are pretty sure to be occupied at almost any time of day by groups of smokers or card-players, whose utter indifference to the passage of time inspires one with the most delightful idea of the nature of their employment in life. The atmosphere of these places is at all times quiet and civilizing, and they are, for the interested stranger, excellent corners from which to observe particular types and national characteristics. It was with the ideal of such a sheltering corner before my eyes that I came down from the castle into the town again, without having made an attempt to see the interior of the court chapel, of which the long windows and slender spire formed one of the best "bits" in the view of the big pile from below. This I made up my mind to see later in the day, on the occasion of a second visit, when, it was to be hoped, I should be somewhat drier and the weather would have improved. In the meantime, without having to go far on the narrow little street that led up the opposite hillside, I found the place I was seeking. It was literally a corner—a corner room as well as a corner house—and the surroundings were quite as I had foreseen, from the group of interested card-players to the last number of the *Fliegende Blätter* lying open on the table. It was pleasant to be received with a bow and greeting from the affable proprietor, pleasanter still to feel the genial warmth of the great German stove, and yet pleasanter to turn over the *Fliegende Blätter* with one hand, while retaining with the other hold of a cup of steaming hot chocolate. Agreeable, too, when heard from this point of vantage, was the sound of falling rain on the windows, so that one could give up thinking about the weather, or even be willing to have it grow worse. The landlord shifted his seat from table to table, so as to slight none of his customers, and now and then hurried out to give an order, or rose to welcome newcomers. The group of card-players kept steadily on with their game, which appeared to be one of the complicated order—possibly *Skat*, which is so difficult that few Germans play it correctly—and only looked about them when their emptied glasses made it desirable to give a hint to the waiter. Almost every one smoked, and the newspapers of Leipzig and Berlin found a wide circulation; in Germany no one buys a single paper, but goes to a café, where, for the same expense, he can read them all. The whole scene possessed in an eminent degree that quality expressed by the German *Gemüthlichkeit*; there is an English equivalent for the thing, but none for the word.

Comfortable as the thing was, this was not seeing Altenburg, and as the afternoon advanced and the rain continued to fall with gentle insistence, there seemed nothing for it but to start out for another tramp in the wet. This time I walked away from the castle, intending to reach it again in a long circuit through the crooked little town. A few steps from my place of shelter brought me out before a pretty church, more in the English style than any other I had seen in Germany. It had been rebuilt rather than restored (I know not whether in the original style), and looked completely new. The door yielding to my pressure, I walked in, and found the interior even more English than the outside; some dim pictures and tablets, with Old German inscriptions, exposed on the walls of the vestibule, were the only signs of antiquity. After this my walk resolved itself into a chase after towers; new ones were continually revealing themselves to me, and then disappearing again before I could trace them to any foundation in the soil. It seemed as if the streets had been contrived with the subtle purpose of screening these towers from the intrusion of the indiscreet transatlantic visitor. Many of them were large enough to be connected with very capacious churches, yet the disposition of the streets

about them made it necessary to give up the supposition that such existed. In the course of a long pursuit of these architectural enigmas, I learned that it was perfectly possible to see a tower at the end of a certain street and on turning into that street to find none there. Two brick towers in particular, rising side by side to a considerable height, baffled my endeavors for upwards of half an hour. In America two such towers could exist only for the purpose of indicating a "sacred edifice" somewhere immediately below them; what they indicate in Germany I am unable to say, for after finally coming within a stone's throw of them, I found further approach prevented by a guard of small houses clumped defensively about their base. A flight of stone steps leading to a street on a higher level permitted me to get even closer, but there all trail ceased, and one was obliged to conclude that access to the towers, to all but winged creatures, was denied. The one fine tower which it is easy to approach is that of the pretty Renaissance *Rathhaus*, which stands on the principal square, or market-place, of the town. Here are also some quaint little houses, one of which, having the motto "Verbum Domini timeo" (if I have remembered it aright) carved over the doorway, struck me as being just the cottage for Love to reside in, provided his proverbial abode can be conceived of as situated in a small German town instead of in the green country fields where it belongs.

As I walked back in the direction of the Schloss, my eye was attracted by a handbill announcing that Nicolai's opera "The Merry Wives of Windsor" would be performed that evening at the Ducal Theatre. Curiosity to see the theatre, added to a desire I had already begun to feel to spend a night in this interesting little town, brought me to the hasty conclusion of deferring my return to Leipzig until the next day, when I should have time to visit the Castle in the morning. In order to render this decision irrevocable, I lost no time in purchasing a ticket for the evening's performance. Although willing, on this occasion, to be mildly extravagant, I found myself unable to pay more than a mark and a half, or about thirty-seven cents, for one of the best seats in the house. This was due, of course, to the Duke, whose support of the theatre makes possible the giving of performances at such low prices of admission. It was impossible not to indulge in some quite new reflections on the convenience, in certain cases, of the paternal form of government. There seemed no doubt, at least, that their Duke was a blessing to Altenburgers, for without him they would miss the very tangible advantage of a theatre to go to, besides the less substantial, if no less prized, right to have their town marked with a capital star in the German geographies. The petty German princes have, as every one knows, lost all but the semblance of political power; but the semblance has, after all, a value, and the presence of a court does an immense deal to give an air of distinction to a little provincial city. During the entr'actes, when it is the custom in Germany to promenade in the foyer, I had a chance to catch a glimpse of Altenburg's first society. Its most considerable personages, after the ducal family, seemed to be some officers of rank, whose long uniform coats give their owners as much as possible the figures of spools of cotton. Such a thing as unbending on the part of these individuals is, of course, impossible. A slow walk, allowing a generous clanking of their swords on the uncarpeted floor, and a haughty stare, seemed to suit them best. There was some visiting between the occupants of the boxes, and an interchange of stiff politeness, the frigidity of which may have been the result of the icy atmosphere of the foyer. It seemed to me that that cold foyer, those stiff positions and frozen bows, gave no inadequate idea of the *tristesse* that must pervade a society in which the courtly forms remain when the spirit that created them has disappeared. I thought of the melancholy figure at the window of the Schloss, and hastened, with a shudder, to the warmth below. But if these people bore themselves, as they must, it remains true, as I said above, that their presence contributes a kind of distinction that is missing in larger towns in which there is no court to serve as a focus for the general life.

The inn where I passed the night was, I am sure, the most comfortable in all Germany. Its front windows looked out upon an open place about half-way up the side of the hill, and, from behind, one gazed across a forest of broken roof-tops to where the tall Schloss stood outlined against the sky. Everything in this inn was clean and simple, and, to give an idea of its terms, I believe I paid forty cents for my entire residence there—the use of a big square bedroom over night, and very fair coffee in the morning, with white bread, carefully buttered in advance. The morning was fine, and the picture I got of Altenburg in climbing the hill to the Schloss was one in which all the colors that had been represented the day before by shadings of gray, had been restored to their rightful places in the landscape. A ruddy-faced individual in an old coat, who excused himself in order to change it for one of dark green with liberal bindings of gold lace, took me in charge, and under his guidance I made the tour of the Schloss in approved tourist style.

It was the chapel that I most desired to see, and this I found to be really worth the sacrifice (if it could be considered one) of remaining in Altenburg over night. It was originally the church of the Kollegiatstift St. Georg, founded in the year 1413, and is full of exquisite wood and ivory carving of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The altar and the choir-stall are particularly rich, but the whole chapel offers a beautiful example of that carvers' art in which the German Renaissance found one of its first and most national forms of expression. On the wall of the gallery where the ducal family have their pew are two pictures by Lucas Cranach, of whom numerous examples, indeed, are to be found throughout this part of Germany. Adjoining the chapel is a broad hall, from the walls of which the assembled princes of the house, most of them very beefy and unamiable appearing personages, look down upon modern intruders. The names they bear are not great ones, and are often surpassed by those of the artists who painted them. Beyond this hall extend, in a long line, the state apartments of the Schloss, which, as they contain nothing but some very vivid furniture and the expressionless portraits of a great many "Hoheits," it may be permitted to pass over in silence. To pass *through* them in silence is unfortunately not permitted, your guide displaying a fatal eloquence over Serenities whose deeds or misdeeds do not interest you in the least. The great *Saal*, entirely made over since the fire of 1864, comes at the end of the row, and is shown as a sort of "clincher" to the splendors that precede it. It is an apartment of fine dimensions, but the decoration is lacking in warmth, and for this, or some other reason, the general impression is unsatisfactory. In an outlying portion of the Schloss, which one reaches from the court, is shown a collection of ancient armor, old books and china, historical costumes, models of Altenburg buildings, and curiosities in general. Among the latter is a portion of the rope ladder used by Von Kauffungen when he ran away with the little Saxon princes, Ernst and Albert, in 1455. The kidnapper was discovered and promptly brought back, and the young princes lived to be the progenitors of the two lines of the Altenburg house. Over one of the doors in this museum is placed a bust of the present Duke, of which, my guide informed me, his Highness complains that it makes him look like a pig. Unjust as this may be, it is yet true that many of the Duke's photographs invite the same unfortunate comparison.

In glancing over these lines I find I have made no mention of the Altenburg women. Barbarously ungallant as it is to make them the theme of a closing paragraph, they yet deserve attention on account of two peculiarities—their advanced age and picturesque costume. If there be any young women in Altenburg, I failed to meet with them. That all should be old is a matter for particular regret when one comes to consider the advantages of their costume for setting off the attractions of youth. This consists partly of a short petticoat of dark material, reaching to the knees, and made so uncomfortably tight behind as to resemble the blanket wrapped around an Indian squaw. Black stockings and wooden shoes complete the costume in the downward direction, while above the waist the effect is that of a somewhat complicated arrangement of shawls and colored handkerchiefs. The head is left bare, or at most covered over with a bright handkerchief. It may be that this costume is a mark of distinction only to be assumed by women who have arrived at years of discretion. If so, the age of discretion is attained very late in Altenburg, and the distinction it brings is apt to be accompanied by no inconsiderable degree of poverty, most of these old women going about with big baskets or bundles of wood on their backs. Besides, this hypothesis would not account for the apparent absence of young women from Altenburg. Do they all go away to avoid having to wear the costume?

J. K. P.

Correspondence.

MR. WANAMAKER'S CAMPAIGN FINANCIERING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 14th inst., speaking of the "great scandal" attached to the Harrison Administration by the appointment of Mr. Wanamaker as a member of the Cabinet, you say:

"If we are not greatly mistaken, the case is aggravated by the knowledge which President Harrison now possesses of the circumstances under which Wanamaker tried unsuccessfully to raise $400,000 in the last week of the canvass in this city—circumstances which throw a flood of light on the man's real character."

Would it be out of the way for you to state in the *Nation* those circumstances?

A Reader.

Cincinnati, O., March 20, 1889.

[It would not be out of the way; but then our version would not be so readily accepted as Mr. Wanamaker's own, and we suggest that "A Reader" bring the above extract to the Postmaster-General's attention, adding that the *Nation* will cheerfully publish whatever he chooses to reveal about the transaction in question. As a Christian merchant and politician, he ought to avail

himself gladly of the opportunity. That we may not, however, be accused of evading the call made upon us, we will state that Mr. Wanamaker has been recently asked by letter, by a former Cabinet officer, whether it would be agreeable to him to assist in a public inquiry into the $400,000 "strike," and that no reply has been received.—Ed. Nation.]

THE BALLOT IN NORTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is somewhat surprising that you should have jumped to the conclusion that because a bill was introduced in the Legislature of North Carolina, proposing to establish an educational qualification for voters, it therefore became a law. As a matter of fact, the new election law of that State contains no educational qualification, that feature of the proposed law having been voted down. Exactly why the Democratic party in North Carolina should have always been so careful of the rights of their political opponents, it is hard to say. Repeatedly they have been in great danger of losing the State, when, by some such perfectly proper restriction as this, they could insure permanent success. The well-known characteristic conservatism of the average North Carolinian is the only reason for such unusual forbearance. No State in the South has suffered more from negro rule than she, owing to the preponderance of the black vote in her eastern counties; yet it has been impossible to induce the Democrats in that State to take any measures to secure their political ascendancy.

Respectfully yours, F. A. Boyle.

St. Simon's Mills, Ga., March 21, 1889.

LAW AND ADMINISTRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of Mr. Lionberger in your last issue furnishes a curious illustration of the state of mind of most, even of our educated, people with regard to the force of law. If anything is wrong in society or politics, they will make a great stir and great efforts to have a law passed to amend it, and then rest admiringly from their labors. Whether there is any, and if so what, provision for enforcing the law, never seems to trouble them at all. I was once at a town meeting when an old gentleman said that the school committee ought to do so and so. Somebody answered that they didn't and wouldn't do it. Thereupon our man of law quotes from a statute prescribing it as their duty. "But," rejoins the objector, "suppose they don't do it?" "Why, my dear sir, the statute says they *shall* do it." It is an old story of the English magistrate who, after some outrageous ruling, was reminded by his clerk in a whisper that he could not do that. "But you see I *have* done it." On the 22d of April a vote is to be taken in this State upon a constitutional amendment forbidding the manufacture and sale of liquor. The amendment provides that the Legislature shall *enforce* it by appropriate legislation. Whether the Legislature will pass the laws, or whether, if passed, they will be enforced, are points upon which the amendment throws no light whatever, and the uncertainty of which would deprive it of all force. If only to avoid a monumental stultification, it is to be hoped that the people will reject it.

It is just in this strain that Mr. Lionberger quotes a column, and offers to furnish a hundred more, of opinions of our great jurists and decisions of courts limiting the power of legislatures. All these quotations, however, amount to nothing at all by the side of the simple practical question, Have the legislatures exercised and do they exercise power beyond these limits, and if so, does anybody interfere with their exercise of it? One comment which most foreigners make upon the Federal Supreme Court is, that it has no power whatever of enforcing its decrees against Congress.

To me the most remarkable part of Mr. Bryce's book is his analysis of the State governments, the greed of the legislatures for power, and, at the same time, their feebleness and chaotic impotence as against intriguers and the lobby, and, together with this, the weakness and want of coherence in executive administration. How he got at all this I cannot imagine, as I never can find anybody here who seems to have any realizing sense of it. After saying that a European must ask the question, "How can such machinery work?" he goes on:

"In his attempts to penetrate this mystery, our European receives little help from his usually helpful American friends, simply because they do not understand his difficulty. Light dawns on him when he perceives that the executive business of a State is such as not to need any policy (?) in the European sense, and therefore no harmony of view or purpose among those who manage it. Everything in the nature of State policy belongs to the Legislature, and the Legislature alone."

One remark, with which he sums up this topic, seems to me so just, and at the same time so sagacious, that I must quote it:

"What the legislatures of the worst States show is not merely the need for the existence of a sound public opinion—for such a public opinion exists—but the need for methods by which it can be brought into efficient action upon representatives who, if they are left to themselves, and are not individually persons with a sense of honor and a character to lose, will be at least as bad in public life as they are in private."

There is no more pregnant observation in the whole book than this, that our State governments furnish one of the finest fields in the world for political study—a field which, it must be admitted, is at present, as far as the discussion of principles goes, almost entirely fallow.

G. B.

Boston, March 23, 1889.

NEW MEXICAN SPANISH ANTIQUITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Tourists visiting New Mexico find some interest in the fact that they are freely shown places, as well as edifices, to which considerable age (not to say antiquity) is attributed, by writers as well as by the people of the country in general. It may not be out of place to establish the correct dates of such points and structures, since, in regard to accuracy in this respect, considerable looseness has been and is displayed, in type as well as in words. Thus, Santa Fé is variously stated as having been founded in 1550 and 1583. The Chapel of San Miguel is often reckoned as being over three hundred years old; it is even stated by one writer on the past of New Mexico as being a relic from Coronado's expedition, and as dating, therefore, as far back as 1543, although Coronado (notwithstanding the misstatement made by Castañeda) evacuated the country in the spring of 1542. As to the ruined churches of Pecos, San Diego de Jemez, and others, dates are sometimes assigned to them coeval with, if not preceding, Columbus's discovery of America. As far as I know, Mr. John Gilmary Shea was the first to approach accuracy on the subject of dates of New Mexican Spanish structures.

The first Spanish settlement in New Mexico has completely disappeared from the surface. I doubt very much if excavations, even, would yield any traces of the few buildings that constituted the hamlet of San Gabriel de los Españoles, or Yunqus, on the site where now stands the station of Chanita (Denver and Rio Grande R. R.) opposite the Indian pueblo of San Juan, and about thirty miles north of Santa Fé. That first permanent establishment made by Spaniards on New Mexican soil was founded in 1598, in the months of August and September, and was completely abandoned in 1605. Thence, the Spaniards moved over to the site where Santa Fé now stands, selecting that spot for its central position with respect to the most powerful tribes of sedentary Indians, and also for the reason that there was no (inhabited) pueblo in its neighborhood. The former Tano-village of Oga-P'oge was already in ruins in the sixteenth century. The foundation of Santa Fé, therefore, dates back to the year 1605. It remained the only Spanish town north of Parral (in Chihuahua) until after the uprising of 1680. Only after the reconquest, and in 1695, was the second "villa" founded, Santa Cruz de la Cañada, twenty-five miles north of Santa Fé. Albuquerque dates from 1706. Other settlements are of much later date.

In regard to single edifices, the oldest ones have completely disappeared. Not a vestige is found of the old churches of San Felipe, Santo Domingo, and of the parochial church of Santa Fé, finished about 1627. The first two churches named (both after Indian villages) existed certainly in 1605 and 1607. As to the chapel of San Miguel at Santa Fé, it is posterior to 1636. It was the chapel of the Indian families brought up from Zacatecas, who settled on the south side of the Santa Fé River. Burned down in 1680, it was fully restored only in 1710. The so-called palace stands very nearly on the site of the old one, but its restoration is posterior to 1697.

In 1617 there were eleven churches extant in New Mexico, and some of these may be identified as still extant in ruins. They are: the old church of Pecos, dedicated to "Nuestra Señora de los Angeles," the church of San Diego de Jemez, near the Jemez hot springs, the church of San Joseph de Jemez, reduced, though, to a mere heap of rubbish, five miles north of the pueblo of Jemez. Of the remaining eight, barely the sites are approximately known. The first parochial church of Santa Fé has completely disappeared; so have the churches of San Felipe, Santo Domingo, San Juan, Sandia, Taos, Picuries, and Santa Clara. The churches now in use at the pueblos are all modern, the one of Zia, perhaps, excepted. That of Santa Clara dates from 1760, the church at Zuñi from 1780.

The ruins of churches and chapels in the villages around Zuñi are those of structures reared after 1629. Of still more recent origin are the stately and picturesque edifices, equally deserted, that stand in the ruined pueblos about the salt lagunes of the Manzano, south of Santa Fé. It may be affirmed that the churches of Cuaray, Abó, and of Tabira (erroneously called Gran-Quivira) are the most striking monuments in New Mexico. Built of stone, with walls still erect to a height of from ten to twenty feet, and mostly in a location wild and picturesque, not only have they attracted the attention of the traveller, but considerable of mystic lore has been attached to them and to their environment. Still, their past is well known. Ere I became connected with the Hemenway Southwestern Archæo-

logical Expedition, and while yet travelling under the direction of the Archæological Institute of America, I explored Cuaray, Abó, and Tabirá. Subsequent documentary researches, mostly for the new enterprise above mentioned, have developed the simple story of these forgotten missions. Cuaray (dedicated to the Immaculate Conception) was founded after 1630, Abó and Tabirá between 1630 and 1644. The large church at Tabirá, concerning which so many fabulous stories of hidden treasure, etc., have been circulated, is posterior to the latter date, and it was never finished. All these missions were abandoned about 1670 on account of the Apaches, and have never been reoccupied since. There are also rubbish piles denoting the site of the old church at Tajique, in the same region. The edifice dates from the same period.

It may be asserted that there is in New Mexico no architectural vestige of Spanish origin that antedates 1605. Lapidary inscriptions, however, exist of older dates. Mr. F. H. Cushing found, while at the so-called "Inscription Rock" last October, the name of Francisco Sanchez Chamuscado and of three of his companions, together with the year of their excursion into New Mexico—1581; and I also found at the same spot the inscription of Juan de Oñate—1605, April 16. Some of the numerous hieroglyphs at the rock named have been read as giving much older dates, but I can positively assure that there is none anterior to the time of Chamuscado. Neither is it likely that any older one will ever be found at the "Morro," since Coronado and his men took a route which led them far to the south of the place, and at least thirty miles below it.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

SANTA FÉ, N. M., March 5, 1889.

OF THE USE AND ABUSE OF EXAMINATIONS IN COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If you will permit me, I would like to present to the readers of the *Nation*, among whom are doubtless many college professors, the results of some study and experience bearing on the subject named above. This experience as an instructor in the college class-room extends through a period of some seventeen years, and has had to do with the subjects of chemistry, rhetoric, logic, ethics, psychology, and political economy.

At the beginning, an oral examination was held on each subject studied, at or near to the close of each term. This was soon found to be very unsatisfactory. A half day of three hours was allotted to the examination. This allowed only fifteen minutes each to a class of twelve, and less than that in a larger class. It soon became apparent that this was little better than a farce. If a student was allowed to succeed, or was made to fail, by such an examination, it was easy to see that it was largely by *chance*. It seems absurd to think that any just knowledge can be got in this way of the student's ability, or of his proficiency in the particular subject. Moreover, it became equally apparent that, as an exercise for the improvement of the student himself, it was nearly, if not altogether, worthless.

The first step consisted in substituting a *written* examination for the oral one; to which again the half day was given. This was a great improvement. Each student was exercised the full half day, and thus much better grounds were gained for judging of his ability and proficiency, and much of *chance* success and failure was eliminated. But it still remained a crude test, even of proficiency, and it was still possible to succeed or fail by accident. Preparation for it led (almost necessarily) to *cramming* in nearly the worst sense of the word. Its value as an exercise to the student is much greater than the oral examination; yet, for reasons suggested above, its value to the student is not great. It leads, however, to one vice that is almost serious enough to condemn it altogether—the vice of *cheating*—of trying to pass the examination by fraud. The successful passing of it is made to mean so much in nearly all colleges that students are drawn into the practice of all sorts of tricks and frauds in the conduct of it. They seek to get a knowledge of the topics of the examination paper beforehand; they make and carry in notes concealed from the professor by every conceivable artifice; they secretly assist one another; they tear up text-books and conceal the fragments about the person in many ways; they laboriously plan to cheat by whatever device may promise success, and it has to be confessed that by these tricks they do too often succeed. All this is bad, very bad, and it is inconsistent with worthy aims and honest work in the pursuit of knowledge and improvement by the student. And it is hardly less bad that, by reason of it, the Faculty are led to so arrange and conduct these examinations as practically to say to the students, "We think you are all knaves." A dozen years ago the writer became weary and heart-sick of such examinations, and set himself to study the problem seriously, with the view, if possible, to find some better way—a way that would be more effective as an examination, and at the same time be consistent with the dignity of worthy aims in scholarship, and in some degree promotive of them; some method that would do away with cheating, and admit of only honest study for preparation, and that would, if possible, wholly eliminate *chance* from the result.

The procedure finally adopted and put into practice in this college may be briefly described as a method of *detailed written reviews* of the various subjects of study. It was introduced by degrees, and tentatively, that effects and tendencies might be carefully studied. The results from the first appeared to be most gratifying; and then the method was extended to new subjects, and it was also made more and more detailed and thorough in the subjects to which it was at first applied tentatively. For ten years now this method has been in full development and use here in a large number of subjects. The writer employs it in all the subjects that he teaches, and teacher and students alike have borne enthusiastic testimony to its worth.

That it may be known just what the procedure is in practice, allow me to describe it in some detail in connection with a particular subject of study. Here is rhetoric—text-book, Whately's 'Elements.' The subject is first gone over carefully in a series of lessons, recitations, and running lectures by the professor, each lesson covering about ten pages of the text. Then comes the review. An average of from twenty to twenty-five pages of the text, and the professor's instructions thereon, are assigned for each exercise. For each exercise a careful selection of the topics under review is placed on the blackboard. To make the *written* exercise still more particular, two sets of such topics are usually made and put on the blackboard, marked No. 1 and No. 2. Each student draws a number, and then proceeds to write up the set of topics corresponding in number thereto. One hour is the time usually allowed for writing the exercise. The professor takes the papers, reads each one carefully, marking all observed errors, and then returns them to the writers. Each student has in this way an opportunity to review the errors he makes, a matter of much practical value to the student.

In ethics the subject is first treated in a series of thirty-four lectures, of one hour each. Each student is required to take notes on these lectures, and he is encouraged to make them as full and accurate as he can. After the lecture he rewrites and improves his notes. In the review the procedure is the same as that described of rhetoric, and the whole course of lectures is gone over in a series of twelve papers. Similarly logic is reviewed in a series of more than twenty papers, and other subjects are treated in like manner. Now, what are the observed results? Note the following. The *student* can hardly fail to get a good knowledge and understanding of the subject; the *teacher* gets an almost perfect view of the ability of the student, and of his knowledge and understanding of the particular subject; *chance* is eliminated—the student cannot succeed, and he cannot fail, by chance or accident; the student makes rapid, often wonderful, improvement in avoiding the errors to which he was at the start subject; he gets a *training* in ready and correct composition, and an amount of it not easy to give him at all, nor so effectually, in any other way; the student's *mental powers* gain a most practical and useful training and development; *cheating* is impracticable and of no avail in these daily continued exercises, and it is apparently seldom even thought of.

These are some of the results which the professors here have been attaining for a dozen or more years; and they are results which have been of inestimable value to the graduates. But here some will probably object that this method means an enormous amount of work for the professors and tutors; and this is true. It does mean a large amount of work—work, too, that some teachers will call drudgery. Let no professor who is sparing of his work enter on this method. But experience here plainly teaches that professors and tutors who are willing to work, and work hard, in the interest of the best training and development of their students for usefulness and practical efficiency in life, may find in this method of procedure a means which they cannot afford to slight.

Yours respectfully, A. G. G.

ST. LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY, March 18, 1889.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT DELPHI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should be sorry to stand in the way of any honorable scientific ambition of our people, but I am satisfied that if the directors of our School of Hellenic Studies at Athens understood the position of the proposed excavations at Delphi, it would not be possible for them to enter into the proposed bargain with the Delphini for the privilege of uncovering what may chance to remain of the appurtenances of the Oracle. The present director of the French School here began work in 1861 by purchasing a piece of land and excavating it, and his successor followed with another field. Ever since then negotiations have been going on, not without interruptions, for the complete excavation of the site. The French School has the prior claim, not only by agreement with the Government, but by that courtesy which the American School will not, I am sure, fail in. The French School has not withdrawn its claims, and, without entering into needless details, the entry of a competitor into the field who has the reputation of having millions to throw away, but the greatest indifference about throw-

ing them away, has simply had the effect of raising the price of the village from about $25,000, which is the highest value which can be put on it, to $80,000—a species of auction admissible for city sites, but not for scientific research.

The German School, which certainly has greater facilities than the American for the work, refuses to enter into any such competition, recognizing the moral claims of their sister institution. The present aspect of the matter is this: the French School has several times been accorded the concession of the excavations, and originally the Greek Government was to expropriate the land, receiving for the Greek museums all the results of the work; the French paying all the expenses and getting all the honor. The later conditions are, that the diggers shall pay for the land and the work and the honor whatever the Greeks of Delphi see fit to demand; and as the Americans are supposed to have more money, they are asked three times what the land and village are worth for the privilege the excavations will confer. The upset price of the village is, as I have said, $25,000. The excavations will not remove the whole of it, but if there are two competitors in the market, not only the whole will be insisted on, but the exorbitant price now demanded will be maintained, and what beyond, no one can guess who has not had some experience of the way the Greek peasant looks at every object of antiquity. In Foucart's last campaign the people of Delphi made an elaborate calculation that he had made by the publication of the inscriptions found not less than 14,000,000 francs. Imagine the effect of such views on the estimates to be placed on every concession made or to be made when the Government itself does not control the conditions; and this is impossible in the present state of Greek politics, for any favor shown the foreigner is set down as want of patriotism, and will create embarrassments for the Ministry.

But this is a secondary consideration, and will, I hope, be so regarded by our people. The essential is, that the French School has by courtesy a claim not to be interfered with under the circumstances, and our appearance in the field as competitors only increases the difficulty for whoever does the work. The site is offered for competition under conditions that ought to prevent the American School from accepting it. There are plenty of sites which are not so preëmpted, and where excellent work can be done. Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Athens, March 2, 1889.

MR. COLE'S WOODCUTS IN THE *CENTURY*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The engravings by Mr. Cole which are appearing from month to month in the *Century* as illustrations of the "Old Italian Masters" have hardly attracted the attention they deserve.

Nothing that has yet been done by the American engravers on wood who, during the last few years, have carried their art to the highest excellence in reproducing the characteristic qualities of the work which they have had to copy, has surpassed in exactness of delineation, in refinement and vigor of execution, and in sympathetic rendering of the subtlest features of the original, these remarkable productions of Mr. Cole. The variety of the technical methods of which he shows himself master has enabled him to reproduce with equal success work as widely different in motive and style as the mosaics of Ravenna and the panel paintings of the Florentine artists of the fourteenth century.

No engravings hitherto existing of the works of early Italian art give so much of the essential spirit as well as of the manner of painting of these works as this series of Mr. Cole's. It is, therefore, invaluable to the student or the lover of the art of a period when the poetic genius of Italy was inspired with the first flush of conscious power, and was endeavoring to express itself in forms of beauty which it was not yet able completely to realize, but which, in their very simplicity and imperfection, often possess a charm beyond that of the more complete performances of a later and more sophisticated age.

Mr. Cole's skill is so masterly, and his artistic sympathies are so broad, that there is no doubt that he will reproduce the work of the painters of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries not less admirably than he is doing that of their forerunners.

His notes upon the pictures which he copies are full of interest in connection with his engravings, and Mr. Stillman's papers which accompany the illustrations are excellent.

There is much more to be said of these engravings, but I have said enough, for the present at least, if my words induce those of your readers who have not hitherto paid attention to them to recognize their extraordinary merit and exceptional interest.

Your obedient servant,
Charles Eliot Norton.

Cambridge, March 24, 1889.

BENJAMIN VAUGHAN AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of Mr. Benjamin Vaughan, it may be interesting to some of your readers to know that he was the cause of Dr. Rice's making the first American reprint of Captain John Smith's 'General History' (Richmond, Va., 1819, 2 vols., 8vo). A young Virginia lawyer, Mr. Francis Walker Gilmer, whose letters are being edited for the "Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science," spent the winter of 1814-15 in Philadelphia, where he became intimate with Mr. John Vaughan, whom your correspondent Mr. Kerr so pleasantly described in a recent number of the *Nation* (No. 1237). On the recommendation of this gentleman, Mr. Gilmer (who was quite a scholarly young man) began a correspondence with Benjamin Vaughan upon matters of antiquarian interest. From the four letters of Vaughan's that have been preserved, we see that he recommended Gilmer to study Smith, and even sent him his own copy of the 'General History' (London, 1629). If my memory is correct, the suggestion of the propriety of an American reprint came from Mr. Vaughan; at any rate, he was warmly in favor of the project, and so Gilmer induced Dr. Rice, a well-known Presbyterian clergyman, and the editor of a Virginia religious magazine, to undertake the publication of the reprint from the copy Mr. Vaughan had lent. It may be remarked that Mr. Gilmer afterwards rendered great service to his State by securing Long and Key and Dunglison for the first faculty of the University of Virginia.

Now, if we recall the eloquent tribute to Captain Smith which George Long introduces at the end of his biographical sketch of Marcus Aurelius, and in which he says, "Smith is almost unknown and forgotten in England, his native country," we shall have, I think, a reason for holding a high opinion of Benjamin Vaughan's scholarly attainments.

Your obedient servant, Wm. P. Trent.

The University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn., March 20, 1889.

THE ORIGIN OF *TOPSYTURVY*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Rev. Professor Skeat, in the Supplement to his *Etymological Dictionary* (1884), speaks of this common word as being "practically unsolved." Any new facts, or arguments based on facts already known, tending to account for its development cannot, therefore, but be welcome to those who are interested in the history of our vocabulary.

Among English locutions convertible with *topsyturvy*, and beginning with its first verbal element, the oldest which I have made a note of is seen in the following verses:

"His folk went vpto lond, him seluen was the last.
To bank, ouer the sond, plankes thei ouer kast.
Als William ther on suld go, he stombled at a nayle;
Into the waise tham fro he tombled *top ouer taile*."

So wrote, about 1330, Robert Mannyng, of Brunne: *Peter Langtoft's Chronicle* (ed. 1810), p. 70. With others, the author of *William of Palerne* (about 1350) l. 2776, and John Barbour (1375), in his *Bruce*, VII., 455, have the same phrase. In the *Chevelere Assigne*, of the end of the fourteenth century, we find, in l. 320, the term *topseyle*, as to which Mr. H. H. Gibbs pertinently asks: "Should it be, perhaps, 'topteyle'?"

In the anonymous *Cronycle of Englonde*, which was repeatedly printed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, there occurs, in Pynson's edition of 1510:

"And our stakes made theym *toppe ouer terue* eche one ouer other, that they laye on hepes two speres lenthe of hyghte." Sig. aa 1 *v.*

Having come upon this passage, I traced it back, and found this reading of it in Caxton's edition of 1480:

"And oure stakes made hem *toppe ouer terue* eche on othir, that they lay on hepes two spere lengthe of heyhte." Sig. t 6 *v.*

The St. Albans edition, referred to 1483, exhibits, at sig. G 2 *v.*, "made them *toppe our terue* eche on our othir," in which the second *our*, "over," is represented by a contraction. *On*, as in Caxton, is "one."

Probably from the Anglo-Saxon *torflan* came, *torvien* intervening, the verb *terven*, *terve*, the old past participle of which was not too archaic for Caxton, who, supplementing Higden, has, in 1582, "The Yomanrye had theyr hosen *teruen* or bounde bynethe the knee, hauynge longe Iackes." Trevisa's Translation of Higden's *Polychronicon* (ed. 1595), fol. 330 *r.* Here, as in other places where it is met with, *terve* seems to have the sense of "to fall," or else that of "to be made to fall," "to throw down," "to cast."

In two passages quoted above, it may be that, in *ouer othir*, *ouer* is pleonastic, much as the first *out* is in, "Let me pull out the mote out of thine eye." Otherwise, *overterve* is intransitive there. Caxton, however, clearly makes the verb, with him part of a strange compound, transitive; and it appears that, employed thus, it cannot have been very unusual in his time. An author who was still living in 1465, again and again has the infinitive *overterve* and the past participle *overterved*. See John Hardyng's *Chronicle of England* (ed. 1812), pp. 47, 186, 408, and pp. 59, 60, 75, 155, 398.

Of *topsyturvy* no earlier instance has, to my knowledge, been produced than that which, in my *English Adjectives in -able* (1877), I cited from William Roy and Jerome Barlowe (1528), whose spelling is *topsy tervy*. But it would be highly rash to assume that it was of their devising. In 1530, Palsgrave recorded the form *topsy tyrvy*. A little later the word became very popular.

Let us now turn to a phrase much more ancient than *topsyturvy*, and one with it in import. Soon following, it seems, *up to down*, appeared, betimes in the fourteenth century, or before then, *up swa doune*, which was shortly changed to *up so doun*, *upsodoun*, and *upsodon*. Richard Rolle de Hampole (about 1340), the oldest authority for *up swa doune*, has also *up that es doun;* and a single instance of *up tho so downe*, "up then," etc., in a book printed in 1483, has fallen in my way.

The corruption *upsedoun*, as old as Wycliffe, is found, written *upsedowne*, in Lord Berners's *Froissart* (1523), in John Rogers's *Bible* (1537), and elsewhere. And afterwards came *upsedown*, *upsydown*, and *upsyedowne*. Among the illiterate, in some parts of England, one may, even now, often hear *upsedown;* a curious survival, if not, as is more probable, simply the result of slurring, in utterance, *upside down*.

As I pointed out in 1877, Alexander Barclay, in his *Shyp of Folys* (1508), and not only there, substitutes, for *up so doun*, *up set downe*. This new form was accepted, in 1540, by Richard Hyrde, in 1559, by Bp. Thomas Cooper, and, in 1569, written *upset downe*, by James Sanford, who has also *topset downe*. Carelessness of pronunciation, or else a fancy about etymology, looks like a sufficient reason for Barclay's invention or adoption.

As was the genesis of *up set downe*, so, presumably, was that of *upsyde downe*. Palsgrave knew the latter in 1530; Bp. Coverdale (1535) and John Rogers (1537) used it in rendering *Psalm* cxlvi., 9; and it was soon permanently established. That *up so down* is an "ignorant spelling for *upside down*" is the ludicrously unhistorical assertion of the Rev. J. H. Todd, glossing the *Apology for Lollard Doctrines*.

That, in imitation of *upse*, from *up so*, was produced *topsy*, is no perilously hazardous conjecture. *Top so*, corresponding to *up so*, has not, so far as I am aware, yet been discovered.

The contention that *turvy* is to be explained through *toppe over terve*, or something very like it, receives support from Row and Barlowe's *tervy* and Palsgrave's *tyrvy*. The verbs *terve* and *overterve* were no longer familiar in their day; and their *tervy* or *tyrvy* is no more of a liberty than what we see taken, a few years afterwards, in *arsy-versy*, which had become common when Nicholas Udall employed it in 1542, in *howrley burlei* (1534), *whorle borle* (1552), "*hurly-burly*," and in Sir Thomas Wilson's *hittie missie* (1553).

I have, now, at least disabled all the etymologies of *topsyturvy* that I am acquainted with. These are numerous enough, and no less numerous than futile, as I evinced on a former occasion. At present it will suffice, then, to notice two of the latest to which well-known writers have signified their adhesion; their judgments illustrating, by opposition, the prudence of postponing dogmatism to investigation. The expression, according to Dr. Trench, is a shortening of *topside the other way*. Confronted with such legislative finality as attaches to archiepiscopal cocksureness, we are, as it were, challenged to believe that "there is no doubt of the fact"; and Mr. Hensleigh Wedgwood is quite as peremptory with reference to the equivalent *top side t'other way*. Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant (1886) is equally certain in favor of *top side turf way*, as its original. Yet one is warranted in strongly questioning, if not in almost denying, that either *side*, or *the other*, or *turf*, or *way*, was ever a constituent of it.

If only for its oddity, the following passage is worth quoting:

"Let all the misticall drifts and ambiguous designes of inveigling man turne *topsoltiria*, or upside downe, I care not." William Lithgow, *A most delectable and True Discourse* (1623), p. 202.

Was Lithgow here wronged by his printer? Provided he did not mean, after his crazily emancipated fashion of coining words, to annex the Italian *sotterra*, "underground," to *top*, it is beyond me to suggest the source of his *topsoltiria*.

Among variations of *topsyturvy* which I have come across are *topset torvie* (1558), *topsetturvie* (1569), *topset tirvi* (1573), *topse torve* (1579 and 1581), *top syd turvie* (1582), *top turvye* (1582), *tupsiturvie* (1640), *turvy topsy* (before 1687), and so on. *Topside turvey* was patronized, as by others, by Thomas Kyd (1594), Spenser, and Bp. Richard Mountagu. Charles Cotton (1664) writes: "Then turning *topsey* on her thumb." So much for the adverb.

Thomas Phaer (1562) and Joshua Sylvester (1606) have the transitive verb *topsy turn*, *topsie-turn;* Thomas Heywood (1613), *topsiturn*. Florio wrote, in 1603: "Confounding and *topsieturving* the visage of all things." Samuel Richardson (1740), Mr. Carlyle, the first Lord Lytton, and Mr. Bernard Cracroft (1868), also use *topsyturvy* as a verb transitive. Southey (1807) has the gerund *topsey-turveying*.

Chapman (1612) has *topsyturvy* as an adjective; and so have Dean Swift (1703), the Rev. F. E. Paget (1856), and Dr. J. H. Appleton (1878).

As a substantive, *topsyturvy* is used by the translator of *Francion* (1655), by Mr. John Morley (1878), and by "George Eliot" (1879).

Two quotations are also at hand for *topsyturveydom*, two for *topsy-turvyism*, and one *topsy-turveyfication*. All are of our own day.

It may be as well to mention, in conclusion, that I first proposed to connect *topsyturvey* with *toppe over terve* in this journal, June 15, 1882.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, November 10, 1888.

In place with the quotations from Daniel Tuvil and the Rev. John Hales, in col. 2 of p. 336, *supra*, is that which here follows:

"He knew . . . That his Counsels, which course soever he tooke, would not bee by them *eliminated*." Henry Seile, *Augustus* (1632), p. 79.

P. S.—In p. 96, col. 3, a little below the middle, read, instead of "stands," "does not stand." In the same col., near the foot, substitute "my fuller" for "any fuller." F. H.

FEBRUARY 12, 1889.

Notes.

FREDERICK WARNE & Co. will supply the American market with a new series of standard and popular works in all departments of literature, issued at intervals in handy pocket volumes, and to be called the "Victoria Library." A volume of 'British Oratory' will lead off.

G. P. Putnam's Sons make further announcements for the spring as follows: 'The Ideals of the Republic; or, Great Words from Great Americans'—the Constitution, Washington's inaugurals and Farewell Address, Lincoln's inaugurals and Gettysburg Address, in the Nuggets series; 'The Constitutional History of the United States, as Seen in the Development of American Law'—papers by Judge Cooley, Henry Hitchcock, Geo. W. Biddle, Chas. A. Kent, and D. H. Chamberlain; a translation of Dante's 'Convito,' by Katharine Hillard; an 'Essay on Money,' by James Platt, from the 19th English edition; and 'Seven Thousand Words Often Mispronounced,' by Mr. Phyfe.

Parallel with the first of the above announcements of the Messrs. Putnam is an "Old South Leaflet" containing Washington's inaugurals and the addresses of 1789 and 1793. The Farewell Address and Lincoln's inaugurals have already been published in the same useful series (D. C. Heath & Co.).

The new volume of the 'Musical Year-Book,' published in Boston by G. H. Wilson, 152 Tremont St., will appear about May 20. It is the sixth issue of the series.

The new edition of De Gubernatis's 'International Dictionary of Writers of the Time' (Dizionario Biografico degli Scrittori Viventi) is to appear in French as well as in Italian (Florence: Louis Niccolai; New York: F. W. Christern).

Gustav Fischer, Jena (New York: Christern), has undertaken publication of a practical 'Dictionary of Political Science' (Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften). It will be very strong on the statistical side and on the bibliographical, and complete lists of the works of eminent political scientists will accompany the brief notices of their lives. The work will be brought out in parts, and will require three years for completion.

We have received the prospectus and sample sheets of the 'Century Dictionary,' which will begin to be distributed to subscribers in May. Prof. W. D. Whitney has been the editor-in-chief, with a singularly strong corps of assistants. As our readers have been apprised, this new work is of the cyclopædic kind, and it is estimated that it will contain no fewer than 200,000 words. The illustrative quotations will be correspondingly numerous, and the pictorial definitions from 5,000 to 6,000. Of these cuts it is not too much to say that they surpass anything ever attempted in a similar publication. The column is a trifle wider than that of the 'New English Dictionary' of the English Philological Society, and also longer, and in forsaking the old-style letter we believe the Century Co. have produced a more legible text, save in the one particular of Arabic numerals. We can specify nothing more at this time, except that the Dictionary will make six volumes quarto, and will be finished in two years.

A tentative 'List of the Issues of the Press in New York,' 1693-1752, by Charles R. Hildeburn, has been reprinted from the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History*.

From Macmillan & Co. we received some time ago 'The Civilization of Sweden in Heathen Times,' by Prof. Oscar Montelius of the National Museum, Stockholm, translated from the Swedish by the Rev. F. H. Woods. The first part of the original ("The Stone Age") was published in 1874, and a second edition of the entire work appeared about four years later. It has since been made accessible to scholars generally through a German translation; but the English translator states that the volume before us embodies the results of researches made by Dr. Montelius down to the year 1888, and that the proof-sheets have been revised throughout by the author. The reputation of Dr. Montelius is so well established among archæologists that it only remains for us to say that the general reader will find much to interest him in this account of prehistoric life in Scandinavia. The book is illustrated with numerous woodcuts of arms, implements, ornaments, etc., of flint, bronze, iron, silver, and gold.

A valuable addition to the literature of domestic affairs is Catharine Owen's 'Progressive Housekeeping' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which seems to us the very book of books for a young woman to absorb when she be-

comes mistress of a home. It is not a cook-book, though containing some suggestions in that line, but a treatise upon the best methods of doing all manner of housework; for example, we are told with great exactitude how to manage the kitchen fire, to scrub tables, wash windows, sweep without letting the dust fly, etc. The book makes a specialty also of plans for the timing and arrangement of work, more particularly in small households.

The bound first volume of *Belford's Magazine* (Belford, Clarke & Co.) revives our first impressions of this unique periodical, in which literature and eternal enmity to protection have formed a partnership. Neither department has swamped the other, and the readers enticed by the belles-lettres side can hardly fail to be affected by the economic propaganda carried on by such writers as Prof. Sumner, Mr. R. Q. Mills, J. G. Carlisle, T. G. Shearman, Frank H. Hurd, Henry George, and many another besides these and the industrious editor himself, Mr. Donn Piatt. Mrs. Piatt furnishes some of the best of the poetry, and there is an agreeable diversity of literary miscellany.

The renovated *Cosmopolitan Magazine* for April adjusts its contents to the approaching centenary festival in this city, but its most significant feature is the first of a series of articles on the anti-slavery struggle, or "The Great Agitation." Mr. Moncure D. Conway has the floor to tell of Southern abolitionists, which he does entertainingly enough, but without precision or much more than a superficial glance. It is surprising that, as a Virginian, he should make no mention of the Rev. George Bourne's anti-slavery ministry in that State, and of his concentrated Bible argument against the system, 'The Book and Slavery,' in which for the first time the duty of immediate emancipation was specifically enforced, and which had more effect in breeding abolitionists than all other Virginian publications put together. The article closes with some autobiographical glimpses. The proof-reader has converted Dr. Gamaliel Bailey of the *National Era* into "Dr. Griffin Bailey."

Scribner's railway articles are to be succeeded in June by a new series on "The Practical Applications of Electricity," by competent writers, with helpful illustrations.

An American edition of the illustrated monthly magazine, *Artistic Japan*, is to be sent out from No. 220 Fifth Avenue, back numbers to date being furnished, after which the publication will be simultaneous on both sides of the water. It is a "journal of arts and industries, for the use of the artist, the amateur, the manufacturer, and the artisan," conducted by S. Bing. Each part contains ten royal quarto colored plates, in addition to the designs incorporated in the text. These are all promised to be of the same excellence as in the European edition.

We have received sample sheets of the first number of a new quarterly historical review, *Deutsche Zeitschrift für Geschichtswissenschaft*. The editor is Dr. L. Quidde of Königsberg; the publisher, J. C. B. Mohr of Freiburg i. B. According to the prospectus, the *Zeitschrift* will contain: (1) Essays on the mediæval and modern history of Europe, including papers on historical method, historiography, etc.; (2) Minor original contributions and extracts from sources; (3) Papers on the historical literature of the different countries of Europe; (4) Notes and news concerning learned societies, recent publications, works in preparation, etc.; (5) A systematic bibliography of German history. Judging from the sheets before us and from the list of able contributors given in the prospectus, the new *Zeitschrift* promises to rival, if not excel, *Sybel's Historische Zeitschrift*.

Two articles in the *Harvard Law Review* for March arrest attention, viz., Judge Cooley's on the "Comparative Merits of Written and Prescriptive Constitutions," and E. Irving Smith's on "The Legal Aspect of the Southern Question."

The principal article in the March number of the *Library* is the interesting account of the Brothers Foulis and early Glasgow printing, read before the Library Association, last September, by Professor Ferguson. Chancellor Christie's paper, "A Dynasty of Librarians," briefly sketches the fortunes of the Bignon family, whose members ruled almost uninterruptedly for a century and a half, from 1642 to 1783, the Royal Library of France—a dynasty without parallel in the history of libraries. Mr. Garnett has a note on the Livy of Pope Alexander the Sixth, now in the British Museum, and Mr. Duff of the Bodleian reports the probable discovery of a hitherto unknown English printer of the fifteenth century. In this number the foibles of the Theoretical Librarian furnish the subject for a clever character sketch by Theophrastus Junior.

Sun and Shade for March has a photogravure portrait of Mr. Blaine, and the usual variety of still-life scenes, copies of paintings, studio compositions, etc., none of a very striking nature, yet displaying well the range of the process.

The Spanish bull-fight mostly occupies *Paris Illustré* for March 16 (International News Co.). Three colored and sundry other large plates accompany the letterpress.

A comely *Revue Française*, monthly, devoted to literature, art, and science, is launched this month at 39 W. 14th St. and 851 Sixth Ave. (Boston: Carl Schoenhof). M. L. Boisse is the editor.

A lively debate raged recently in the London *Athenæum* over the exclusive right to the initial *Q.* as a literary mask. Consideration is certainly to be paid to initials, arbitrary or genuine, which are commonly identified with a particular writer. The editor of the *Tribune*, for example, should hardly (nor do we believe he would) permit a Washington despatch to be signed "J. G. B.," even if the sender chanced to be some James Gordon Bennett and not our Secretary of State. In Shaksperian circles "H. H. F." suggests one name above all others, and we think that the editor of *Shakespeariana* should not have set a trap for the unwary by allowing another contributor to appropriate Mr. Furness's trade-mark, as he did in his last issue. We fell into this trap ourselves, and can confess it without mortification, yet not without regret at our false attribution.

Prof. Antonio Favaro of the University of Padua, who is in special charge of the national edition of the works of Galileo, sends us an alphabetic and topographic index of the astronomer's *commercio epistolare*, to stimulate search for letters written by or addressed to him. That from our American archives, or libraries, or private autographic collections, Prof. Favaro can expect to draw any material, we greatly doubt; but we cheerfully spread the intelligence of his quest. He will publish what is sent him, and acknowledge the source.

—The April *Harper's* naturally puts foremost the subject of the approaching centennial celebration in this city, and brings very useful illustrations of the changes of the century in its reproductions of old prints of Washington's triumphal progress from Mt. Vernon to the seat of the new Government. These prints themselves remind us of the modesty of our beginnings, and Mr. McMaster's text harmonizes with them. He does his best to make the reader realize the comparative smallness of our territory, the scarcity of the population, and the confusion of the political life of the jarring members of the Union, and so to impress on the mind the difficulty of the great task which Washington took upon himself. Mr. Moncure D. Conway also contributes some hitherto unpublished details of Washington's life, with new letters; but these regard almost exclusively his family and kindred. The most interesting of them is his letter of advice to a nephew, instructing him in what way to get on in the world, what clothes to wear, and what society to frequent. The conclusion of the epistle, in which he makes the continuance of his affection and good offices conditional on the nephew's conduct, is a striking example of the way in which parental and semi-parental obligations were interpreted a hundred years ago. Mr. Theodore Child continues his Parisian studies with an entertaining account of the history of the café, accompanied with several effective cuts. The café is almost a part of the history of the development of the French Revolution — the salon of the present century; and in connection with the papers upon Washington, its description here recalls the contrast, which must occur to many minds, of the centenary of '89 in the two countries which began the course of democratic freedom together. A description of Abbotsford, from the pen of Sir Walter Scott, is the literary curiosity of the number. Tangier and Morocco are described in the French impressionist manner, the growing influence of which in papers of travel is, perhaps, partly due to its fitness for magazine-work; and there is a bunch of beautiful engravings of diving birds.

—The office-boy has evidently had full swing in preparing the index to the ten volumes of the *Andover Review*. He has not only never gone behind the label of the article, but, for want of collocation of the various papers on the same subject, a person who relied upon the index would fail to find the greater part of them. Thus, to all appearance, there has been but one article each on the "American Board" and the "Andover Theory of Probation." Among the articles on Mormons are *not* those entered under "Utah, Church—State" and "Utah, Conquest of," though they are by the same writer. A person seeking information about Bach would find it, but if he looked for Händel, who is the joint subject of the article, he would find nothing. The same remark applies to "Arnold (T.) and the Oxford Movement," and to "Tolstoi and (M.) Arnold." If he looks for Atonement, he will find one article, but not a second, equally long, because, though its title and length are the same, it is one of a series, and is entered only as a sub-title under "Progressive Orthodoxy"; nor a third, because it is only the joint title with "Blood Covenanting." According to the index, not one article has been printed about Christ or Jesus. It is needless to say that there were several, but each has been carefully hidden under the caption, "A Bible Study." One article about the "Teaching of the Twelve Apostles" is entered under that title, while another is discoverable only under "Bryennios." "Church Problems in Germany" is entered under C, but the "Religious Condition of Germany" is under G, and "Theological Tendencies in Germany" under T, with no cross-reference in either case. George Eliot, Victor Hugo, and Matthew Arnold are alike entered under the first name, and "Judge Allen" under J. There is nothing about Noyes (W. H.), but there is an entry,

"Additional Documents in the Case of Mr. W. H. Noyes." There is an article entered as "Question Restated, The," without anything to indicate what question, and another as "False Test, A." "A Roman Martyr," "A Scotch Mystic," "A Sturdy Christian," are vague enough titles to suit the most exacting office-boy, as is also "A Typical Novel." There is no list of authors, but, to make up for this, the entries are arranged in two alphabets, according as the articles are by the editors or by contributors.

—Of all the correspondents who have written to inform us that the fact of Shakspere's residence in St. Helen's Parish (*Nation*, No. 1236) was no discovery of ours, no one has hit on the worm-hole from which we plucked our account of the indenture which proves this fact. It was a corner where no one would look for anything Shaksperian, viz., in 'The Genealogical Dictionary of First Settlers of New England, showing three generations of those who came before 1692,' by James Savage (vol. ii, p. 528). Could a miser hide his hoard more adroitly? Savage claims that he found the statement, and we naturally supposed ourselves the first who chanced to notice his finding, especially as we did not see it in Phillipps. But we have since read the indenture *in extenso* in Hunter's 'New Illustrations of Shakespeare' (vol i, p. 77), published after the date of Savage's find. Hunter says: "In the course of any researches of my own, only one document [the indenture] has presented itself which is entirely unknown, containing a notice of Shakspere during his London life." Whether the indenture was shown to Savage by Hunter or to Hunter by Savage, it seems impossible to determine. Neither alludes to the other. That Mr. Phillipps knew nothing of the indenture, we must believe until some allusion to it is pointed out in his works. Such ignorance on his part would have been in keeping with what a correspondent writes, that "the prejudices and eccentricities of Mr. Phillipps hindered as much as his enthusiasm helped his work; that he would not institute inquiries in counties far remote, nor would he authorize a thorough search after those who must have inherited and divided the possessions of Elizabeth Hall," etc. Nor could such ignorance surprise us, for, in 1884, we heard him declare that he had never seen Schmidt's 'Shakespere Lexicon,' which had already been published for ten years.

—On March 5 was performed in Berlin for the first time, at the Royal Theatre, under Henrik Ibsen's supervision, his latest drama, "The Lady of the Sea." The story is a fantastic one, of a married woman grown morbid because of a mariner to whom, in her own home by the sea, she had formerly plighted herself, and whom she supposed dead before marrying, yet now fears to have appear and make rightful claim of her affection. He turns up, in fact, in the course of the play, and would make off with her, but this destroys the spell he has hitherto laid upon her conscience, and she remains by her husband. A correspondent writes us:

"In this play Ibsen shows his power as a dramatic poet to the best advantage. The way in which the interest is aroused from the very beginning, and is constantly heightened to the end; the fact that every act ends with a scene which makes us expect the beginning of the next act with the greatest impatience; the skill with which all figures are grouped about the central one; the dialogue which so subtly reveals the character of each speaker; the beautiful scenic background (a large part of the action takes place out of doors near the mountains of the Norwegian fjords), which helps to increase the poetic mystery in which the whole piece is wrapped—all these things prove Ibsen to be a master of dramatic technique. But the play has more than technical merits. Ibsen shows a wonderful insight into the workings of the human mind in the description of *Ellida's* condition. She speaks in a curious, often only half-intelligible way; she loses her interest in her surroundings, and spreads an inexplicable atmosphere of unrest about her. One is made to feel that her condition is rapidly growing worse, and yet this is so carefully done that it would be difficult to mention any one passage which proves this statement. The author is no less admirable in showing how *Ellida's* unnatural state of mind is warping the characters of her stepdaughters. *Bolett*, the elder, is a kind-hearted and earnest girl of about twenty, whose ambition it is to learn something, and to have a larger field of action than she can find in their little town. She cannot discuss her plans with her father, whose thoughts are too much taken up with his wife; much less can she speak about them with her stepmother; she grows dissatisfied, and at last consents to marry a man whom she does not love, simply because she has reason to think that her long-cherished hopes will be realized through him. *Hilda*, her younger sister, is a fiery and impetuous creature, who grows miserably bitter and cold from lack of sympathy and attention on the part of her parents. Great as are the merits of the play, the subject is too little adapted for a drama to make it a success on the stage. Still, though the most undramatic of Ibsen's pieces, though not fraught with half as much deep meaning as 'Nora,' the 'Spectres,' and the 'Wild Duck,' it is one of the most remarkable and interesting for psychological analysis and development of character. Moreover, it is the first of the poet's social plays (excepting, perhaps, the 'Pillars of Society') which ends optimistically; the first which, after showing us great struggles and difficulties, grants us an outlook into a happier and more satisfactory future."

—A new metrical version of the poems of the Elder Edda has been made, in German, by Wilhelm Jordan, the well-known translator of the 'Nibelungen Lied' ('Die Edda.' New York: B. Westermann & Co.). It is, as a whole, a spirited rendition into alliterative verse of the old lays, whose beauties the author appreciates, and whose difficulties he smooths away with a confident hand. The translation is literary, rather than critical. Strophes considered disturbing—like the list of the dwarfs in the Völuspa—are summarily relegated to the notes that follow each lay. The result is, of course, to secure, from a modern point of view, a more perfect poem, but to vitiate, in the same degree, the spirit of the original. In many instances Jordan's strophes are as good as, in some cases even better than, those of any translation we have. In others the author, evidently actuated by a conscious desire to improve upon the original, is betrayed into a paraphrase which bears but little likeness to his Norse prototype. One of the principal merits of the new translation is the intelligibility of its vocabulary. Led astray by the seductions of old word-forms, many of which were bound up with the alliteration, most of the older translators have been irresistibly tempted into the frequent use of cognates instead of equivalents. Many of these words, in their turn, were already deep under the dust of ages, from which they first have to be freed in order to be understood. Many others, and this is particularly true of English translations, which are sometimes couched in a language that was not, is not, and never by any foreseen contingency can be, were deliberately evolved, and are as much in need of a gloss as the originals which they are supposed to explain. In his intention to avoid an affectation of archaism, on the other hand, the author of the present version occasionally makes a not altogether fortunate choice of words. The notes with which the book is liberally supplied contain explanations of words and phrases, many of them new and at variance with all accepted criticism. The author, at the end of his preface, expresses the confident hope that now at last the Edda will not be, as heretofore, "a book under seven seals." If he has not, perhaps, quite succeeded in loosing all seven of these not too strongly imagined hindrances, he has, none the less, accomplished a difficult task in a manner highly creditable to his literary judgment and to his skill in poetical expression.

CONVERSATIONS WITH THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

Notes of Conversations with the Duke of Wellington. 1831–1851. By Philip Henry, fifth Earl Stanhope. London: Murray. 1888.

Sir Philip Henry, fifth Earl Stanhope, who recorded these "Notes" of conversations with the Duke of Wellington, is best known to the world as Lord Mahon, the historian of England. During the twenty years covered by these "Notes," there existed between him and the Duke a friendship the cordiality and intimacy of which appears to have gone on increasing until the death of the great soldier; and it was the custom of Lord Stanhope to record in writing the conversation of his friend while the memory of it was still fresh in his mind. These "Notes" do not add anything of importance to our knowledge of the Duke. Their main interest arises from the confirmation which they furnish of all that was previously known of him. They show the Duke, after all the victories he had won—the foremost man in the Europe of this day—as kindly, simple, and unassuming as the humblest of her Majesty's subjects. There is something especially beautiful in his fondness for children and their responsive love for him.

"The Duke," records Lord Stanhope, under date of October 22, 1837, "has now staying with him two little children of Lord and Lady Robert Grosvenor, who are gone abroad, and his conduct to these chicks displays a kind-heartedness and warmth of feeling such as their own parents could not surpass, but such as the Duke displays to all. Lady Mahon was told by Lady Mary Grimston, who was staying in the house, that the children having expressed their desire to receive letters by the post, the Duke every morning writes a letter to each of them, containing good advice for the day, which is regularly delivered to them when the post comes in."

On another occasion, when leaving Walmer Castle for London, still imperfectly recovered from a very serious illness, Lord Stanhope learned from Mlle. Brun that the Duke stopped at Walmer village, "and got out to take leave of Lady Wilton's children. 'They had received so many kindnesses from him, and bore him so much attachment, that all three—poor little things—ran to the door when he wished to go again, and attempted to bar his way."

His consideration for his servants was not less remarkable than his tender thoughtfulness towards children. "Not many fathers," Lord Stanhope declares, "I really believe, are so much beloved by their children as the Duke is by his servants." Add to all this, not a truer or more constant friend than the Duke ever lived. In the days of his greatness he never forgot the friends of his earlier days, with whom he made his Indian campaigns, and of the Spanish General Alava, who was on his staff at Waterloo and all through his Spanish campaigns, Lord Stanhope has the following:

"Sir Edward Kerrison related to me not many years ago, when he was living at Brighton, he had asked Alava to dinner, and to save Alava's money (for it was during his exile) had sent his own carriage to fetch him. On arriving, Alava thanked him, and said that he felt the more anxious to avoid expense at that time since it was the Duke's money that he spent. The Duke, added he, took me to his banker and said to him, 'This is my friend; and as long as

I have any money at your house, let him have it to any amount that he thinks proper to draw for.'"

But the sterling worth and simple grandeur of the Duke's character are perhaps illustrated in nothing so well as in the despatch which reports the battle of Waterloo. There is not in it a trace of boastfulness or exultation; no effort whatsoever to emphasize the magnitude of the occasion. The victory which overthrew the power of the conqueror of Europe is related as briefly, and with as entire an absence of flourish, as an insignificant skirmish:

"I breakfasted," writes Lord Stanhope, June 28, 1839, "with Hallam, and met Mr. Webster, the justly celebrated American, whose acquaintance I had already made, the day but one before, at a dinner at Lord Stanley's. He told me that on his way out he had been reading two or three odd volumes of the Duke of Wellington's despatches, and had been greatly struck at their total freedom from anything like pomp or ostentation, even in moments of greatest triumph. The Waterloo despatch itself contained nothing about victory and glory. So unpretending was it, said Mr. Webster, that Mr. Quincy Adams—who was our Minister at London at the time, and who had a good deal of bitter feeling against this country, with which peace had only just been concluded—declared on first reading the despatch that it came from a defeated general, and that in real truth the Duke's army must have been annihilated at Waterloo. This he seriously believed for some time."

Of the Duke before Waterloo, General Alava tells the following:

"After dinner, Lord Strangford alluded to Garwood's twelfth volume [*i. e.*, of the Wellington Despatches], which is just coming out, and this led the conversation to Waterloo. 'Je me rapellerai toujours,' said Alava, 'comme j'arrivais de Bruxelles, et je ne savais pas si depuis l'Espagne le Duc serait toujours la tête de Méduse pour les Français; mais quand je suis arrivé, le Duc m'a dit tout de suite, Étiez-vous chez Lady Charlotte Greville hier soir? Alors j'ai vu qu'il était tranquille, et que tout allait bien. Il m'a dit aussi: Ils seront diablement surpris, les Français, de voir comme je vais défendre une position.' The Duke laughed at these recollections, and assented to them."

This Spanish General Alava had a strange fortune. He began life as an officer in the Spanish Navy, and in that capacity the first great engagement at which he was present was the battle of Trafalgar, when, of course, he fought on the side of the French. His last battle was Waterloo, and he was, probably, the only man in Europe who had been present in both these memorable conflicts.

The Duke had a high opinion of the military genius of the first Napoleon. Of all his marshals he thought Massena the ablest, but even he was not comparable with his master. There was no soldier in whose presence it was so fatal to make a mistake as in that of Napoleon. His weakness was that he lacked the patience to fight a defensive campaign. It was to this defect mainly that the Duke attributed the ruinous failure of the Russian invasion. Napoleon here attempted to crowd into a single campaign the work of two or even three, and to a similar impatience the Duke assigns the success with which, after Leipzig, the allied armies baffled the efforts of Napoleon to defend Paris. None the less, the Duke was of opinion that Napoleon's military genius was never seen more brilliantly than in this unsuccessful campaign. "The study of it," he said, "has given me a greater idea of his genius than any other. Had he continued that system a little while longer, it is my opinion that he would have saved Paris. But he wanted patience—he did not see the necessity of adhering to defensive warfare—I have been obliged to do it for many months together—and he threw himself imprudently on the rear of the Allies. Then, of course, they marched to Paris."

This opinion was given in the presence of that high military authority, the omniscient Croker, who took it upon himself to dispute the verdict of the Duke. In his valuable opinion, the strategy of the French Emperor exhibited a remarkable want of skill. "'I can only say,' replied the Duke, 'that my opinion of the campaign is what I have stated. In it Bonaparte beat the Austrians, Prussians, and Russians—different armies—always with the same troops; and I have had experience enough to know how very exact a man must be in his calculations, and how very skilful in his manœuvres, to be able to do that.'" Croker, however, did not forego his belief that, as regards the art and practice of war, the greatest of (then) living soldiers had a good deal to learn from the editor of the *Quarterly Review*. We know, from the Greville Memoirs, that upon one occasion he set himself to contradict the Duke upon the subject of gun caps, and later, in these "Notes," we find him graciously condescending to explain to the Duke the true signification of the scarp and counterscarp of a fort ditch—premising that the Duke appeared to be ignorant on this point.

The Duke had not a high opinion of his allies, the Spaniards. The men, he admits, were fine specimens of humanity, and, taken individually, as brave as any people in the world; but, somehow or other, they could not be got to fight on a field of battle. But the battle of Baylen, suggested Lord Stanhope?

"Oh, Baylen was mismanaged by the French. I knew Dupont afterwards at Paris—he was Minister of War—a very able man, but he took fright and did not understand the Spaniards. It could not have happened again Later in the war, the French would have marched over the Spaniards, instead of capitulating to them. Their general would have said, Retirez-vous, coquins! and off they would have gone. That Baylen, too, was always in the heads of the Spanish officers. They were always for attempting the same manœuvre and surrounding the enemy, insomuch that at last I used always to tell them before any engagement, Now, this is not a battle of Baylen; don't attempt to make it a battle of Baylen!"

Of Talleyrand there are some good stories scattered through these "Notes."

"He is not," said the Duke, "lively or pleasant in conversation, but now and then he comes out with a thing that you remember all the rest of your life. *E. g.*, Talleyrand on his return to Paris from the London Embassy was asked what might be the position in society of a certain Edward Ellice, and replied, 'Je m'en vais vous le dire. Quand on a eu un grand dîner, on donne d'ordinaire encore un réchauffé le lendemain—et c'est au second dîner qu'on invite Monsieur Ellice."

BRITISH AGRICULTURE.

The Pioneers and Progress of English Farming. By Rowland E. Prothero, Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. Longmans, Green & Co.

The attractiveness, even to a lay reader, of Mr. Prothero's history of English agriculture is, to the economic student, doubled by his masterly presentation of the truth that prosperity is again possible to British farmers through the adoption of improved methods in the production of crops which the needs of the present demand, and impossible if the farmers prefer to "slumber in their empty corn-bins, dreaming of Protection," which at best would perpetuate the use of antiquated methods in the production of crops which American competition has rendered permanently unprofitable.

The author is a conservative, in sympathy with the landed interests. Nevertheless, as an investigator, he has a scientific conscience, and the statistical information in which his volume abounds, but with which his text is never burdened, is not only accurate in detail, but truthful in its grouping. In the first portion of his history, the coloring due to his political bias is scarcely perceptible. The lesson which is here strongly impressed is the value of scientific agriculture, despite the ridicule it receives from those whose range of vision is confined to the largest possible profits in the year just ahead. Every one of the improvements by which the product of English agriculture has been increased seven fold has been received with distrust by the mass of practical farmers. When Lord Townsend, in the middle of the last century, revived the practice of marling and introduced the growing of turnips from Hanover, though he thereby increased the rental of his Norfolk estates from almost nothing to fifteen shillings per acre, it was years before his example was generally followed. "Many persons classed turnips with rats among Hanoverian novelties, and refused their assistance with Jacobite indignation." A similar reception awaited Bakewell's discovery of the principle of selection in the breeding of stock. Before his day, breeding was in general "a promiscuous union of nobody's son with everybody's daughter." Only slowly did farmers adopt his principle, and in breeding use only bulls and rams which possessed the qualities they wished to reproduce. Yet, by the end of the century, the change wrought was so great that the sheep in Smithfield market, which in 1710 had weighed on the average twenty-eight pounds, in 1795 weighed eighty pounds.

It was during the period of these and other improvements which revolutionized agriculture that the enclosure of the commons began. In describing this process the author's conservative bias expresses itself in the emphasis which he gives to the resulting benefits. Common land was practically waste land. It was impossible to make improvements upon it. Enterprising men could take no action without securing the coöperation of their indifferent and ignorant partners. The substitution of individual ownership was necessitated. By the enclosure of the commons the landlords solved the problem of the greatest possible production of wealth; but the problem of its best possible distribution they completely ignored. Mr. Prothero does not attempt to conceal the fact that the helplessness of the agricultural laborer was in many sections increased, and that it would have been well for England had Parliament accepted the recommendation that the lot of the common-field farmers should be rendered as easy as possible "by laying to their cottages a sufficient portion of land to enable them to keep a cow or two." Nevertheless, he does not, like Thorold Rogers and Arnold Toynbee, bring into prominence the "socialism of capital" which the legalized confiscation of the common lands involved. There is nothing to suggest Karl Marx's picture of the Duchess of Sutherland expelling the cotters from nearly eight hundred thousand acres of clan land, and assigning them but six thousand acres on the seashore, where, as an English author with grim humor has expressed it, "they lived half on land, half on water, and withal only half lived on both." There is very little to suggest Toynbee's generalization, that mainly through the self-interested legislation of richer classes during this epoch, rents and interest on capital were doubled, while real wages were reduced nearly one-half.

Yet, in spite of his Conservative bias, Mr. Prothero does not fail to bring out certain facts illustrative of the radical doctrine, recent-

ly expressed in an American state paper, that it is mockery of the people to "propose that the Government shall protect the rich, and that they in turn shall protect the poor." In a chapter devoted to the agricultural laborers, he says:

"Looking back to the period of protection, from 1790 to 1840, their condition was deplorable, a disgrace to civilization generally, and to landlords and farmers particularly. . . . The standard of life from 1800 to 1834 sank to the lowest possible scale; in the south and west, wages paid by employers fell to 3s. to 4s. per week, augmented by parochial relief from the pockets of those who had no need of labor."

Mr. Prothero's entire review of the effect of protective legislation is singularly satisfactory, and singularly full of lessons which one cannot help applying to the situation now existing in America:

"So long as protection lasted, landlords and farmers were unable to resist the gambling spirit which it fostered. . . . Inflated prices raised rentals, and vastly increased the area under corn cultivation. . . . Farmers brought nothing upon their holdings in the shape of costly manures or expensive feeding stuffs; they laid down no pipe for drainage. . . . They themselves were men of little enterprise, . . . farming by rule of thumb and from hand to mouth, investing in no improvements. . . ."

When the corn-laws were repealed, and farmers recognized that the repeal was final, they turned their attention from corn-growing, which did not pay, to stock-feeding, which did pay. Self-help took the place of Government aid. Improved machinery and improved methods were simultaneously introduced. High farming became the rule instead of the exception; and English agriculture entered upon a period of prosperity in which reduced prices were accompanied by production so largely increased that not only wages but rents rose higher than ever before.

In only two instances does Mr. Prothero's sympathy with the landlords lead him into the use of bad logic and doubtful statistics. The chief of these is in the chapter entitled "Protection Taxes on Free Trade Prices." Here, after asserting that rents have decreased 35 to 40 per cent. since 1878, and are now no higher than they were prior to 1834, he insists that justice imperatively demands the remission of taxation on agricultural land, because in the earlier period local rates were offset by protective taxes, and the poor-law was so administered that the farmers' labor bill was paid by the community. The argument refutes itself. If rents are still as high as formerly, it signifies that the net income of the landlord is still as great, in spite of the fact that he no longer has protection and must now pay his own labor bill. His net income being as great, there is no reason why his taxes should not also be as great. There is, on the contrary, reason why his taxes should be greater. In 1814, says Professor Fawcett, 69 per cent. of the rates were borne by land; in 1868 but 33 per cent. The burdens of local taxation upon all other forms of property have steadily increased, upon land they have remained stationary. The other instance in which Mr. Prothero is sophistical in his argument, and more than doubtful in his statistics, is where, after picturing the wretchedness of the French peasant proprietors in a way that suggests Lady Verney, he declares that "it is the travesty of history" to assert that the peasant proprietary of France was created by legislation, inasmuch as it was firmly established before the Revolution. The best French authorities, like Paul Boiteau, author of the 'État de la France en 1789,' estimate the landowners in France before the Revolution at 450,000, 280,000 of whom were nobles and clergy. In 1812 3,799,000 French farmers owned the land which they cultivated.

Apart from the revision of taxation in the interest of the landlords, the remaining legislative proposals urged are in the line of progress and not of reaction. Chief among them are the establishment of a new system of land-transfer and the regulation of railway freight rates by a long-and-short-haul provision similar to that of the Cullom bill. At present, as every one knows, the titles of English estates can only be discovered after a prolonged search into what Cromwell termed "a godless and tortuous jungle;" and if the estate be small, the cost may often equal the purchase money. The need of railway reform is equally imperative. Our author's statement of it cannot be improved:

"Railway companies admit that they carry at a profit hops from Flushing to London for 25s.; therefore this profit must be enormous on the same weight of hops at 36s. 8d. from Sittingbourne to London. . . . Foreign perishable produce is sent through to London in fast trains from which local growers are excluded. . . . Food is cheapened, but only by bounties to foreign producers and premiums on distance at the expense of proximity."

Under no natural system, he maintains, would England import each year fresh meat, butter, eggs, fruit, and vegetables to the value of £30,600,000. It is to the production of just this class of commodities that English farmers must now turn their attention. American competition has permanently lowered the price of grain. But in the production of market-garden and dairy products, rent is by nature unimportant—labor and distance all-important. If English farmers, instead of dreaming of protection, will follow the example of those among their number who are now succeeding in adapting themselves to the new conditions by breaking up the large holdings and using improved methods and improved machinery, they may by self-help again attain a prosperity simlar to that which followed their acceptance of the repeal of the corn-laws. "Twice before English agriculture has changed its front. In the sixteenth century farmers turned from the plough to pasture; in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries they reverted to tillage. Now, at the close of the nineteenth, live-stock and dairy farming must supersede corn as the farmer's sheet anchor."

RECENT NOVELS.

Leaves from the Life of a Good-for-Nothing. Translated from the German of Joseph Freiherr von Eichendorff by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Romance of a Shop. By Amy Levy. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Young Maids and Old. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

A Village Tragedy. By Margaret L. Woods. Henry Holt & Co.

Temple House. By Elizabeth Stoddard. Cassell & Co.

The Peckster Professorship. By J. P. Quincy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Admirable Lady Biddy Fane. By Frank Barrett. Cassell & Co.

JUST why, at this day, should be translated Von Eichendorff's novelette, long known to schoolgirls and some others, it is hard to say. Probably most of the German reading public have already made its acquaintance in the original, and others will hardly be interested in it. If once they might have been so, it would be in that long-vanished time when Germany was a comparatively unknown world to us, and when its porcelain stoves, and feather beds, and the flea-stuffed sofa of Mary Howitt were novelties. German gushing romanticism is now an old story, yet hardly old enough to possess the interest of an antique. Furthermore, why this slight tale should be published in the bravest apparel, with imposing paper, print, illustrations, and binding, is renewed mystery. Given the fact, however, that there are readers still to be diverted by the sentimental fiddler of the Fatherland, with his yearnings, his pipe, and his spotted dressing-gown, then here is diversion in the fullest sense; this archaic and effusive person may be followed through a maze of adventure, now worshipping Nature, now eating bread and butter, and throughout in love with his lady fair. The work of translation has been admirably done.

The charge of obsoleteness cannot be brought against 'The Romance of a Shop,' which is modern to its uttermost comma. Four sisters, losing their father and their fortune, open a photographic studio, hoping, as one of the sisters puts it, "to become the fashion, make colossal fortunes, and ultimately marry dukes." Their hopes are in part fulfilled, yet the author does not allow the shop unpleasantly to dominate the romance, or make the story an essay in ambush on photography. When Poverty peeps in at the window, Love drives up to the door. The sisters take photographs, read Rossetti, and attend in rusty black what they are pleased to call "smart functions." At the last, one of them is led to the altar by a peer. An old love and a genius have to content two others, while the fourth is reserved for the catastrophe. A catastrophe is of course inevitable in a romance, yet the size of this one is out of proportion with the book and wears a factitious air as of stage thunder. Taken with a good deal that is commonplace in incident, it defaces a book which in style is often sprightly and in tone generally high. The printing and paper are sumptuous.

Within the covers of 'Young Maids and Old' we have not found anything as attractive as the title without. It is a pale story of slender vitality. One old maid has as hobby a nephew; another, as hers, a brother. That two young maids appear upon the scene and capture the nephew and the brother, to the consternation of their lady keepers, is matter of course. Add to this an unpleasant papa, whom even the author could not endure, and early kills; an artist, who is introduced to play the weird part of unsuccessful suitor; and an elderly deacon, who persuades one of the old maids, his early love, to become a matron on the last page, and the story is told. It is throughout perfectly correct, and may safely be sent to the hospitals as innocuous reading for the feeble.

Less cheerful reading for sick or well is to be found in 'A Village Tragedy,' which sets forth a tale of unrelieved misery. Told in a level tone of restraint which well suits the monotonous wretchedness of the story, it is undoubtedly powerful as a presentation of drear forlornness, although, rather than a tragedy, its repulsiveness suggests an almshouse report. Not too gloomy, we must fear, to be photographically true, some of its scenes are hardly fit subjects for art.

'Temple House' is quite as unhappy a book, with less of realism and more of the exaltation of tragedy. Near of kin to 'Two Men,' by the same author, it emphasizes the least agreeable phases of that striking book. It is red with blood and hot with passion, but its throbbing life is so overlaid with unreal forms that men-

tal confusion is produced within the reader, and he is left mocked and exasperated.

'The Peckster Professorship' opens like a society novel. It is, therefore, with a shock that on an early page, while Prof. Ernest Hargrave is helping Mrs. Clara Souford remove to the ice-chest, lest it should sour, "a certain creamy bubbling composition" for "the morrow's flapjacks," we find that we must be serious, and are asked to sympathize in the efforts of this man and woman to found a Professorship for Independent Spiritual Research. Let not the unwary suppose that this is all. The members of the Psychic Research Society are obsolete Philistines beside our Professor and his wife, who lead us a dance. Beginning as witnesses of their experiments for ascertaining the absolute weight of a human soul as it is leaving the body, on through sober assertions of the flight and migration of a human body from one city to another, till we assist at the projection of the spirit into the distance, into the past, into the future—we follow the scent of battle; and when, at last, astral counterparts and the Sublime Brotherhood appear, we are fairly roused to the fact that we are not to stop short of Esoteric Buddhism, with Sinnett, Col. Olcott, and Mme. Blavatsky as high priests. Prof. Hargrave, unlike some of his brother adepts, is hand and glove with science. He occupies a chair of osteology in a university near Boston (what one can be meant?) until this besotted institution decides that he is too much given to chimeras, and abolishes the professorship. He then retires to the Andes to found a brotherhood, where he invents Advanced Exercises for Will Practice, and supplies "vibrating Psychoplasm" for the rhythmic regulation of fury-heated heads in times of social revolution. His wife, once dully superintending flapjacks, now becomes a Sensitive under his influence (exerted, by the way, from Brazil upon her in Boston), and is enabled to float down the waves of time and become a witness of the future. In all this there is so much of burning conviction that, along with Dr. Bense, the ultra-scientist and doubting Thomas of the story, one grows quite credulous. The local color, given by Boston and Cambridge interiors and street scenes, furthers this result, while the constant reference to scientific authorities, mingled with a noble scorn of *mere* science, is for the hour all-convincing. The writing is learned, involved, and laborious. The fact that one is terribly bored by it at times seems one more proof of its reality as a report. Anything so heavy must be true, or why should it exist? At the last, there flames up so warm a moral and spiritual glow that we defy any one to remain quite cool under it. With its affectations, pomposities, preposterousnesses, and kindlings, this strange book leaves one with a sense of having been amused, irritated, fatigued, and exalted.

'The Admirable Lady Biddy Fane' is one of those extravaganzas which at all ages the human mind craves in one or another form. It is not likely to live as a classic, yet to the jaded reader of the bric-à-brac novel it will carry a certain tonic force. After a course of alleged mind analysis, it is a pleasure to go to sea, to be pursued by pirates, to be abandoned on desert shores, to be slain a hundred times by fire, water, and sword, to wander for two years in South American wildernesses with the girl of one's heart, to deliver her safely into her guardian's hands, and to have the double satisfaction of marrying her and of seeing one's foes hanging in a row at the yard-arm. The idyllic part of these wanderings recalls the journey of Consuelo and Haydn. There can be no doubt that the horrors are laid on too unsparingly, yet in its ferocities what unreflecting comfort! The quaint language of Elizabethan times completes its pungency.

The True Story of Hamlet and Ophelia. By Fredericka Beardsley Gilchrist. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1889.

If there is any topic on which unrestrained freedom of speech is traditionally permissible, it is *Hamlet's* mystery. Every one has been encouraged to bring the contribution of his own mad wits to its elucidation; and this has gone on so long that it might seem impossible to add new illustrations of the mind's fatuity to those which already enliven the commentary of the play. But he reckons ill who sets limits to the talent man has for fooling himself. For the hundredth time the heart has been plucked out at last, and the question settled. To the objection that this adds only one more to the theories of the play, the author says: "To this I reply—with modesty and an ardent desire to be proven in the wrong if I be wrong—that it seems to me the theory I advance destroys all other theories. For nearly three hundred years it has been possible to misunderstand, not special passages only, but the fundamental intention of the play; during that time no satisfactory explanation of *all* its obscurities has been advanced. I believe this theory explains them." And what is the secret? One wants the key at once. It is found in the lines:

> "O all you host of heaven! O earth! what else?
> And shall I couple hell?"

It seems the punctuation is wrong. The last line should read:

> "And shall I couple? Hell!"

"We know," says the author, "that no fault was more common than the interchange or omission of ? and !; and this I believe is what Shakspere wrote." How simple it is!

The bearing of this remarkable emendation is, that *Hamlet* gave up at once his love for *Ophelia*, and, his young life being thus devastated, the rest of his history is as clear as moonshine. The character of *Ophelia* is, further on, developed as that of a maiden of a sensuous temperament, distrusted by her nearest relatives, and showing in madness the current of her secret thoughts; one who needed only to be tempted to be won; and this has been discerned by *Hamlet*, who, confounded by the weakness of his mother, has had his eyes opened to the nature of woman's frailty. *Hamlet* himself is made out to be less than twenty-one years old. Naturally, the youth, having so suddenly determined not to marry, on hearing the ghost's story, falls into melancholy. It is not true, however, that he had the weakness to contemplate suicide. He never thought of it. The famous soliloquy, "To be or not to be," refers, as a German actor, Ziegler, discovered, and other German critics have agreed, to the question whether or not the play of *Gonzago* shall "be"—that is, be played before the King and Queen. *Hamlet* was not philosophizing, but planning. So the entire text is gone over, scene by scene; and it is clear to the author that there are no difficulties which do not disappear before the formula of "shall I couple?" etc., which is consequently often restated. The old "Hystorie of Hamblet" is used to bear out some of the argument, particularly with regard to *Ophelia*, and is reprinted entire at the end of the volume.

Whether this theory "destroys all others," the judicious will no doubt determine; there is still room to believe that *Hamlet's* love was an incident in a larger life, important in the structure of the action, but dissociated from many elements in the play. *Hamlet's* age is susceptible of discussion, but it is hard to reconcile his mind with his being a boy; and as to the soliloquy, the question raised is preëminently one to be threshed by the class of German critics who evolved it. The emendation made in the lines quoted, on which the author has put an unnecessary and unfortunate emphasis, is likely to have some currency as a curiosity of Shakspere criticism; it is really not essential to the argument, but it is a test of the author's qualifications, and indicates justly enough the eccentric and flimsy nature of the volume.

Truth about Russia. By W. T. Stead. Cassell & Co. 1888.

Mr. Stead's position as editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* is so peculiar that it is difficult always to distinguish between the writer and the man. It must be said, however, that, so far as Russia is concerned, Mr. Stead's attitude has always been consistent. From the beginning he has sincerely believed that Russia and England were in a false position to each other, and he has therefore tried to present to the English public the Russian side, both official and unofficial, of the questions which have arisen between the two countries. During the dispute about the Afghan boundary, and especially the Penjdeh affair, his was the only English newspaper which was willing to state truly the facts of the case. He was enabled to do this by having access to Russian sources of information. What are the terms of his literary and political partnership with Mme. Novikoff ("O. K."), it is of course impossible to say. This lady, who has a mysterious relation to the imperial family, and who for some years has played the part of an unofficial ambassadress at London, first made her appearance in literature in a series of letters contributed to a small Newcastle newspaper which Mr. Stead was then editing. Since that time she has been looked upon as his Egeria, and was for a time considered even the inspirer of Mr. Gladstone. This lady now writes for the English reviews and magazines, and contributes frequent letters to the *Times* whenever a Russian question crops up. In the book before us Mr. Stead begs the pardon of Mme. Novikoff for daring to differ from her about church questions; for he seems to be an adherent of the Salvation Army, and is indignant at the cold shoulder now shown to that Methodistical, canting Lord Radstock, his convert Pashkoff, and their followers, who were formerly received with open arms by St. Petersburg society as mitigating the asperities of the Russian Lent, when there were no balls and operas, and theatres were shut. Mme. Novikoff, however, has belabored Mr. Stead well for his strictures on the orthodox Church in a recent article in the *Contemporary Review*, entitled "A Cask of Honey with a Spoonful of Tar," in which she exposes his ignorance of Russian affairs when left to his own unguided or misguided investigations and conclusions.

Leaving out the portion of the book which is devoted to religious persecution, and the introductory chapters recounting interviews with Boulanger and Laveleye, and the author's stay at Berlin, where, it is said, Count Herbert Bismarck's indignant refusal to grant him an interview was the cause of the article on the Bismarck dynasty in the February number of the *Contemporary Review*, most of the book is taken up with Gen. Ignatieff and Count Leo Tolstoi. With the former the author had several interviews; with the latter he seems to have stayed a week, and he even dates a portion of his book from Yasnaya-Polyana. The book, on the whole, is entertaining and interesting. It contains much that is true and much

that is new to the general reader. The amateur-like suggestions for reforms and new institutions are rather amusing, especially the discussion of the tribunitial character of the Czar, and the proposal for him to increase his usefulness by becoming the editor-in-chief of a great daily newspaper for treating of the grievances of his subjects.

Popular Lectures and Addresses. By Sir William Thomson, LL.D., F.R.S., F.R.S.E., &c. In 3 vols. Vol. I. Constitution of Matter. Macmillan.

WHATEVER comes from the pen of Sir William Thomson is certain to receive a hearty welcome, not only from teachers and students, but from men of science in general. In this volume we have eleven lectures, or short papers, full of originality, and not wanting in a certain spice of humor. They are not adapted to elementary instruction, but yet are intelligible to well-trained youthful minds, and they have two eminent recommendations: they are interesting, and they are in the highest degree suggestive. Part of their interest arises from their distinctly personal character. The reader listens to the free, off-hand talk of a great master, and not to a formal ex-cathedra lecture. We do not believe that any man of science will rise from the perusal of these papers without a deepening or a shattering of old convictions, and without broader and clearer views of the possibilities of future scientific progress. It is difficult to select any paper as, in comparison with others, most worthy of notice, but we would call attention to the remarkable trains of reasoning in the lectures on the size of atoms, and in those on the sun's heat. We await the appearance of the second and third volumes of these papers with great interest. The volume before us embraces the constitution of matter; the second will include subjects connected with geology; while the third will deal chiefly with phenomena of the ocean and maritime affairs.

Great Captains. A Course of Six Lectures, showing the Influence on the Art of War of the Campaigns of Alexander, Hannibal, Cæsar, Gustavus Adolphus, Frederick, and Napoleon. By Theodore A. Dodge, U. S. A., retired. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 8vo, pp. 219.

COLONEL DODGE has published his Lowell Institute Lectures of the past winter in a very neat and readable volume under the above title. Of course, the limits of a single lecture make the treatment of the career of each of the six "great captains" a mere sketch; but the sketch is given with a freedom of drawing and an eye to perspective which produce a pleasing and vivid picture. The consistent purpose in all of them has been to show that great warriors have been great in proportion as they have possessed that high form of practical intellect which has enabled them to make a science of their work. To rise from courageous and stubborn fighters to clear thinkers as well, grasping what are now recognized as leading principles of the art of war and applying them on a great scale, is presented as the distinctive mark of the great general as contrasted with those of lesser rank. The author shows with clearness that in ancient as well as modern times the criterion of greatness has been the same, and that Frederick or Napoleon succeeded by virtue of principles and intellectual character similar to Alexander's or Cæsar's. The book is adapted to popular reading, and will prove attractive to all who have a taste for military analysis.

Sketches of a Tour through Holland and Germany. By J. P. Mahaffy and J. E. Rogers. Macmillan & Co.

DURING the last few years there has been an abundance of books on Holland. The impression one gets from nearly all of them is, that the country is one great museum of antiquities and oddities, entirely out of touch with modern civilization, except perhaps in a few large cities. The peculiar merit of Prof. Mahaffy's book, in so far as it relates to Holland, is, that while he has an open eye for the picturesque features of the country, he does not devote his whole space to them, but gives his readers a fair idea of the state of religious and political parties and of other subjects of every-day life. His views are generally sound, and (for instance, where he discusses the remarkable fact that political liberalism is nearly always allied in Holland with indifference in religious matters) he shows a clear insight into the peculiar social conditions of Holland. The author evidently is not acquainted with the Dutch language; one of his principal grievances against the Dutch is that they failed to understand him. This ignorance explains his astonishing statement that Holland had no great authors in the seventeenth century. Vondel, Hooft, Huyghens, who would reflect honor on any literature, do not seem to be known to him.

The author feels much more at home in Holland than in Germany. The want of material comfort, as compared with Holland, seems to have irritated him as much as the lack of political liberty, and, consequently, his denunciation of the Bismarckian régime is severe and occasionally flippant. This part of the work is chiefly interesting because it gives a description of a part of Germany rarely visited, viz., the Baltic provinces and some old cities in the interior.

The book is handsomely got up, and the illustrations are of more than average merit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balzac, H. Cousin Pons. Frederick Warne & Co.
Bellamy, Mrs. Penny Lancaster, Farmer. Frank P. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Bernard, V. F. Le Genre des Noms. W. R. Jenkins.
Brown, W. H. The Slaves of Folly. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Bryan, Mrs. Mary E. My Own Son. George Munro. 25 cents.
Bunce, O. B. The Story of Happinolande, and Other Legends. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Burhans, J. A. The Law of Municipal Bonds, including a Digest of Statutory Laws Relating to their Issue. S. A. Kean & Co.
Burke, Edmund. A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of Our Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Burton—Pringle. The Processes of Pure Photography. The Scovill and Adams Co. $2.
Campbell, Helen. Under Green Apple Boughs. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. Vol. III. Catarrh to Dion. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Chambers, F. H. Fun and Fact. J. S. Ogilvie.
Cheyne, Prof. T. K. Jeremiah: His Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Colgnet, Clarissa. Francis the First and His Times. Translated by Fanny Tremlow. Scribner & Welford. $5.00.
Dale, A. A Marriage below Zero. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Davy, E. M. Jack Dudley's Wife. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Deane, H. Daniel: His Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Dolaro, Selina. Bella-Demonia: A Dramatic Story. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Doty, A. H. A Manual of Instruction in the Principles of Prompt Aid to the Injured. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Draw Poker without a Master: How to Play the Game with Success. G. W. Dillingham.
Essayes of Montaigne. Translated by John Florio. Edited by Justin H. McCarthy. London: David Stott. 2 vols. $1.50 each.
Findlay, Prof. G. G. The Epistle to the Galatians. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Foote, A. R. Economic Value of Electric Light and Power. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Gilman, N. P. Profit-Sharing Between Employer and Employee: A Study in the Evolution of the Wages System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Guillemard, F. H. H. The Cruise of the *Marchesa* to Kamschatka and New Guinea. With Maps and Woodcuts. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford. $5.
Hamilton, Alice King. Lochinvar; or, Told by an Army Fireside. United Service Publishing Co.
Hardy, A. S. Passe Rose. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hazard, R. G. Economics and Politics: 1840–1885. Causation in Freedom and Willing. Freedom of Mind in Willing. Essay on Language, and Other Addresses. 4 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hoey, Mrs. Cashel. The Queen's Token. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Lady Bluebeard: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Lee, B. Thomas Hard, Priest. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Linskill, Mary. In Exchange for a Soul. Frank P. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
McClelland, M. G. Burkett's Lock. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Mivart, St. G. On Truth: A Systematic Inquiry. Scribner & Welford. $6.
Monier-Williams, Sir M. Buddhism, in its Connection with Brahmanism and Hinduism, and its Contrast with Christianity. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Norton, C. E. Letters of Thomas Carlyle. 1826–1836. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Ohnet, G. Dr. Rameau. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Ohnet, G. The Double Wrong, or a Broken Life. Pollard & Moss.
Oliphant, Mrs. Lady Carr: The Sequel of a Life. The Judge Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Our Pariahs among the Tramps. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Page, T. E. P. Vergili Maronis Æneidos Lib. II. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Peck, W. The Story of the Puritans; A Go-as-you-please History. St. Johnsbury, Vt.: Charles T. Walter.
Plummer, C. S. Leaves from a Drummer's Diary. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Rexdale, R. Saved by the Sword: A Novel. American News Co. 50 cents.
Rock, G. The Crime of the Golden Gully. Pollard & Moss. 25 cents.
Sergeant, A. Esther Denison. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Sergeant, Adeline. Under False Pretences. Frank P. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Saltus, E. A Transaction in Hearts: An Episode. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Sidney, Margaret. Five Little Peppers, and How They Grew. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 25 cents.
Sims, G. R. A Missing Husband, and Other Tales. J. S. Ogilvie.
Sharp, W. Romantic Ballads and Poems of Phantasy. 2d ed. London: Walter Scott.
Smith, F. H. A White Umbrella in Mexico. With Illustrations by the Author. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Smith, Rev. G. A. The Book of Isaiah. Vol. I. A. C. Armstrong & Co.
Smith, W. W. A Treatise on Private Corporations. Philadelphia: Rees, Welsh & Co.
Southey, R. The Life of Wesley and the Rise and Progress of Methodism. Frederick Warne & Co.
Souvestre, Emile. Confessions d'un Œuvrier. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Steam: Its Generation and Use. New York: The Babcock and Wilcox Co.
Stevenson, E. I. Janus. Belford, Clarke & Co.
St. John, Sir S. Hayti; or, the Black Republic. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford. $2.50.
Stock, St. G. Deductive Logic. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Stockton, F. R. The Great War Syndicate. P. F. Collier.
Times and Days, being Essays in Romance and History. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Todd, C. B. The Story of Washington, the National Capital. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Young, Prof. C. A. A Text-Book of General Astronomy, for Colleges and Scientific Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 4, 1889.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has now made appointments to the leading foreign missions. In order to show them in comparison with those made by his predecessor, we arrange them in parallel columns:

	Cleveland's Appointments.	Harrison's Appointments.
Great Britain.	E. J. Phelps.....	Robert T. Lincoln
France.....	Robert M. McLane.	Whitelaw Reid.
Germany	Geo. H. Pendleton.	M. Halstead.
Russia.....	G. V. N. Lothrop...	Allen T. Rice.
Austria	A. R. Lawton.....	Fred D. Grant.
Italy.....	John B. Stallo.....	Albert Porter.
Spain.....	J. L. M. Curry.....	T. W. Palmer.
Chili	Wm. R. Roberts...	Patrick Egan.

We think it will be admitted by most Republicans that Mr. Cleveland's list represents a higher level of intellectual culture and attainment than Mr. Harrison's, and consequently that the standing of the country abroad, in so far as it depends upon the quality of our diplomatic representatives, will be somewhat less distinguished in the next four years than it has been in the past four. This is not true in all particulars, but it is true in the average, and is what Republicans of discernment are saying to each other to-day.

The appointment of Mr. Robert T. Lincoln for Minister to England is highly respectable. It fits in with the spirit of reverence which all Americans hold for the name of Lincoln. It goes side by side with the appointment of Col. Fred. Grant for Minister to Austria. Both nominations, if we look upon a foreign mission as "something to get," are admirably bestowed. But upon any other theory we must be allowed to say that a better choice might have been made in either case. Mr. Lincoln is not one of the foremost lawyers in the country. He is a respectable lawyer, but many degrees inferior to Mr. Phelps as a representative of American culture and intellectual power. This is no disparagement to Mr. Lincoln, who is still a young man who has his spurs to earn. There are other members of the Chicago bar who would have filled this place to better advantage. Still, Mr. Lincoln will, if he accepts the place, make a creditable ambassador.

Nothing could be more absurd than the talk of some thoughtless editors about the Senate's action in the case of Mr. Halstead being an attempt to "muzzle the press." On the contrary, it is the confirmation of an editor's nomination which muzzles a newspaper, and his rejection which removes the muzzle. This is strikingly demonstrated by the contrast between the present attitude of the New York *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. The *Tribune's* editor was nominated for Minister to France and confirmed by the Senate. The result is, that the *Tribune* has no opinion to express on the most important events of the day, like the selection of a Minister to England, and has had not one word to say on the action of the Senate in the Halstead case. On the other hand, the editor of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* was nominated for Minister to Germany and rejected by the Senate. The result is, that this journal is expressing its opinions on all questions of the day with a freedom and emphasis not surpassed by any other member of the press.

We would not be understood as implying that the course of the journal controlled by the Minister to France is improper. Its silence when criticism might be expected is simply a recognition of the duty of the place-holder, which of course, under the circumstances, far transcends in importance the prerogative of the editor. Whitelaw Reid as a private citizen might and ought to express his views about the Administration with the utmost freedom. But Whitelaw Reid as Minister to France is himself a part of the Administration, and it would be both indecorous and unjust for him to find fault with his superiors. While not legally an impeachable offence, it would be morally a gross breach of all the proprieties for a mere official inferior such as Whitelaw Reid, Minister to France, now is, to express views about his official superiors such as Whitelaw Reid, private citizen, might and should express. Nobody need fear any harm to "freedom of the press" from such an event as Mr. Halstead's rejection. It is the confirmation of the Whitelaw Reids and Allen Thorndike Rices which really muzzles the press.

We observe with genuine sorrow that Col. Elliott F. Shepard's depression, caused by the Administration's foreign appointments, is increasing. It has been with extreme difficulty that he has been able to comment upon the selections for the French, Austrian, Italian, and Spanish Missions; and when those for the English, Russian, and German came along, he was only partially equal to the emergency. He had a few cold, formal words of approval for Messrs. Lincoln and Halstead, but for Mr. Rice nothing but silence. Why speech should have failed him in the presence of the good fortune of this fellow editorial thinker, we can, of course, only surmise; but we infer that it was because of a conviction that in some way the selection of Mr. Rice emphasized the cruel neglect of himself more strongly than that of any one else could have done. Both men had come into the ranks of the party thinkers in the same way; and, however religious the Colonel's continual contemplation of the Scriptures may have made him, he was obviously unable to see, when one was taken and the other left, why he should have been the one overlooked.

President Harrison has not yet made any changes in what may be styled the accounting department of the Government. Secretary Windom, having had some experience under a previous administration as head of the Treasury, doubtless understands the true functions of the auditors and comptrollers, and is presumably disinclined to urge the removal of these officers merely to give their places to "workers." Even if we cannot fully agree with the declaration made by Mr. Madison in the debate of 1789, upon the bill organizing the Treasury, that the comptroller should hold his office by a tenure independent of the executive branch of the Government, and even if we cannot imitate the example of nearly every country of Europe by establishing a permanent court of accounts, consisting of eminent magistrates holding office by a stable tenure, all who have any knowledge of our Treasury system must admit that the officers charged with the settlement of public accounts, the adjudication of claims, and the control of those who receive and disburse the funds of the Government, do not fall within the class which ought to be changed with a change of administration. These officers are not in confidential relations with the heads of departments; on the contrary, they are a check upon their expenditures. After the incessant friction of many years, it was declared by law that the balances stated and certified by the auditors and comptrollers upon the settlement of public accounts should not be changed or modified by the heads of departments, but should be conclusive upon the executive branch of the Government, subject only to revision by Congress or the proper courts. This law, enacted in 1868, ended the struggle of eighty years—a struggle which Madison had foreseen—and resulted in securing the independence of the accounting officers, so far as their judicial duties are concerned, of even the head of their own department.

An admirable description of what an auditor or comptroller should be was made in 1855 by Mr. Guthrie, who came into closer relations with these officers than did any other Secretary in recent times, and whose administration was so able and painstaking that its benefits are experienced to-day in every bureau of the Treasury. "To constitute a good auditor and a good comptroller," he said, "requires legal ability of a high order, a special knowledge of our fiscal and disbursement laws and regulations, coupled with unabating industry, unbending integrity, and promptitude of decision." If there be any one now in office with these qualifications, he ought to be retained; and if removals are made or vacancies in any way caused, President Harrison cannot do better than to apply rigidly the tests above mentioned to every applicant for the place of auditor or comptroller.

The well-informed correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* telegraphs the positive

statement that Mr. John Field has accepted the offer of the Philadelphia Post-office, and will be appointed to the position. Mr. Field is a merchant of the highest standing, who was an active member of the Committee of One Hundred organized to break up the infamous Republican ring which disgraced the city a dozen years ago, and has always been so much of a Mugwump as to bolt any nomination of his party which he considered unfit. He will accept the place on the distinct understanding that the office is to be run on business principles. The selection of a business man of the Field type to succeed a mere politician as Postmaster of Philadelphia, will naturally be held to involve the defeat of the effort now making to supplant with a mere politician the Postmaster who has so long conducted the New York office on the very principles which Mr. Field represents. Simultaneously to appoint John Field and dismiss Henry G. Pearson would be acts of flagrant inconsistency.

Secretary Tracy continues to lay down rules regarding his proposed conduct of the Navy Department which the public will remember, and by his adherence to which he will be judged. Politicians of the "Al" Daggett type have been talking loudly about making Brooklyn a Republican city through the use of the navy-yard patronage, and behaving generally as though this branch of the Federal Government were to become simply a part of the Republican machine. Secretary Tracy appears to have become tired of this, and authorizes the Washington correspondent of the Brooklyn *Eagle* to say that he is "unalterably opposed to Federal interference in State and municipal elections"; that "such experiments in the past have reacted disastrously upon those engaged in them"; that while regarding the approaching municipal campaign in Brooklyn as one of great importance, he does not intend that the Navy Department shall interfere in the slightest degree; that "the navy-yard will not be used to promote the election of any candidate for office"; in short, that "the good of the service, not the requirements of the political situation, is the thing to be considered." These are admirable sentiments to utter, but the people will only be satisfied with their execution.

The disaster at Samoa ought surely to furnish food for reflection to the believers in special providences, for it looks like supernatural mockery of the fuss the three Powers have been making over these unfortunate islands. The Germans have some commercial interests in them, and the British have possibly some political interest in them, because they are really, geographically considered, Australian dependencies. But what interest have we worth the sacrifice of a naval squadron and fifty lives? It is almost an accident that the ships have not been lost in a naval engagement with the Germans, for a hot-headed officer might at any moment during the past three months have precipitated a conflict. The only excuse for our being there at all is the suggestion of somebody, ten or twelve years ago, that it would be a good place for a coaling-station, and that we were in great need of one in that part of the Pacific. But in order to have a coaling-station it is not necessary to keep a fleet there. We have a concession for the purpose at Pago-Pago, on the other side of the island, where there is, we believe, a decent harbor, and, having this, all we needed to have whatever coal we wanted was to contract with a respectable coal-dealer to deposit a certain number of tons at that point, and put a storekeeper in charge of it. Nobody has disputed our right to this coal station, or questioned the propriety of our keeping coal in it. The fleet has not been collected there for that purpose. It went to support our Consul in a dispute with the Germans, the merits of which nobody clearly understands. Our trade with the island amounts to nothing, and can never amount to anything under our present tariff, if under any. The Germans and British would beat us on the spot, even if Auckland, which is only five days distant, were not the natural market for residents on the island. That we have any political interests to look after in an island 6,000 miles distant from our nearest frontier, worth the exposure of our navy to the risks from which so many gallant men have perished, will not be seriously maintained. The island is a dangerous place, as we see, in time of peace, and it would be still more dangerous in time of war.

Another serious outbreak of race prejudice is reported from Ohio. New Richmond, a town of 3,000 inhabitants in Clermont County, has about 700 white school-children to 300 black. After the repeal of the "black laws" two years ago, and the consequent throwing open of the public schools of the State to children of both races on equal terms, the negroes of New Richmond were persuaded to have their children kept in separate rooms, and thus virtually allow the old line of distinction to be maintained. But one negro, James Ringeld, decided to insist upon his rights, and sent his children into a room occupied by white children. The little negroes were abused and made miserable in every way, and finally Ringold appealed to the courts to protect him and them, suing the Superintendent of Schools and thirteen prominent citizens for $5,000 damages. On Thursday last the Circuit Court decided in his favor, giving him one cent and costs. This showed the negroes generally that they could legally send their children into the rooms occupied by white children, and they did so on Friday. Great excitement resulted, and so much disgust was expressed that on Saturday the School Board closed the schools for the remaining three months of the school year, as the only way out of the difficulty. The situation is thus described in a despatch to the *Times* of March 31: "This has been one of the most exciting Sundays the place has ever known. The streets have been crowded all day. All other topics were forgotten. Ministers counselled forbearance, and wise heads attempted to calm the impetuous. Each side professes to fear violence from the other. All the teachers will sue for their salaries for the remainder of the term, and costly litigation, if nothing else, is sure to follow. There is a prospect that a mandamus will be asked for in the morning to compel the School Board to reopen the schools."

These outbreaks of race prejudice in Ohio (for the New Richmond incident is only the latest in a long series) may well be associated with the alarm now felt by the intelligent and well-to-do white citizens of Topeka, Kan., lest their city shall be bankrupted by the votes of the poor and ignorant negroes who flocked thither a few years ago; and with the unanimous protest of the whole Republican press last winter against the proposed admission of New Mexico as a State, because of the ignorance of the white inhabitants of that Territory — ignorance not so dense or widespread as that which prevails among the blacks in Southern States. All these incidents serve to illuminate the Southern problem, and they ought to show the most partisan the need of charity. Hereafter, when we hear of some abuse of a Southern negro by a Southern white, let us recall how negro children have been treated by whites in more than one Ohio town; when we find Southern whites complaining that the unrestricted rule of the blacks would involve the community in financial ruin, let us think of Topeka's complaint; when we are told by Southern Democrats that the control of a Southern State by its majority of ignorant blacks would be intolerable, let us remember that the Republican party of the North refused to allow the majority of ignorant whites in New Mexico a share in the government of the Union because such an idea was intolerable.

The "exodus" of negroes from North Carolina is assuming large proportions. The most striking feature of the movement is the fact that most of the emigrants go to Arkansas, the State where the Clayton murder recently occurred, and where, according to Republican organs, the negroes are allowed the enjoyment of no rights. This would seem to indicate that the average negro does not care much for the reputation of a State or the opinion of a Republican organ. The simple truth about the "exodus" is, that it is a melancholy illustration of the credulity of the race, most of the misguided people who are leaving North Carolina having swallowed all the stories of the promoters of the movement about Arkansas being a land flowing with milk and honey.

A project is said to be on foot to establish a chair of Protectionism in Yale University on an endowment of $100,000. Undoubtedly the money can be raised. Protectionism can do almost anything that calls merely for cash. Leaving to the President and Fellows of Yale the question whether protectionism is a science distinct from political economy, or whether, being within the purview of political economy, it can be taught by one professor as true, and derided by another as false, we have a suggestion to make to the contributors of the endowment fund. This

is, that they shall define Protectionism in the terms that they are willing to stand by and "bet their money on." This is the more necessary, since the writings of Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson, the only professor of protectionism that we know of, are at variance in many important points with the teachings of more recent instructors, whose speeches adorn or encumber the pages of the *Congressional Record*, and are especially at variance with the last Chicago platform. If an agreement can be reached as to the meaning and definition of protectionism, we could put our hand on the right man for the professorship at once. We should choose above all competitors Mr. Allen Thorndike Rice. Mr. Rice signalized himself as a professor of Protectionism in a remarkable article in the *North American Review* for October, 1888, entitled "Maxims and Markets," in the course of which he threw off the jewel of thought that this country resumed specie payments by fiat or legerdemain, or in some way peculiarly American, thus silencing a great English statesman and political economist who couldn't understand how the thing was done.

The demand of the Aldermen to be allowed to participate prominently in the Centennial celebration destroys the last lingering hope of making it anything of a pageant, or keeping the social or ancestral element in any way prominent in it. It is now plain, and it ought to have been plain from the beginning to old New Yorkers like the members of the Committee, that to attempt any great public ceremony in this city, without making it wholly political or official, was to attempt the impossible. It would have been impossible even if there were in the city any "society" whose claims to distinction in the proper sense of the term could withstand even the criticism of an Alderman. But the most ignorant Alderman in the Board would have no difficulty in "making hay" of any extended lists of "first families," which any "society leader" would draw up, that was based on anything but money; and when it comes to comparing purses, the Alderman, of course, likes to be present and have his say. There is a certain number of historic families in New York who, on the historic plan, ought to be represented on an occasion like this, but the moneyed families do not acknowledge their preëminence, and will not yield the *pas* to them; and why, then, should the Aldermen, every one of whom may be, for aught we know, the father of a young man who will "lead the german" ten or fifteen years hence, and grumble over the presence of "the ignorant foreigners"? We trust the discords now impeding the preparations may be overcome, but they will only be overcome by the hearty and ungrudging acceptance of the democratic principle, and the offer of a cordial welcome to both the Legislators and the Aldermen.

The proposal of the French Government to prosecute Boulanger for a "conspiracy against the State" is one of the sink-or-swim resolutions which are usually interpreted as a sign of desperation. The prosecution of a man who has a large body of voters at his back is a doubtful experiment in any State, and particularly in France, where people so readily take up with a would-be dictator. It is not possible to punish him in any effective way without killing him, and no Government nowadays likes to kill a political opponent. If he is not killed, the chances are ten to one in favor of his becoming a martyr. The trial and imprisonment of Louis Napoleon in 1840 undoubtedly helped him on his way to the Empire in 1851, and if the French Government, instead of expelling the Comte de Paris, had seized him and locked him up, it would have done a good deal for the restoration of the monarchy. That Boulanger has been plotting and intriguing against the Republic, there is no question—in fact, he confesses it himself; but the trouble is, that a very large body of voters think he did right. M. Vacherot, who is not a bad observer, writes a forecast to the *Figaro*, which seems to have a great deal of wisdom in it. He says the election which will take place next fall will doubtless send up a strong anti-Republican majority, but that when Boulanger steps in to claim the benefit of it, the Bonapartists, Legitimists, and Conservatives generally will laugh at him, and will find themselves in exactly the same situation as in 1876, when they had to keep the Republic going because, as M. Thiers said, it was that which divided them the least. In other words, it is one thing to use Boulanger and break into the house, and another to install him as master.

Gen. Boulanger's "plan," over which there has been more or less fun, as he was said to have deposited it with a notary, is leaking out gradually, and has the merit of extreme simplicity, if it has no other. His supporters are not as reticent as he, and they, therefore, cheerfully justify their hopes. They say that he is to get a majority at the fall elections in the Chamber, and when President Carnot proposes to form a ministry, every member of the majority is to be forbidden to take office under him. Should he then seek a Cabinet in the minority, it is to be overthrown by a hostile vote on the first day. Then, after many fruitless efforts, he is to resign, as MacMahon, and Thiers, and Grévy did, and Boulanger is to be elected in his place, after which we are to see what we shall see.

The Tories have all along suffered from the want of a competent leader in the House of Commons. The gentleman who fills that place, Mr. Smith the newsdealer, is a sort of Wanamaker, who has much money and a good deal of business ability, but no oratorical power whatever. This want is painfully felt on ceremonial occasions like that of Friday, when the usual tributes were paid to John Bright's memory by the various party chiefs; all others being, by immemorial and most salutary usage, condemned to silence. Gladstone is, of course, always great and graceful at such times; and though his touch has undoubtedly grown heavier through age, he had in this case the inestimable qualification for the task, of long friendship and close intercourse with the departed worthy. Disraeli, who was always good on parade, did well in elegiac oratory, but broke down under the strain put on him by having to speak for the Opposition on the Duke of Wellington in 1851, and stole bodily, and applied to the Duke as his own, a passage from Thiers's History about the French General St. Cyr. He never quite recovered from this. Palmerston was very neat in this sort of work, but never put any feeling into it, and it needs feeling to be effective. His best effort was a tribute to Cavour which charmed the Italians. No harder task of the kind has ever fallen to any one than Mr. Gladstone in eulogizing Disraeli, whom he knew to be a charlatan, and who had grossly abused him personally, but he acquitted himself well. Who can take his place in functions of this sort, it is hard to say. The Tories are not likely to supply anybody, the Tory temper being especially hostile to effusiveness. John Morley has more promise in this direction than any of the younger men.

The latest news from the Argentine Republic shows little relief in the financial strain under which that country is laboring. Gold is at a premium of fifty-nine, with the tendency upwards; so that specie payments must still be remote. The late readjustment of the Cabinet is largely due to the pressure of the monetary situation. The Minister of the Interior, Dr. Wilde, resigns, and his place is taken by the late Minister of Finance, Dr. Pachico, who in turn is supplanted by Señor Barela in the Treasury. Minister Pachico has complained bitterly of the extravagance of some of his colleagues, notably of the Minister of the Interior, and his transfer to that office is taken to mean a determination to institute some of those economies which he has been maintaining were entirely feasible. The new Minister of Finance signalizes his accession by moving in a matter of great importance. The law guaranteeing the bank notes in circulation did so on condition that they should be withdrawn if depreciated more than 20 per cent. A banking commission has charge of the execution of this law, but has taken no steps to enforce it, although the notes are now depreciated as much as 30 per cent. Minister Barela now calls for prompt action, threatening direct Government intervention unless something is speedily done. As the customs duties are payable in the depreciated currency, while the Treasury must meet many of its obligations in gold, the reasonableness of the Secretary's position is obvious. There is no lack, however, of great apparent prosperity on the part of banks and the large corporations. Most of the annual reports show large profits. The Banco Nacional, for example, did a business of $2,500,000,000 in 1888, and distributed profits at the rate of 18 per cent.

THE SENATE AND THE PRESS.

THE explanation of Mr. Halstead's rejection given by his colleague, Mr. Richard Smith, in his own paper, is that it was due to his denunciations of the Senate for its refusal to investigate the mode in which Senator Payne obtained his seat in that body, and that the general violence of his language towards other persons and on other subjects had really little or nothing to do with it. We may concede this to be a just and reasonable explanation, without going quite so far as Mr. Smith would have us, and anticipate the abolition of the Senate as a result of its treatment of Mr. Halstead. It is certainly a view which has a great deal to support it in recorded facts, and one which, for the credit of journalism, we are very willing to accept.

But if well-founded, what a strong argument it furnishes against editorial office-seeking. The Senate, as well as every other legislative or administrative body in a free country, must always remain, and of right ought to remain, exposed to newspaper criticism, and sometimes to newspaper denunciation. To watch the Senate and comment on its proceedings in terms of censure, when the occasion calls for it, is one of the most important functions of the American press. Any editor who failed to do it would fail in one of his duties to the public. That he should do it sometimes in language of unnecessary violence, and that in doing it he should sometimes be unjust to particular individuals, is what we must expect, and for the most part forgive, as long as editors are human and have to do battle for their party.

On the other hand, too, as long as Senators are human, we must expect them to resent criticism of any kind with more or less warmth, and especially criticism which they feel to be unjust. Senators so calm and judicial-minded, and so sensible of the value of an unbridled press, as to welcome editorial denunciation of their own corruption, or ignorance, or selfishness, are hardly to be looked for in our time. In truth, if this kind of man presented himself for election to any Legislature in the country, the chances are that he would be rejected peremptorily as too good for ordinary political work.

Our United States Senators, in fact, like our State Senators and Representatives, and like our editors, are the natural products of American society in its present stage of progress. They are men of like passions with Mr. Halstead and Mr. Richard Smith. They hate their enemies, love their friends, and curse those who despitefully use them and persecute them, with Homeric freshness and simplicity. For this very reason, no editor who seeks to do his duty to the public by exposing their corruption or incapacity should ever put himself in a position to ask favors of them. When Mr. Halstead undertook to expose the frauds of the Payne election, and accused every Senator who opposed the investigation of being influenced by "boodle," he should have well understood that his action made it impossible for him to beg for office at the hands of the men on whom he had cast imputations so odious. If his words were not meant to be taken seriously, they ought not to have been uttered. If they were meant to be taken seriously, he ought to have expected that the persons at whom they were aimed would resent them by any legitimate means. To have confirmed Mr. Halstead as fit to represent the Government to a first-class Power would have been almost an endorsement of his charges—that is, an admission that he was a trustworthy and careful man, who weighed well his utterances and did not make accusations lightly.

The remoter effects of this affair on the relations of the press to the Senate, if party editors continue to be office-seekers, cannot fail to be serious. Editors who are looking forward to foreign missions or consulships when their party comes into power, and have their hearts set on getting them, will, after Mr. Halstead's sad experience, certainly be very careful how they handle the Senatorial body. They will avoid making even justifiable reflections on Senatorial integrity, and will be disposed to let Senatorial delinquencies generally go untouched, sooner than offend Senatorial sensibilities. In fact, a better warning to the ambitious members of the editorial fraternity than the rejection of Mr. Halstead could hardly have been devised. But we think, if the Senate was justified in its action in this case, it is bound to carry its regard for the decencies one step further.

If it be its duty to protect its own dignity against editorial assaults, it is also its duty to protect the dignity of other branches of the Government. If it would have been improper to send to represent this country abroad a man who has spoken of the American Senate as Mr. Halstead has done, it is also improper to send abroad men who have spoken of the President of the United States as Mr. Reid has done, and of the American Secretary of State as Mr. Thorndike Rice has done. The appearance as diplomatic representatives at foreign courts of two persons who have described the highest officers of their own Government in the terms employed by these two worthies, is something which we think has not been witnessed in the civilized world except after a revolution. Whatever Mr. Cleveland's faults have been, he was the President of the United States for four years, during which Mr. Whitelaw Reid was daily covering him with coarse abuse and ridicule. During this same period Mr. Bayard was the member of the Cabinet who represented the nation in its communications with foreign Powers, and while in this position he was made the object of an elaborate and blackguard personal attack by Mr. Thorndike Rice. Now, we do not go so far as to maintain that editors guilty of such conduct should get no office at home under the new Administration, although we think President Harrison would do much both for public and private morality if he made this a rule. But we do maintain that the Senate ought to see to it that the authors of such national disgrace are not sent to represent us abroad. It ought to see that respectable and patriotic Americans who go to Paris or St. Petersburg are not confronted while there with descriptions published by their own Ministers at these capitals, in which the two leading officers of their Government are described as mountebanks, louts, ignoramuses, and impostors. Any protection of dignity against ruffianly editors which the Senate can command, is just as much due to the Executive as to the Senate itself, and we may add that, inasmuch as the President is, in his relation to foreigners, always the same person, President Harrison would have shown more respect for his office if he had refrained from sending to represent this country abroad coarse revilers of his predecessor.

NEGRO CONVICTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

THE official statement of the pardons granted by the Governor of South Carolina during 1888 throws a good deal of light on the fate of negroes accused of crime in the South. It is sufficiently startling to be told that of the 894 convicts in the South Carolina penitentiary 843 are colored, and it savors a bit of slavery to find that of the 70 negroes who were subjects of executive clemency during the year, 25 were serving life sentences and 13 others terms of imprisonment of ten or more years; but when the reasons given for the pardons are heard, we find a state of things hardly credible in a civilized community.

The first case in the pamphlet is that of a negro convicted in January, 1876, of grand larceny, and sentenced to one year in the penitentiary; in November, 1887, he is pardoned because he has served his sentence, and is needed as a witness for the State in an important case. How long he would have remained in prison but for this case, we have no means of judging. On p. 16 is the case of two colored children, aged nine and ten years, who were sentenced to imprisonment for life for burglary and larceny of articles not exceeding ten dollars in value. They pleaded guilty and were sentenced without trial. On the same page is the case of Horace Darby, sentenced for life for a similar offence. After allowing him to serve five years in the penitentiary, his prosecutors ask for his release "on the ground that the amount stolen was trifling and the prisoner was very young, and too young to know the gravity of the offence." Thomas Coker, "a small boy" induced by older men to set fire to a building, was sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment; after serving nearly seven years of his term, he is regarded as sufficiently punished and is pardoned. Another boy of twelve, sentenced for life for arson, is pardoned after six years "on account of his extreme youth." In still another case, "a mere child, perhaps not over ten or twelve years of age," who asserted he was induced by two older boys to break into a house, was allowed to remain in prison a year before he was pardoned. The Supreme Court of the State has recognized the universal rule of law that children under fourteen are presumed to be incapable of committing crime, and that this presumption can only be rebutted by strong and clear proof of criminal intent in the child (State vs. Toney, 15 S. C., 409), but the in-

ference is strong that in actual practice the fact of color overrides all presumptions.

In July, 1883, Pleasant Austin, colored, "stole about ten or twelve pounds of flour," and was sentenced therefor to imprisonment for life; in February, 1888, his sentence is commuted to imprisonment for five years on the ground that he has been sufficiently punished. There seem to have been mitigating circumstances in the case of Joe Whitmire, who was sentenced for only five years for stealing "some bacon and flour which he needed for his wife and children who were in a starving condition." He had asked a store-keeper for a short credit, and, on being refused, came by night, and, finding the door of the store insecurely fastened by a chair pushed against it, took a small quantity of provisions, but nothing else, although there were a great many other articles in the store. After four years' imprisonment, having "in the judgment of the petitioners, some of the best citizens of Union County, suffered enough," he is allowed to return to his wife and children, assuming, of course, that they have not died of starvation in the meantime.

It is evident that efforts have been made to impress the negro with the majesty of the law. Prince Williams, while a slave, had a wife, although no slave marriage was recognized by the law, and this wife seems to have disappeared, sold perhaps in slavery. At any rate, Prince married again in 1878, and, after living with this wife for ten years, was prosecuted for bigamy, slave marriages having been validated by the Legislature. Immediately on his conviction the prosecuting attorney has the grace to recommend his pardon, stating "that the main object of the prosecution was to vindicate the law on account of the salutary effect upon the people of his race." Dick Ellerbe has reason to be grateful for executive clemency. He was sentenced for life after having been induced "to plead guilty, while in liquor, by a white man." His eight children are helpless and destitute, as both mother and grandmother have died during the imprisonment. The petitioners, "persons of prominence," firmly believe that Dick will make a good citizen if released, and he will be allowed to return to his family, or what may be left of it, next October.

Nor must the negro be allowed to think that the law can be trifled with. Certainly Eli Moore does not think so; he was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment for manslaughter. Eight of the jurors who tried the case ask for his pardon on the ground "that there is reason to believe that Moore did not do the shooting, and that it was done by a white man who left the State immediately after the shooting, and did not return until after the trial." It apparently did not seem worth while to trouble this white man by ascertaining the truth of the matter, which was adjusted by a commutation of Moore's sentence from ten years to five.

There are several cases in this report which go to show that the State is quite ready to dispense with the formality of the actual commission of a crime by a negro in order to secure his services as a convict. Andrew Glover, colored, was sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment for arson. He was convicted on circumstantial evidence of previous threats, and of footprints found near the burned premises which were "very similar to tracks made by the defendant." On the other hand, fifteen or twenty witnesses swore positively that, at the time the fire was discovered, Glover was at church some two miles away. After three years have gone by, "some of the best and most highly respected citizens of York County" request his pardon. In 1877 Capers Allen, also colored, was accused of murder. His employer at once came forward and testified that the prisoner, who was quite young, was four miles away when the murder was committed. Subsequently, the boy was rearrested without his employer's knowledge, tried, and sentenced to be hanged, the sentence being commuted by Gov. Hampton to imprisonment for life. The employer has made repeated efforts to secure his release, but not until eleven years have gone by is he finally successful. James Stowe was sentenced to be hanged for setting fire to a store in which no one slept. A petition, signed by all the prominent members of the Yorkville bar, states that Stowe was convicted on his own confession, and that "he did not himself set fire to the building, but was on the watch for other parties who did the firing." His sentence was promptly commuted to imprisonment for life at hard labor.

The difference between the treatment of white and black is strikingly brought out on one page of this report. A negro was pardoned after serving fourteen of a thirty years' sentence for manslaughter because the crime was committed under great provocation, and there was a very bitter feeling against the prisoner at the time. In the other case, a white man was sentenced for five years for a like offence. At the end of a year a petition for his pardon is presented from all the jurymen who tried the case, from the relatives of the murdered man, stating that it was the wish of the deceased that the murderer should not be prosecuted, and from the inevitable leading citizens. The prosecuting attorney joins in the petition, naïvely adding that he promised the prisoner's attorney at the trial to recommend a pardon at the end of one year. This seems to have been such a pleasant, friendly murder that the scruples of the prosecuting attorney in thus waiting a year are hard to understand.

The method by which the administration of the law is kept impartial to all, white and black alike, is ingenious. The statute punishing burglary, for instance, prescribes imprisonment for life as a penalty, but with an important proviso that if the jury recommend the prisoner to mercy, the punishment shall be reduced to imprisonment for not less than five years. This allows juries to recommend white offenders to mercy, while the negroes suffer the full penalty of the law.

It is to be noted that the cases we have cited are but a few selected from a large number, and that there are other cases in this official report fully up to the standard of justice established in those we have given.

THE STORY OF OKLAHOMA.

WHO are the Oklahoma boomers, and why are they so eager to get into Oklahoma? These are questions which many newspaper readers are asking, and the facts necessary for intelligent answers to these questions make an interesting story.

Oklahoma, in the language of the Chickasaw Indians, signifies "beautiful land." It was the name given by the Indians to a tract of country containing almost two million acres and situated nearly in the centre of the Indian Territory. Some of the land is poor, but the larger part of it is the richest and most productive known in the world. It is also believed to contain valuable mineral deposits. It was originally a part of the Louisiana purchase, and was included in the tract assigned by Congress in 1830 to be divided up among various Indian tribes, to be theirs for ever. Oklahoma under this act of Congress became the property of the Creek tribe, and remained in their undisputed possession till 1856. In that year they made a treaty with the Seminoles by which the two tribes held the country jointly till 1866, when the two consented to a sale of it to the United States for about fifteen cents an acre. A few months after this sale was completed, a bill was rushed through Congress granting to the Atlantic and Pacific Railway a right of way through the territory thus purchased, together with a grant of alternate sections of land for forty miles on each side of the railway. It was then generally believed that the purchase of Oklahoma had been advocated and accomplished with a view to giving the railway company this valuable grant. The company made a survey for the proposed line, but never built it. It was decided by the courts that the land was not yet open to settlement, and would not be so thrown open except by proclamation from the President of the United States. It was expressly provided in the railway charter that it should be forfeited if the officials of the company in any way aided or abetted any movement for the opening of the Indian Territory for settlement. If they built the road without settlers, it would be a losing venture; if they attempted to get settlers along its line, they would lose their charter. What should be done under these conditions?

Here we get a glimpse of what is generally believed to be the first cause of the boomers. They were men hired secretly by the railway company to break into Oklahoma, in defiance of the United States Government, and found settlements. This is denied by the railway authorities, and can, of course, never be proved. There were undoubtedly other causes, the chief of which was the richness of the coveted lands, and the desire of men of roving and adventurous spirit to get possession of them. The first band of boomers started under the leadership of an Indiana adventurer named Payne, who, having served through the war and got into politics, first heard of the Oklahoma country while serving as assistant doorkeeper in the House of Representatives at Washington. He went to

Kansas in the fall of 1878, and began to harangue the people on the subject of invasion and possession. In company with other men of similar characteristics, he organized a land company with an alleged capital of $2,000,000, called the "Oklahoma Town Company," and sold shares at five dollars each. They also organized the "Southwest Colony Company," with a capital of $1,000,000, and sold shares in that at two dollars each. After vigorous agitating they succeeded in getting together, in the spring of 1880, about twenty-five men who were willing to begin the invasion.

After dodging the United States troops for several days, they at last reached a suitable point in Oklahoma, and chose a site for their town. They called it "Ewing," after Gen. Thomas Ewing of Ohio, gave it an area of six square miles, built a log-house, and began to cut down trees and lay out town lots. They got on famously for about three weeks, when a squad of United States troops, consisting of twelve men and accompanied by twelve Indian scouts, appeared and took away the entire population to prison. After two weeks' imprisonment, Payne and his companions were discharged. They found themselves heroes, for the West looked upon them as sufferers from the despotic power of the Government. Payne soon discovered that he could now obtain all the followers he desired, and in the fall of 1880 he had a new expedition of 200 men in camp on the Kansas border, eager for a fresh invasion. The troops were watching them, however, and there were thus organized two hostile camps near the border, which were the beginnings of the remarkable boomer settlements which exist there to-day.

From the autumn of 1880 till that of 1884 there were invasions at pretty regular intervals. Squads of boomers would slip by the troops, invade Oklahoma, locate lands, be discovered by the troops and ejected, only to start again. The largest expedition ever organized by Payne was in May, 1884, when he got into Oklahoma with a colony of 600 men, women, and children, and founded the town of Rock Falls. He opened a "drug store," with a license to sell liquor, had a provision store, a schoolhouse, a printing-office, and a newspaper, and established regular religious services, there being a parson among the colonists. This colony was so large that it required time to get together a sufficient expelling force, and it was not till August following that Payne was again arrested and his town broken up. He was kept in prison only a short time, and was busily at work organizing a fresh expedition when death overtook him. Other leaders followed him, however, and the business of invading Oklahoma has gone on, with constantly increasing force, until the present time, where there is upon the border line a series of towns, containing at least 10,000 "boomers," all waiting for the time to come when they can rush in and take possession of the coveted land.

They can take possession legally on the 22d of the present month, when, under the recent proclamation of the President, the new Territory of Oklahoma will be thrown open for settlement. This is in accordance with an act of Congress creating the new Territory out of certain lands which the Government has acquired by purchase from the Indians. The Territory thus formed contains much more than the original tract of Oklahoma, which embraced less than 2,000,000 acres. It extends from the Canadian River to the Kansas border, and northwesterly as far as No Man's Land; and its total area is estimated at some 23,000,000 acres.

There is probably nowhere else in the world such a curious collection of settlements as are now stretched along the border lines of the new Territory waiting for the 22d of April to arrive. They have regular names, like Beaver City and Purcell, with hotels and stores. Some of them have a population of 1,500, and at one store the gross receipts in a single day are said to have reached $500. Yet there is scarcely a permanent building in any of them. One town is famous for having a plastered house in which the railway agent lives. For the most part the boomers are living in dug-outs, or sod houses, with some rough wooden shanties and many tents. Yet business is carried on regularly, and there is a scale of rentals ranging from $5 to $25 a year. Clothing is the most difficult thing to obtain, and the 10,000 boomers who are thus waiting on the threshold of the promised land are clad more like Indians than civilized people. In addition to these 10,000, there are said to be many thousands more in the regular towns and settlements near the border, and it is estimated that the new Territory may have a population of 100,000 a few months after it is thrown open for settlement. The rush is ominous for the remainder of the Indian Territory, for the same greedy eyes are upon that as have been fastened so eagerly upon the portion about to be gained.

EDMOND SCHERER.

THROUGH the death of M. Edmond Scherer, France loses one of her wisest writers on public affairs, and on the whole—now that Sainte-Beuve is gone—her solidest critic. Although seventy-four years old, M. Scherer was still physically robust, and one might still even say intellectually young, for he had in a marked degree that capacity which sober, inquisitive, and judicial minds sometimes possess, of rejuvenating themselves by an unflagging interest in facts and an untiring impulse to see things in the truest light. Subjective natures, as Goethe says, soon speak out their little inner store, and run to decay in mannerism. M. Scherer long ago outgrew that possibility, and for years past has stood for the best type of the Liberal, as distinguished from the Radical, in politics, and of the man of reason as distinguished from the man of temperament in literature. Persons as scholarly as he, and as free from all sentimental illusions, are apt to lack energy in practical affairs, because they see so many sides to every question. But Scherer had none of the scepticism of the dilettant, when it came to concrete problems. Since France became a republic, few of her citizens have had more resolute opinions about public matters, or exerted a more salutary influence by voice and pen, whether as deputy, as member of the "Commission pour la libération du Territoire," as Senator, or as journalist, in the columns of the *Temps*.

His fibre was much more moralistic than that of most members of the literary class in France. His Protestant blood and training had probably much to do with this, while his education in England and Germany gave him a judgment whose genuine cosmopolitanism was in strong contrast to that curious "note of provinciality" which always strikes *nous autres* in the writings of the Parisian brotherhood to which he belonged. His early interests were theological. He was, in fact, for five years Professor of Exegesis in Geneva, and his contributions to the *Revue de Théologie* and to the *Bibliothèque Universelle* have been republished in his two volumes of 'Mélanges de Critique et d'Histoire.' But he formally broke with orthodoxy in 1850; and though we find him occasionally going back to the old fields, as in his excellent essay on Hegel, or his wonderful chapter on Mohammed, or here and there dropping into pure speculation for a page or so, secular history and literature became more and more exclusively the subjects of his pen.

Matthew Arnold, in his essays "A French Critic on Milton" and "A French Critic on Goethe," has made extracts from Scherer which give a very good notion of his merits. On the whole, no one has written more adequately of Milton than this Frenchman, no one more justly of Byron, no one more truly of Goethe—provided always that it be admissible to write analytically, critically, and judicially of artists and poets at all. For, *mutatis mutandis*, that is always true which Mr. Lewes wrote in a passage quoted by Arnold, after giving Scherer's remarks on Goethe's "Egmont": "When all is said, the reader thinks of *Egmont* and *Clärchen* and flings criticism to the winds. These are the figures which remain in the memory—bright, genial, glorious creations, comparable to any to be found in the long galleries of art!" Nobody has more charmingly spoken of the inadequacy of the merely critical point of view than M. Scherer himself at the end of one of his articles on Renan. But grant that point of view, and he is always masterly. He has in a superlative degree the faculty for which Arnold praises us Yankees, of "thinking straight." He makes immediately for the vitals of his subject, and the essential and the unimportant range themselves with singular clearness under his pen. Philosophic training has doubtless much to do with this. Add the unfailing French literary form, wit, freedom, variety, copiousness, and exactness, and there is no living master of English, except Mr. John Morley, who in critical writing can be compared with him at all. Among the French one can only think of Renan and of Taine. Taine is of course more powerful, but far less flexible and sane. Renan has flexibility enough, in all conscience, but no solidity. How neatly, by the way, M. Scherer says the most cutting possible thing of him, in a sentence written long ago:

"Sa grande préoccupation, c'est l'idéal, c'est le devoir, c'est le bien des âmes. Mais M. Renan, en prenant cure d'âmes, ne risque-t-il pas de tomber dans un nouvel extrême? *Ne nous offre-t-il pas ce que personne ne lui demande?*"

It was not so easy in 1860 as it is now, when M. Renan's principles are in a state of liquefaction, to see him to be no genuine moralist, but only an artist working with a moralist's palette: an incomparable artist, it is true, and one whose gift of *magic* the soberer Scherer never shared!

How *can* a critic, a serious critic, have any

magic? Criticism and magic are "incompossibles." The greater and more important the subject, the more, as M. Scherer somewhere says, does he feel "la nécessité des distinctions et des réserves," and the colder and more pedagogic is he liable to appear to readers who perhaps are "genial." In looking over M. Scherer's many volumes of 'Études sur la Littérature' once more, we must confess to having ourselves but just now got a slightly desolate and bleak impression from the impartial telling of truths which there prevails. His pages are a sort of foretaste of the day of judgment—an occasion from which no urbanity in the form of the proceedings, we may be sure, will ever dispel all constraint and gloom. His whole philosophy was austere—the Genevese overtopped the Parisian. He ended in absolute agnosticism. "Pessimism," he says, "has no more place in true thinking than optimism has. Both are equally subjective, equally impertinent manners of looking at the world." And again, apropos of a sentence of Sainte-Beuve about human life:

"'Fugitive illusion traced for an instant on the ocean of universal illusion!' Is it then in those terms that the experience of the centuries sums itself up? Must humanity repeat for ever the *vanitas vanitatum* of the ancient sage? . . . And why not? If there be any greatness in the reed which feels its weakness, is there none in a vanity which knows itself for what it is? Has any man tasted without secret joy the bitterness which comes from going to the bottom of things? And after all, when once illusion knows itself, is it illusion still? Does it not in a manner triumph over itself? Does it not attain to the sovereign reality, that of the thought which thinks itself, that of the dream which knows itself as dream, of the nothingness which ceases to be such by being conscious, and affirming what it is?"

Rather rarefied cheer, to be sure; and an unfair specimen to quote where we are quoting so little, for Scherer was invariably sincere, and this (by a rare exception) is purely rhetorical stuff. But the *form* of it, at least, is consolatory, and, empty as it is, it pretends to be a *rally*.

Although there are fortunately pure philosophers still in France who have kept their faith in the nature of things, an absolute atheism appears to be the doom of all purely literary Frenchmen in these latter days, and the outcome of their hopeless view of life is expressed now in levity, now in cynicism, now in despair. Scherer, to his credit be it said, never dropped out of the moral attitude. He never wrote a really enervating word, and that in Paris is a great distinction *par le temps qui court*. But our pen has (half fortuitously) run into so sombre a track that in justice to M. Scherer we must leave off with a different note. Many passages we might quote, witty, delicate, profound, but our space is at an end. To show how genial and charming M. Scherer could be also, let this description of what he calls the "gastronomic idylls" of Erckmann-Chatrian suffice. 'Twould spoil it to translate:

"Nous sommes introduits ici dans un monde d'appétits et de jouissances dont nous n'avons aucune idée de ce côté des Vosges. Quelle cnère, grands dieux! Quelle vie plantureuse! Quelle cuisine et quels estomacs! On ne voit que teints fleuris, mentons rebondis, serviettes autour du cou. Il semble que la table soit toujours mise, la cave toujours ouverte. Les buffets gémissent sous les mets succulents. Les cuillers plongent dans des soupes épaisses. Ce sont de toutes parts des poissons énormes, des rôtis gigantesques, des entassements de saucisses et de choucroûte. Puis vient toute l'armée des pâtes et des pâtisseries alsaciennes. . . . On arrose tout cela des meilleurs vins du Rhin et du Palatinat. Après le vin, les choppes innombrables; avec la choppe la pipe au long tuyau et à la vaste cheminée. Ainsi passent les heures. On lâche peu à peu les boutons de son gilet. On rit d'un gros rire franc. Une certaine onction religieuse se mêle à cette goinfrerie: chacun, tout en se caressant la panse, rend grâce au Seigneur de ses nombreux bienfaits. Tels sont les repas qu'aiment nos écrivains; telle est la solide trame de vie animale sur laquelle ils brodent leurs scènes de mœurs bourgeoises et leurs sentimentales amourettes. C'est frais comme une cave, c'est coloré comme un état de boucher, c'est confortable et pacifiant comme le réfectoire d'une abbaye féodale."

ARIZONA AS A STATE.

PRESCOTT, March 15.

THE acts of Congress which have just admitted four of the Territories into the Union, at one time included Arizona as a possible State. It does not seem likely that the latter will come in at present. Even if Congress had passed an enabling act this session, and left the question to be decided by the Territory, popular sentiment is certainly against the proposal. A Territory with an area of 113,000 square miles and a population of 70,000 cannot be called anything but very thinly settled. Arizona has only ten counties all told. The division and establishment of counties everywhere in this country follows pretty closely the growth of population and the legal needs of a people; and a Territory with three counties nearly as large as Maine, and the rest about the size of Connecticut, must be considered of a rather low political organization.

These facts reflect themselves in the popular opinion that a State government would now cost more than its worth. The political enthusiasms of Arizona, like those of other Southern States, are apt to be rather abstract and extreme, but they do not yet go the length of disregarding so hard an argument as this of dollars and cents. So the proposal of Statehood falls rather flat, except with a few elderly politicians, who feel that they are fitted to adorn the Senate Chamber of Congress without further delay.

But even if Arizona does not enter the Union with the Dakotas, the event is only put off for a little while. If the present policy of Congress continues, party politics, either on one side or the other, will soon force the responsibilities of Statehood on all the Territories. It may not be uninteresting, in view of this, to ask what kind of a State this one of the furthest Southwest will be, what peculiar manner of men and political morals it will add to the nation.

In a most suggestive article on "The American Commonwealth," in an early number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, Prof. John W. Burgess deprecates this creation of any more States out of the territory west of the Rocky Mountains, at least for a long while. Following Webster, he regards this territory as the Asia of our country. He sees here the chief dangers which, if not checked by stronger forces, make for the dissolution of the Union. It is separated from the Central and Eastern States by the natural boundary of the Rockies. But the peculiar topography and climate of these high desert plains and mountains separate them still more definitely from the level, fertile valley of the Mississippi and its tributaries. The only occupations possible on any extended scale are mining and grazing, both of which tend to produce a system of manners and morals, personal and political, entirely unlike those of agricultural communities. Here, too, are found those alien elements of race and religion, the Chinese and the Mormons, with whom the nation is already struggling.

Among these possible causes of political alienation pointed out by Prof. Burgess, Arizona is yet happily free from the last one. Her neighbors on all sides have each their peculiar problem of a population hostile or indifferent to American institutions. California has the Chinese, Utah the Mormons, and New Mexico a large Mexican population, but Arizona is not yet troubled by any of the three. The Chinese have not made their way here in any great numbers, and are lost in the much larger white population. They fall naturally into such employments as they seem specially fitted for—cooking, washing, kitchen-gardening, driving pack-trains, or placer-mining on a small scale. As there are scarcely enough of them to fill these positions, their presence excites no hostility on the part of the laborers, who look upon them with much contemptuous good nature. On the other hand, the Chinese themselves are certainly more enterprising than those of California. Most of them have adopted American dress, and all are quick to pick up American business ways. In all cases they insist on as high wages as the white laborer. I know two among the few who have worked for me who have taught themselves to write English. It is true that it is very amusing and very poor English, but as they have picked it up by themselves, in the midst of unremitting manual labor, it seems to me to show an unsuspected adaptability on their part. Altogether, the Chinese are as little a political problem for us as the negro is in New York or Massachusetts. As to the Mormons, although they have a few settlements in the southern valleys, the great natural boundary between Utah and Arizona of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado acts as an effectual bar to any large immigration. This is aided by a pretty determined public opinion, which a few years ago promptly convicted and imprisoned several polygamists. The Mexican population also is not large, and is confined to the south. Although the Spaniards very early crept up the valley of the Rio Grande and occupied Santa Fé, they made no headway against the Apache, who was the master of Arizona, but have waited for the Americans to clear the way.

But without these foreign populations to differentiate her from the East, the climate, formation, and scenery of Arizona make her really a foreign country. It may be true in a geographical as well as a political sense, that the whole Western plateau is the Asia of this country, but it is more true to say of Arizona that it is a part of the highlands of Mexico. There is the same dry, thin, clear air, balmy in winter and parching in summer, there is the same striking paucity of animal life and abundance of venomous reptiles. The flora, with its many forms of cactus and strange fantastic growths of the desert, is peculiarly Mexican and unlike that of the East or Northwest. To gain any clear idea of the geographical formation, one has to put aside Eastern experience. There the plains begin at the seashore, and slope gradually upward to the rolling country, into which they merge imperceptibly; the rolling country runs back a hundred miles or so, and gives place almost as imperceptibly to the mountains. Here there is no rolling land. The whole country is a great plain, out of which the mountains rise abruptly in chains or groups. You can stand on the summit of one of these ridges and look off for two hundred miles across a great sea of plain, out of which the mountains, singly or in masses, rise like islands. Yet the comparison is not perfect, for this vast plain is not all at the same level, like the surface of the ocean. Often on crossing a mountain chain one finds that the plain on the other

side is five hundred, perhaps a thousand feet higher than the one just left. These higher tablelands are the *mesas*. Here snow falls in winter, and some rain in summer, and they are covered with the tall, scattered wild grasses which the cattle feed upon. Higher up and further north, they may be covered with pine forests. On the lower plains there is neither tree nor grass. There is the cactus, clumps of dry, harsh, swordlike plants and thorny, stunted bushes about waist high, but besides these nothing but sun-baked sand.

Nevertheless, these lower plains or deserts have a great advantage over the higher mesas. The rivers that wind their way through them run upon the surface of the ground, like the Mississippi or the Hudson, and when they carry water all the year, it can be drawn off for irrigation and the desert turned into a wonder of blooming fruitfulness. On the higher plains scarcely a stream runs upon the surface of the earth. Every little creek, which a man can step across even at its flood, is in its "arroyo" or wash, fifty or a hundred feet below the surface; while the greater rivers, like the Colorado, flow silently and uselessly away in their cañons, a thousand or five thousand feet deep.

The occupations of the people can be easily inferred from these geographical features. On the low, irrigated plains are the farmers; on the higher mesas and in the mountain valleys, the cattlemen; and all through the mountains, the miners. A strange farming is this, with irrigation. No watching the skies in torturing fear of drought or flood; at the proper time a head-gate is opened in the canal, and so many inches of water allowed to flow over the ground for so many hours or days. Strange crops, too—olives; grapes, to be made into wine or raisins; alfalfa, a thick, rank clover with two, three, or even five crops a year. It is all foreign, Mexican or Italian. But the farmers themselves are not very foreign; they are the same men that settled the Central States, that pushed on into Texas, that are now filling up the Northwest. They are pioneers from Eastern farms, or immigrants from Europe, who perhaps have stopped awhile in Minnesota or Kansas and failed. They work the farms with their own hands, struggle helplessly with the great railroads over rates, and in too many instances wear away an unhappy life under the money-lender's 2 per cent. a month.

Far away from these fruitful plains are the cattlemen. Wherever, in the valleys of the mountains or at their foot where the mesas begin, there is a stream of living water, a cowboy's ranch will be found. The word "ranch" suggests, perhaps, a group of neat, white adobe buildings, protected by a high adobe wall, hidden in fruit and shade trees, and surrounded with waving fields of wheat or barley. In Arizona it seldom means more than a muddy drinking hole for cattle, often in the summer time not more than ten feet across, with half-a-dozen cottonwoods about it, a rude log-cabin or house of unplaned boards, without a fence or crop of any kind. The farm is the wild grass of the mesa or the oakbrush on the mountain sides, fed upon by all the cattle of the adjacent ranches mingled together, and the ranch is merely the watering-place where the animals come in to drink once a day.

When one speaks of the mines in Arizona, he does not generally mean the great dividend-paying lodes, with their shafts a thousand feet deep and their hundreds of miners, organized like an army, delving away in the bowels of the earth. Of course, Arizona has its great mines, where the hundred-stamp mills pound deafeningly away at the ore day and night, Sunday and week-day, month in and month out. But, by the miners, it is more likely that he means the men who are scattered all through the mountains prospecting for mines or working small veins of ore alone or with one or two partners. By miners he means Jim Thompson, who has five men at work on his new find over in Bradshaw basin, or old Jack Smith, who, with one partner, has been working the "Blue Lead" since 1872. Of course, they all hope to "strike it rich" in a few days or weeks and produce a Comstock; but meanwhile they are working away in little camps of two or five or ten, "making grub" or "fair wages," or perhaps a little more.

This, then, is Arizona as we see it. At present there is no foreign element large enough to form a special problem. There are not many large cattle companies nor a great many large mines. A population of Americans is scattered widely and thinly throughout the Territory on farms, ranches, and small mines. Everything seems favorable to the growth of a strong American, almost a New England, civilization, except the physical features of the country. These are all foreign: a parched soil or mountains rugged beyond description, a thin electric air, a cloudless, rainless sky, summer six months of the year. Will the country conquer the men and produce a race alien to its brothers of the East, or will the men conquer the country and plant a commonwealth truly American? So far, Congress has chosen and shaped its institutions, but when once this fostering hand is withdrawn and the Territory becomes a State, its future development rests with itself alone. Will the State of Arizona in the end be American, or Mexican, or what? If the experiment is successful, there will be men who will ask why we should stop here, when our manifest destiny is so clearly pointing out the road to Mexico. If the experiment fails, the limits of the United States on the south are probably drawn once for all. It will be proved that the political institutions of this American Government are peculiarly adapted to temperate and northern countries rather than to southern; to agricultural and manufacturing, rather than grazing and mining communities.

I do not attempt to predict the final result. The country is too new, the people too lately come from older and settled States, to make any predictions worth much. One notices many of the virtues and vices of a scattered frontier people—hospitality, generosity, improvidence, recklessness of life and limb, careless independence and good nature. The gambling houses and saloons are plenty and prosperous, the churches very scattered and poor. But these are peculiarities which will wear away with time. On the other hand, Arizona has one of the best and most expensive common-school systems in the country. I believe that it is true that she spends more money on schools *per capita*, and pays higher salaries to teachers, than any other State or Territory. It is a strange sight, after riding all day across a trackless desert or through almost impassable mountains, to come suddenly upon a little schoolhouse, with children playing about the door and the ponies that are to take them home picketed out upon the mesa. There will probably not be a dozen scholars in all; the law says that no new school shall be established without at least ten "census children" in the district, or continued without an average attendance of five. The land around the school-house is as barren as the mountains over which you have just ridden, for there are no farms or crops to show any evidence of civilization, and the scattered ranch-houses are very likely hidden away in distant coves or gulches. The school-house itself will probably be the only evidence of the presence of mankind in the wilderness. Altogether this is a sight not common in all frontier countries. It is not Mexican, but truly American, nor is it likely to wear away with time.

As to the direct effect of the climate, there has not been time enough to test it. Few men have been here as long as twenty years, and the most thriving towns of the south are scarcely ten years old. Even a cloudless sky, a summer six or eight months long, a temperature of 110° day after day, cannot do their full work in a single year. And yet one cannot help but notice, among all but the latest comers, an indolence, a peculiar indifference, a certain relaxation of the physical and moral fibre. No one works very long or very hard unless under special stimulus. The ranchman's labor is compressed into one or two months of the year, and his life the other ten is one of easy indolence. The miners need the promise of a great fortune to keep them at work at all. Even the "booms" of the great irrigated valleys of the south have something unreal about them. The booms of Californian cities and those of the Northwest have a real energy behind them, however unsubstantial the results may be. The business men organize, advertise, send out lecturers and boomers, charter excursion parties, build huge hotels—all is energy, rush, and confusion. *We* rather talk about what a rush there would be if we should do these things, and encourage one another to go ahead and boom.

Of the relaxation of personal morals it is somewhat more difficult to speak; yet no one can deny that the bonds of business and personal morality bind but lightly in many cases. We do not respect a man the more because he has lent himself to a barefaced swindle in regard to a mine, and thereby made himself rich, but we look on him with a sort of amused indulgence. So in politics, we realize that the little biennial Legislature, with its upper house of only twelve members, is very corrupt; we even know how much this or that member got for a particular bill; but we do not so much as discuss how the evil might be remedied. In private life we have very few wife-beaters, or men who are anything but very liberal towards their families. So long as husband and wife live together, it is likely that they live in comfort and mutual affection. But should the husband go away to another town, or should the wife have been left back East a few years ago, when the man first came out, it is very possible that he will forget ever to go back. In this lotus-land it is so easy to forget.

But none of these criticisms go very deep. I have wished rather to emphasize Arizona's political problem as a whole. We are apt to forget that each of the great Western Territories has an individuality of its own. We know that New York is not Massachusetts or South Carolina, but we lump together one-third of the whole country as the "Territories," or the "Great Western Plateau." But Arizona will soon be called upon to try a political experiment that has not been tried before. Texas and California are both agricultural States; Nevada, Utah, Montana, and the rest are Northern States. New Mexico's politics are further complicated by the presence of a large foreign population. In Arizona we have the simplest factors—a Mexican country and climate, industries chiefly mining and grazing, an American population. What result will Arizona the State work out of these elements?

W. G. B.

MARSHAL VILLARS.

PARIS, March 21, 1889.

THE Marquis de Vogüé is a member of the section of the Institute which is called the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques. He was, during the Presidency of Marshal MacMahon, the Ambassador of France at Vienna. He is publishing now, for the Society of the History of France, the authentic text of the life of Marshal Villars, written by the Marshal himself. But while thus engaged, he has written two volumes under the title of 'Villars, from his Correspondence and some Inedited Documents.' The correspondence with the Elector of Bavaria, with Mme. de Maintenon, and with Prince Eugene of Savoy has been largely used in this work, and the correspondence with the Elector has even been given *in extenso*. M. de Vogüé has had access also to the Archives of Count Törring, where he found the correspondence of the Elector Max Emanuel with Count Monasterol, his envoy at the Court of France — a correspondence which furnishes many valuable details on the memorable campaigns of Villars in 1702 and 1703. He has used, further, some of the Ormond papers. James Butler, Duke of Ormond, who commanded the English army in Flanders after the recall of Marlborough, left many papers which finally passed into the hands of M. Severne, and were sold at public auction in London, November 5, 1886. As for the Villars papers proper—that is to say, those which came from the Castle of Villars—they are in the possession of M. de Vogüé, with the exception of a few which are in the Archives of the Castle of Vaux, now owned by M. Sommier.

Saint-Simon was very hard on Villars, and it is impossible to deny that the opinions of Saint-Simon are gradually becoming, more or less, the judgments of history. He gives us many interesting details on the family of Villars, and the relations of his father (who was the grandson of a *greffier* of Condrieu), with Mme. Scarron, who became Mme. de Maintenon. The famous Villars was sent to Vienna as Ambassador, and married on his return Mlle. de Varangeville, who had a large fortune. He was ordered to join Catinat with a large detachment of the army of Flanders and crossed the Rhine—a bold operation which Catinat had refused to attempt; he made the crossing at Neubourg, near Huningue, received the attack of Prince Louis of Baden, thought himself lost for a moment, but gained the victory and was appointed Marshal of France on account of it. The King sent him a package on which was written, "M. le Marquis de Villars." Inside was a letter, in the King's own hand, subscribed to "my cousin Marshal Villars." Villars, who knew the value of Mme. de Maintenon's friendship, had been careful to send the news of his victory of Friedlingen by the Comte d'Ayen, the nephew of Mme. de Maintenon, though D'Ayen had taken no part in the battle.

"Good fortune, an extraordinary good fortune," says Saint-Simon, "served him all his lifetime. He was a sufficiently tall man, brown, well made, fat in after life without being heavy, with an open physiognomy, apparently and really a little mad, with corresponding gestures. An unmeasured ambition which stopped at nothing; a high opinion of himself, which was shared by nobody but the King; a great servility and suppleness towards whoever could help him; himself incapable of loving or serving anybody, or of any feeling of gratitude. Brilliant valor, great activity, unequalled audacity, an effrontery which bore everything, with an excessive vanity which never left him. . . . Under the magnificence of a Gascon, he concealed an extreme avarice, the avidity of a harpy, which made him get mountains of gold stolen during the wars, and, without any shame, making pleasantries on the subject, ordering detachments himself for plunder, directing the movements of his armies for that object. Incapable of any detail on the questions of subsistence, forage, marching, which he left to his subordinates, always taking to himself the honor of the result."

I take only a part of this long portrait, the most important part; but Saint-Simon insists on Villars's love of cards, on his immorality; he tries in every way to show that he owed everything to his servility to Mme. de Maintenon, to the infatuation of the King, and to his luck. Generals cannot be always lucky; Villars may have had more luck than others, he also had a dash, a boldness, a clearness of view, which by some may be considered equivalent to genius. It is clear that M. de Vogüé takes this view of him; he writes less as a moralist than as an historian, and judges by the results more than by the inducements and motives. He shows well the place which Bavaria had at the time in the affairs of Europe, and, generally speaking, his book bears the mark of the diplomat. The Electorate of Bavaria stood between the rival houses of France and Austria; the house of Bavaria might have played in the affairs of Germany the part which the house of Savoy played in our century in Italy. The Bavarian Princes had not the spirit necessary for the accomplishment of great destinies. Max Emanuel, with whom Villars had constantly to deal, was brave, he had a passion for war, but he had none of the qualities of the general. Louis XIV. had great views for him, wishing to oppose him to Austria, to place the house of Wittelsbach as high as the house of Hapsburg; but Max Emanuel did not enter fully into these views. He had received an Italian and French education, and did not much like to live in Munich, which was then a city of brick and wood. He spent most of his time in hunting, in the numerous pavilions of his forests. He tried to ape Louis XIV., and began at Schleissheim a colossal Versailles which he could not finish.

After having crossed the Rhine at Huningue and gained the battle of Friedlingen, Villars had to effect his junction with Max Emanuel; but the Elector was already afraid of his ally, and began to negotiate secretly with Austria; he wilfully missed the occasion of joining Villars, who was much irritated, reëntered Alsace, and made his winter quarters at Strasbourg. In the spring he crossed the Rhine again, and besieged Kehl, which he took; he crossed the Black Forest, and this time he joined the Elector. He planned a march on Vienna, but the Elector found fault with his arrangements, and an expedition to Tyrol was decided on. Marshal Vendôme was to join Villars in that mountainous district, but, being slow, did not arrive in time; the Tyrolese rose against the French and the Bavarians, as they did in the beginning of our century against the troops of Napoleon. Villars was obliged to intrench himself at Dillingen, his communications were cut. The Prince of Baden combined a great attack and a concentration of forces against Villars and Max Emanuel; Villars and the Elector, instead of uniting their action, and notwithstanding the danger of their situation, disagreed, and quarrelled constantly. Villars asked finally to be recalled. At that very moment he gained the victory of Höchstädt, which was very glorious for him and gave confidence to his army. This victory did not reëstablish harmony between himself and the Elector. Louis XIV. had finally authorized Villars to bring back his army to France, and invited Max Emanuel to treat with the Emperor. He sent Tallard to help the movement of Villars across the Black Forest. The victory of Höchstädt changed these plans; Tallard was sent to Landau, and Villars was relieved of his command, which was given to Marshal Marsin.

A new mission was given to Villars, the pacification of Languedoc, where the Protestants were in insurrection. It must be acknowledged that in this difficult and painful task Villars showed much moderation. I have spoken recently of his rôle in Provence, where M. de Grignan was governor, and of the negotiation of Villars with the chief of the Camisards, Jean Cavalier. In a letter to Mme. de Maintenon, who was his great protector, Villars says: "The King did me the honor to say, when he honored me with his last orders, that if I gained him two battles on the frontier, I should not render him a greater service than if I ended a revolt on which his enemies based great hopes. It is ended, and this good fortune accrues to me after the taking of Kehl, the passage of the Black Mountains, and a battle well gained in the heart of the Empire. I do not speak of what preceded these small services. They alone can contribute to my elevation. I do not expect it from any intrigue at the court, but from your goodness and from the opinion which I flatter myself his Majesty has formed of me."

We must pass rapidly over the campaign of Villars in the valley of the Moselle in 1705, in Alsace and in Germany in 1706 and 1707, in Savoy in 1708. The campaign of 1709 was marked by the battle of Malplaquet (September 20), one of the bloodiest battles ever fought in Flanders. Villars wrote to the King: "The enemy can say that they gained the battle, as they remained on the battle-field, but your Majesty's army has truly gained it, by reason of the prodigious number of deaths caused among our enemies." The allies lost 22,000 men, the French lost only half that number. Prince Eugene and Marlborough had found in Villars a foeman worthy of them. Louis XIV. chose to adopt the version of Villars, and made him a peer of the realm. He understood that words have their power, that it was necessary to maintain the prestige of the army. Villars had been wounded; he came to Versailles as soon as he could be transported. His journey was a triumphal march. At Versailles the King gave him the apartment of the Prince of Conti, and made him a visit. The whole court was at his feet. Mme. de Maintenon showed him the greatest attentions.

In the following campaign in Flanders, Marlborough and Eugene gained some small advantages; Villars was obliged to go to the waters of Bourbonne for his wound. In 1711, negotiations were opened with England, pending which Louis XIV. forced Villars to remain on the defensive. At the end of the year, Marlborough left for England, where he was called in the defence of his political interests. France was in a very critical condition; Eugene was now the only commander of the allied forces, but he was a very able commander, and Louis XIV. saw his kingdom ruined, his dynasty struck by repeated blows. The scene of his adieu to Villars at the opening of the campaign of 1712 is not forgotten: "God punishes me," said the proud old King; "I have richly deserved it; but let us forget our domestic sorrows, and see what can be done to prevent the misfortunes of the State." He confided to Villars the supreme command, asked him what he should advise him to do, if his last army was beaten, and if the road of Paris were open to an invasion. The Marshal remained silent. "Well," said the King, "I will tell you what I think: I know the river Somme; there are some fortified places on it—Péronne, St.-Quentin; I would go to some of those places, bring together

my last troops, make a last effort with you; we would die together or save the State, for I would never allow the enemy to approach my capital."

Villars saved France at Denain, and Eugene was obliged to evacuate the French territory. The peace of Utrecht was signed soon afterwards. Villars met Eugene again about the diplomatic table at the Congress of Baden, and they signed together the general peace of 1714. M. de Vogüé speaks with fewer details of the latter part of Villars's life. Villars remained happy to the end; his luck was almost a quality, as it inspired him and those who were round him with confidence. Saint-Simon says that this insolent good fortune disgusted him with history. Villars died on June 17, 1734; Eugene survived him only two years.

Correspondence.

IOWA PROHIBITION—ELECTION LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The prohibitory law makes itself felt now in this part of the State chiefly in two ways. The Supreme Court has decided recently that the sale of cider is illegal if the cider contains a trace of alcohol, even though it be not intoxicating. The decision does not probably disturb the farmers, as Iowa raises but few apples. Our Mayor issued the following notice: "All parties selling beverages of any kind are hereby cautioned that they must obey the law, which prohibits the sale of all beverages containing alcohol. This includes cider as it is now sold. I will prosecute all parties continuing its sale after February 20, 1889." A similar warning was given by the County Attorney, who is reported two weeks later as saying: "I gave that notice that those who were selling the article and who did not wish to violate the law might dispose of their stock. Some have become very huffy over it and continue to sell. My next notice to them will be an official one."

There is at present no legal sale of intoxicating liquors for any purpose in this city or county, and has been none since October 1, 1888. Previously there were in our city two or three permits to sell for medical and mechanical use. But the revised law in the interest of prohibition cancelled them all, and now allows them to be issued only under more stringent and burdensome conditions. "There are no pharmacists in this county holding permits to sell intoxicating liquors," says our county auditor under date of March 13. "We have no permit-holders in the county." The county contains more than 500 square miles and 20,000 inhabitants. Alcohol and intoxicating liquor can be imported from another State by any individual for his own use, now that our law forbidding importation has been declared void by the United States Supreme Court. It would be presuming to say that all which is now used in the county is that imported, but certainly there are no legal sales.

A more generally acceptable experiment for the last three years has been a law relating to elections. A registration of voters is made in all cities which have a population of 2,500 or more. For each voting precinct registrars are appointed, one from each of the two leading parties at the preceding election. The voter appears before them, answers questions as to such matters as birthplace and present and last previous residence, which are recorded, and he then signs his name. The registry is completed several days before election, and no one is allowed to vote whose name is not down. The registrars meet, however, on election day to add the name of any one who has become qualified by age or length of residence since the day of registration, or who was then out of town, or whose name has been improperly struck from the list. The registration lasts for four years, the list being revised before each annual election. On election day no one is allowed to loiter within a hundred feet of the polls, or solicit a voter or offer a ticket or display his own. Tickets are sometimes left on a stand near by. The only persons who remain at the polls are the officers and the representatives (not exceeding three) of each party. The law has worked well; the operation of voting is now as quiet and orderly as business at a bank. F. P. B.

Grinnell, Iowa, March 27, 1889.

JURISDICTION WITHIN THREE MILES OF THE COAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 258 of the last number of the *Nation* you say: "Although we cannot give law to the subjects of other nations on water *more than a maritime league* from our shore"—and this in reference to the Alaska seal fishery. As your statements are entitled to respect, I venture to call your attention to a decision which, I think, puts an end to that pretension, viz., The Queen vs. Keyn, 2 Exchequer Division, 63 to 239. The question was, Had an English court jurisdiction of the crime of manslaughter committed by the master of a German ship in the British Channel within a league of the English shore? The decision was that it had not. The person killed was an English subject, and the killing was by negligent running over a sailboat and drowning a person on board; and the act was found to be manslaughter by the jury. So that the only question was, Had the court jurisdiction to try the man? Cockburn, C. J., on page 197, says: "*Ex concessis* the jurisdiction over foreigners on foreign ships never really existed; at all events, it has long been dead and buried—even the ghost of it has been laid." On page 196, speaking of the doctrine of sovereignty in the narrow seas: "Who at this day would venture to affirm that the sovereignty thus asserted in those times existed now? . . . What foreign government would not repel such a pretension?" It is interesting to notice that Judge Hopkinson is cited as deciding the same point, Baldwin 15, which was in 1829. Possibly this may be rested on the form of the legislation.

R. C. M.

Philadelphia, March 28, 1889.

A POSTAL ADMONITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I often receive from the United States closed envelopes, mostly containing printed circulars, stamped two cents, instead of five; and on every such envelope one has to pay a fine of threepence, or six cents. By allowing this fact to be made known, you will, I have no doubt, confer a favor on many persons in this country besides

Your obedient servant, X. Y. Z.

London, England, March 19, 1889.

Notes.

In our recent review of Mr. McCulloch's 'Men and Measures,' an article is cited on Grant and Rawlins by Gen. W. F. Smith. Gen. Smith and Gen. James H. Wilson had articles in successive numbers of the *Century*, and, by a slip of the pen, the article referred to was ascribed to Gen. Smith, though the author is Gen. Wilson. It will be found in the *Century* of October, 1885. The reader interested in Gen. Rawlins will do well to consult the appreciative article, likewise by Gen. Wilson, in Appletons' Encyclopædia; and it may be noted that the same competent author is now engaged on a biography of the too little known and appreciated Chief of Staff. He is also trying to collect whatever biographical material concerning Gen. Rawlins exists, which may be sent to him at his residence, Wilmington, Del.

Mr. Andrew D. Mellick, jr., Plainfield, N. J., is preparing a work to be sold to subscribers, called 'The Story of an Old Farm; or, Life in New Jersey in the Eighteenth Century'—a semi-social, semi-historical presentation. "Much will be told of early German emigration to the American colonies," the Hessian troops will be vindicated against aspersion, and justice done to the New Jersey Loyalists. The author has every qualification for making a work of this character agreeable and instructive reading.

'Two Chiefs of Dunboy' is the title of Froude's new historical novel to be published this month by Chas. Scribner's Sons. Scribner & Welford will publish immediately a second edition of S. Laing's 'Heimskringla,' revised, with notes, by Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Prolegomena to *In Memoriam*,' by Thomas Davidson, with a full index.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce for immediate publication a new and cheap edition, in paper covers, of Tolstoi's 'My Religion.'

A new edition of Dr. Louis Starr's 'Hygiene of the Nursery' will be published directly by P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia.

The first volume of Mr. Ernest Law's 'History of Hampton Court Palace' (London: Bell) was devoted to the Tudor Period; the second volume, recently published, covers the Stuart period, the last hundred years of the history of the palace being relegated to a third volume, which is yet to appear. It is a handsome small quarto, abundantly illustrated with views and portraits, most of them from old originals, and, as is natural, varying very much in style and merit. The work is executed with much industry, and contains much graphic detail of the life and events of the period, and deserves to be read in connection with the history of the period. We note especially the Hampton Court Conference of 1604 (p. 32), the confinement of Charles I. in 1647 (p. 130), and the residence of Cromwell (p. 174). Of Cromwell the incident is related (p. 187) that on the occasion of the marriage of his daughter Frances to Mr. Rich, "he amused himself with such vulgar horseplay as throwing about 'the sack posset amongst all the ladies to spoil their clothes, which they took as a favor, and daubed all the stools where they were to sit, with wet sweetmeats.'"

The unending production of introductions to Browning shows no sign of slackening, and if all were as excellent as the latest, 'An Introduction to the Poetry of Robert Browning,' by William John Alexander, Ph.D. (Boston: Ginn & Co.), it would be matter of congratulation. This analysis of the growth of Browning's genius has the great merit of brevity, definiteness, and completeness; the statement of the poet's opinions upon the soul, art, and the present frame of the modern mind towards spiritual matters, is clear and seems to us just; and the limitations which Browning's intellect

has placed upon his poetry are sharply, indelibly, and, we must add, courageously drawn. The author points out that it is Browning's intellect and not poetic instinct which has made him so fertile in his elder years, and that these later works have meaning for the mind rather than gratification for the poetic susceptibilities; and he shows, in the earlier part, the course of Browning's experiments with the drama, and his avoidance of its incompatibility with his psychological aims by means of the monologue, in which he has done his most perfect poetical work, in a way to leave nothing to be desired. The spirit of temperance and the exercise of judgment throughout may be recommended as exemplary to those who are still engaged in writing these "Introductions."

Browning would have saved a great deal of printer's ink and toilsome mental labor if he had followed the old practice of prefixing to every poem an "argument." The substance of most of these volumes upon him consists of well-meant attempts to supply this deficiency; and to read "arguments" without the verse is tediousness itself. This is one reason why James Fotheringham's 'Studies in the Poetry of Robert Browning' (Scribner & Welford, 1888), in four hundred generous pages, is unreadable. It contains nothing novel in the way of criticism; its grouping of the poems is not determined by a well-made-out principle, and it can only be useful in connection with a study of the poems by one's self. To those who enter on the subject for the first time it may be of value as a diffuse commentary, but it is to the catalogue of commentaries that it must be consigned, and with no high rank among them.

The Cavendish Library receives an interesting addition in a generous selection from the works of Leigh Hunt, both verse and prose, by Charles Kent (Frederick Warne & Co.). Leigh Hunt's place is between that of the essayists of his early years and the journalist of our own time. In literary taste and a certain felicity of phrase, as well as in his subject matter, he reminds us of the past age; but by his extraordinary rapidity and voluminousness of production, the day-to-day character of his writing, the momentary interest of most of it, he is one of ourselves. He was essentially a talker in print—one might say a gossip; there is a good of deal of books, something of not very discriminating travel, and much of the tea-table in his essays; they are all *petite*. The selection does not seem to us well made. The poetry given leaves Hunt far below his reputation, the prose is over-abundant. It is only justice to such a writer to give no more than his best. In verse that was little, in criticism it was considerable; and the happiness of his phrases, the poetic sympathy of his taste with the fanciful and sensuous part of the great poets, and his wide range of enjoyment—not in compass, but in extent—make it well worth saving. As for his essays of the cat-and-canary kind, they were not meant to freight the stream of time. It is no doubt a service to such a man to make selections from his works, and as in his case they have never been collected, it might seem a duty; but the delightfulness of Hunt was largely due to personal charm in the author and the thought of Keats and Shelley; and this is still so vital in the Autobiography and such a volume (to mention a minor work) as the 'Jar of Honey from Mount Hybla,' that the modern reader, with not too much time, had better turn to these to know the man.

Mr. Frank Carr's selections from the essays of Hazlitt in the Camelot series (London: Walter Scott; New York: Thomas Whittaker) make a model volume—just what such a revival of agreeable minor essayists should be. He gives us no more than twenty-four pieces, and chooses them so as to cover the different subjects on which the author customarily wrote—literature, the theatre, men, manners, and books. He has done well, too, to include those essays which are autobiographical, and record the conversation and habits of the wits with whom Hazlitt associated at Lamb's rooms, and which have the pleasantest flavor. The portrait of Coleridge is very effective, and those of Lamb, Godwin, Ayrton, and the rest, though done only by slight strokes, are full of vivacity. One may pass a very pleasant evening in reading the collection, and have at the end a strong impression of the excellence of Hazlitt's style, the sense of having caught the interesting conversation of a group of interesting men, and a kinder feeling for Hazlitt himself than the tradition of him evokes. Mr. Carr is to be congratulated on having presented his author so much to his advantage.

That repository of what is old and good made over into new appearance, "Bohn's Select Library" (Scribner & Welford), brings in olive-green covers Burke's 'The Sublime and Beautiful,' and C. W. F. Cooper's collection of 'Horace's Odes, Englished and Imitated by Various Hands.'

"The Stott Library," a charming little series for the pocket, in clear print, we meet with for the first time in the two-volume edition of the 'Essayes of Montaigne' (London: David Stott). The text is John Florio's translation, ed. 1613, and Mr. John Huntly McCarthy furnishes an introduction. There are two vignette portraits of Montaigne, after steel engravings. Altogether, one could not desire a daintier get-up.

Southey's 'Life of Wesley' is now reprinted, under the editorial care of the Rev. J. A. Atkinson, in the "Cavendish Library" (Frederick Warne & Co.). The text is pretty condensed, but the presswork is good, and the volume has a comely binding. Mr. Atkinson has judiciously rearranged Southey's notes and added sparingly of his own. The familiar likeness of Wesley is prefixed.

Mr. Reginald Wilberforce has both curtailed and added to the Life of his father, the late Bishop Wilberforce, published some sixteen years ago (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). The present edition is both attractively printed and put on the market at a very reasonable price.

Routledge's "Universal Library," edited by Prof. Henry Morley, having been completed in sixty-three shilling volumes, is succeeded by the "Carisbrooke Library," having the same editor and publishers. The new series will include works too bulky for the earlier, but will never resort to small type for compression, being formed on a larger scale. The editorial introductions will be fuller, and there will be notes. The first volume consists of 'The Tale of a Tub, and Other Works by Jonathan Swift,' and Mr. Morley allows himself some thirty pages by way of biographical preface. The volume ends with the first seven letters from Swift's Journal to Stella.

To the foregoing reprints we can subjoin Bayard Taylor's 'Views Afoot' (New York: John B. Alden).

It is a moot question how best to teach reading in our schools, but custom has produced "readers" in series ranging from first even to sixth. Two illustrated series of four are now on our table, those bearing the name of Stickney (Boston: Ginn & Co.) and Harper's new volumes. There is no little difference between them, and yet they agree substantially, and share to our minds the defects of most similar books that have come under our observation. The editorial contribution is excessive, especially in the older readers; the selection is remarkable for avoidance of the best names in English literature; the poetical extracts are as a rule poor, and, taken together, not indicative of or contributory to a cultivated taste. We cannot say that books like these will have no value as auxiliaries, but by themselves they do not seem ideal instruments. Such leaflets as the Riverside Literature Series of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make a much nearer approach to what we desire to see.

Natural history has also its serial readers, and here is the sixth in the line prepared by the late Rev. J. G. Wood (Boston School Supply Co.), and the third in the "Nature Readers" of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 'Sea-Side and Way-Side.' These have but a very limited rhetorical or literary function.

In 1853 the United States Government sent out an expedition to explore the La Plata under the command of Capt. Thomas J. Page, which, though very successful from a scientific point of view, involved this country in difficulties with Paraguay. His son, Capt. John Page, has been continuing his father's work by explorations of the rivers in the northern part of the Argentine Republic, known as the Gran Chaco, an account of which is given in the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. This vast plain, consisting of about 180,000 square miles, is divided into two provinces, the Chaco Austral and the Chaco Central. The former is apparently the richer of the two in natural resources, and is being rapidly developed. The northern province is still practically unknown, though the Government and private companies with Government concessions are making strenuous efforts to open it to settlers. Capt. Page gives a spirited account of his successful rescue of some frontier garrisons in danger of being carried away by a sudden flood, the rivers at such times eating away their banks, though lined with great trees, with incredible rapidity. This article is followed by an interesting description of explorations in the "Glacier Regions of the Selkirk Range," by the Rev. W. S. Green, illustrated by an excellent map. From observations made on the great Illecellewaet Glacier, he estimated that "the centre of the ice had moved along twenty feet in thirteen days." He referred to the terrible destruction of the forests in this region by fire, as did Capt. Wharton, Hydrographer to the Admiralty, in the discussion of the paper before the Society, who said that "any one who wanted to see the Canadian Pacific line in its glory should go there very shortly, because a great deal of its beauty would soon be spoiled."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains an account of the Islands of Melanesia, by R. H. Codrington, D.D., and a description, with elaborate tables and a map, of the earthquake shock in the Edinburgh district January 18, 1889. Mr. Ravenstein, the well-known African cartographer, compares Dr. Livingstone's account of Lake Bangweolo, on the shores of which he died, as given in his unpublished manuscripts, with those of more recent explorers, and constructs a new map of the lake, which is given, together with reproductions of Dr. Livingstone's original maps. He also gives a large number of astronomical and hypsometrical observations made between the years 1866-73 out of a great mass still lying buried in Livingstone's manuscripts.

The Haliburton Society of Windsor, N. S., founded in 1884 "to further in some degree the development of a distinctive literature in Canada," has just printed a paper on Judge Haliburton by Mr. F. B. Crofton of Halifax,

the first of a proposed series of annual publications. It is a very scholarly and appreciative sketch of the greatest of Nova Scotian writers, and one whose influence was very marked on certain characteristic departments of American literature. Though there are few readers of the 'Clockmaker' to-day, yet many of Sam Slick's shrewd sayings have become household words. Mr. Crofton takes this occasion to correct several blunders in the various biographical notices of Judge Haliburton, two of which, we regret to see, are faithfully copied by the editors of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography.'

Mr. Christern sends us the current issue of Louis Figuier's *L'Année Scientifique* for 1888. This annual is too well known to call for comment, having attained its thirty-second year.

Nearly twenty years ago Mr. R. S. Newall erected at his residence, Ferndene, Gateshead, the largest refracting telescope then in existence. It is an excellent glass, of twenty-five inches diameter, and was made by the distinguished optician Cooke of York. Owing to very unfavorable atmospheric conditions at Gateshead, and to other serious reasons, this fine instrument has lain for the most part of this time idle, and its owner now addresses a letter to the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, in which he contemplates the generous offer to the University of his telescope, the dome covering it, and other connected instruments. Mr. Newall expresses the hope that the glass may be specially employed in the study of stellar physics, and he wisely asks what proposals the University can make to insure its proper use and maintenance, in case his offer should be acceptable. A syndicate has therefore been appointed, on which Drs. Routh and Glaisher, and Profs. Adams, Liveing, Darwin, and Thomson are associated with the Vice-Chancellor, to consider Mr. Newall's munificent proposal, and report to the Senate the arrangements and expenditure necessary to utilize and maintain the telescope for astronomical and physical research. This instrument stands about sixth in the order of size at present, and is by far the largest telescope now in Great Britain.

The Astronomical Society of the Pacific was organized at a meeting held February 7, and a circular, forming No. 1 of its publications, has just been issued. The officers of the Society are mostly connected with the Lick Observatory, and the present membership is forty, about two-thirds of whom reside in San Francisco. They hope to count in their membership every person on the Pacific Coast who takes a genuine interest in astronomy, whether he has made special studies in this direction or not. The Society is already canvassing all the other societies and technical organizations of the Coast, the colleges and schools of California, and the Government surveys of the State for new members, and it is expected that a vivid interest in the science can be created and fostered, and that the Society will have real weight in the advancement and diffusion of astronomical knowledge. In prospect are the establishment of a high-class astronomical journal, the foundation of a special astronomical library, and the organization of such scientific work as may be advanced by mutual assistance. Three or four hours of Saturday evenings in summer the telescopes of the Lick Observatory are to be put at the disposition of those who attend the Society's meetings on Mount Hamilton, for the purpose of affording actual demonstrations from the heavens of the subjects under discussion. The winter meetings of the Society will be held at San Francisco, where will be its library, collections, etc. It is intended as a popular organization in the best sense of the word, and it is entirely an outgrowth of the coöperation of amateur and professional astronomers in the successful observation of the total eclipse in California last New Year's Day. The circular contains the by-laws of the Society.

"A. I." writes us from New Bedford: "With *topsoltiria* in 'F. H.'s' article on *Topsyturvy* (*Nation*, March 28) may be compared the Scotch *tapsalteerie*, a word on which the Scottish dictionaries throw a good deal of darkness. See Burns, 'Green Grow the Rushes'—

"'An' warly cares, an' warly men,
May a' gae *tapsalteerie*, O!'"

—The most important contribution in the April *Scribner's* is Charles Francis Adams's paper upon the relations that should exist between railroad corporations and their employees. He sets aside the doctrine that these corporations should enjoy the same right of dismissal that individuals possess, on the ground that they perform public functions; and since in practice the exercise of this absolute right interferes with their efficiency as common carriers, it is to be limited in such a way that the public convenience shall not suffer. He argues that a working theory must represent the facts, and ascribes the present friction and confusion to the false belief of the laborer that his association affords real protection, and the false assumption of the manager that his right of dismissal is arbitrary; the actual state of the case being that the association is often beaten, and that the manager does not dare exercise the right he claims. Mr. Adams is ready with a solution, and seeks it through the machinery of representation which has served us usefully in other matters. He would have the permanent force enjoy tenure during good behavior and be protected in this tenure by a tribunal, in the choice of which it should be represented; and the board of representatives should, besides, operate in all matters wherein the interests common to the company and its men are concerned, such as hospital, pension and insurance funds. He enters upon the plan of organization in detail, and points out many benefits likely to ensue to the morale and happiness of the force, in addition to the prevention of strikes, which is rather a benefit to the community. The frank way in which real conditions are recognized in this paper is perhaps its most notable feature, at the present stage of the agitation, but the lines of practical remedy laid down will excite valuable discussion. It is Mr. Adams's forte to agitate minds, rather than the masses; and this paper is likely to disclose wide differences of opinion. The geographical article on Mt. St. Elias, and the physiological one upon contortionists, are also to be mentioned, as novelties.

—The April *Century* is professedly a centennial number, and it makes prominent the fact that in the close of our long celebration of the gradual forming of the nation, from the fight at Concord to the successful inauguration of the Constitution, the popular mind is bent less upon the historical moment of our birth as a nation than on the character of "the father of his country." This is Washington's day, and we seem likely to see a renewed expression of that still inherited popular sentiment which attended him during his journey to New York, and surrounded him at the moment when he took the oath with a veneration which is unique in history. These new articles narrate in detail the incidents of the months of March and April pertaining to the inauguration, and are intended to bring forward especially the social aspects of the occasion, and the individuality of the men and women who took part in it. They contain also a graphic account of Washington's habits in private life at Mount Vernon, his family interests and his attachments of friendship, with many interesting cuts. Particularly noticeable here, and what continues to strike the student of the memoirs of the time with increasing force in proportion to his intimate acquaintance with them, is the impression of greatness which Washington never failed to make upon men who saw him. Fisher Ames's account of his feelings in gazing upon the ceremony is an admirable example of this; and he was but one of a cloud of witnesses which might be called to the power of Washington's character in his own person. It was not what we call "magnetism," of which, perhaps, Napoleon is the most complete modern example. It had in it a reverence which subdued affection and gave mere idolatry a secondary place; and much as Washington's greatness is still esteemed, it is likely that the real sense of it is less now than in his own age. His character had none of that brilliancy which fills the smallest-brained hero-worshipper at once. Like a mountain, it needs to be lived with before it is seen in its true magnitude, and no study can take the place of that score of stormy public years during which his contemporaries lived with him. It is fitting that at the last of our patriotic fêtes in memory of the founders, the country should be called upon to look upon that solitary figure which commands the time, and to reflect upon that personal character great and sound enough to be the first bond of the national union.

—The *Atlantic* yields a new example of Dr. Holmes's unflagging verse on the favorable subject of his contemporaries—in this case a eulogy of Lowell, on the occasion of his seventieth birthday, in which the height of admiration is generously and fittingly expressed. There is much other verse in the number, but the prevailing feature is biographical. F. C. Lowell writes at length on Thomas Basin, a French bishop of the fifteenth century, and records the confusions of the times with an effect of confusion on the mind. Miss Guiney contributes "An Outline Portrait," which, however, is so overlaid with details of all sorts of people that it might better be described as done in small hatchings than in outlines. The subject is Lady Danvers, the mother of Herbert and the friend of Donne, but the latter is the figure that stands out most distinctly on the page. Miss Preston continues her charming rendering of Cicero's old age, devoting this number to the last year of his life. No one has better succeeded in giving the air of modern and contemporary time to the most famous representative of the culture of old Rome, without which element there is a fatal lack of truth in portraits of Cicero. Mr. Merwin's examination of the place of the people in government is an interesting piece of social philosophy, though not strikingly original, and altogether too brief; the more useful part of it is the application of Rousseau's principle of pity, and the happy citation from Darwin in respect to the identity of the moral and the social instinct. Mr. Merwin winds up with the somewhat unnecessary and stale maxim that "all forms of government are bad, but the worst is better than anarchy." This is to stamp his work as amateurish.

—Mr. Gosse's article in the April *Forum* upon "What is a Great Poet?" is of the nature of further remarks in explanation and defence of his much-debated essay upon the query whether America has produced one. It would have been simpler to define his term at the beginning, but he succeeds so little now that

there was no real loss. He says, in rather an off-hand way, that "the main elements of poetical greatness will be found to be originality in the treatment of themes, perennial charm, exquisite finish in execution, and distinction of individual manner." The first and last of these elements need to be more sharply separated, and the second and third involve much the same thing. But this definition can be left one side, as the writer makes little use of it. He is more interesting when he confines himself to remarks the value of which depends on æsthetic rather than logical perception. He consents to abandon Gray, principally because he did so little, and he continues to reject Marlowe, Scott, and others; but the weight of his reply is directed upon some American critics who have informed him that Dryden (and Pope by implication) are "not read in America." He defends them with warmth, and draws attention in a warning paragraph to a disposition in America to rebel against literary masters, and to substitute a plébiscite of popular taste for the judicial sentence of those learned in the canon of literature. Perhaps, on a nearer view, the signs of the times which he reads "large," would be seen to be writ exceeding small. Because one chair happens to be filled with an incompetent and loud professor, the whole university is not gone to the dogs; and as to Dryden's not being read in "Crawfordsville, Indiana," he need only to remember that "America" is a rather large piece of ground. The plébiscite has as yet found but one voice, and there is no sign that Apollo's writ has failed to run in consequence. Indeed, we doubt whether there was ever a time when Mr. Gosse's thirteen immortals (for we will not drop Gray) had more numerous readers in the republic than to-day. But his whole discussion of the subject has from the first proceeded upon mistaken lines.

—Attempts have been made at various times by different newspapers to get at the consensus of public opinion as to favorite authors, by taking a vote among their subscribers. These efforts have never been very successful, because each newspaper has its own set of readers and does not easily get beyond them. Another way of testing popular opinion is by comparing books written about authors, since these books are naturally made to sell, and so have reference to a supposed public opinion, wise or unwise. Some interesting results may perhaps be found by comparing the last three books published, of this kind, in the United States, namely, Mr. W. H. Rideing's 'Boyhood of Living Authors' (1888), Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton's 'Famous American Authors' (1888), and 'Authors at Home,' edited by J. L. and J. B. Gilder (1889). It is important to notice that, of these, Mr. Rideing is an Englishman residing in Boston; Mrs. Bolton resides at Cleveland, Ohio, and Mr. and Miss Gilder live in New York. We thus have represented the New York, Boston, and Ohio points of view. In one case, we have a man's selection, in another case a woman's, and in the third case a man's and a woman's conjointly. 'Authors at Home' comprises twenty-six living American authors, Mr. Rideing's book fifteen, and Mrs. Bolton's twelve. We thus have sufficient material for a tolerably fair comparison. All the editors have evidently tried, if only for business purposes, to give a properly varied selection; and when we put them all together, the basis of inference will be still larger. The authors selected in the largest and latest of these books are as follows: Aldrich, Bancroft, Boker, Burroughs, Cable, Clemens, Curtis, Eggleston, Hale, Harris, Harrison, Hay, Higginson, Holmes, Mrs. Howe, Howells, Leland, Lowell, Mitchell, Parkman, Stedman, Stoddard, Mrs. Stowe, Warner, Whitman, Whittier. Mr. Rideing includes ten out of these twenty-six, and adds Boyesen, Fawcett, Knox, Stockton, and Trowbridge. Mrs. Bolton also includes ten —not always the same with Rideing's—and adds Carleton and Gilder, but puts in none of Mr. Rideing's supplementary list. It is in placing the three books side by side and tabulating the results that the chief interest of the inquiry consists.

—It appears by comparing the lists that seven authors are found on all three of them: Aldrich, Higginson, Holmes, Howells, Lowell, Stedman, Warner. All these except Howells were born in New England, and all but Howells and Stedman still reside there. Six appear on two lists: Cable, Clemens, Eggleston, Hale, Stoddard, Whittier. Just half of these were born in New England, and all but two (Eggleston and Stoddard) now live there. Twenty appear on one list only: Bancroft, Boker, Boyesen, Burroughs, Carleton, Curtis, Fawcett, Gilder, Harris, Harrison, Hay, Mrs. Howe, Knox, Leland, Mitchell, Parkman, Stockton, Mrs. Stowe, Trowbridge, and Whitman. Of these twenty, six were born in New England and five now have that as their habitation. Of the whole thirty-three, fifteen, or a little less than half, are natives of New England, and fourteen now reside there. It is a rather remarkable fact that a section of the country now relatively so small should hold its own so well in literature. And the wider region, described by Mrs. Mary H. Ford at the recent Western Authors' Convention as "the effete East," seems still to have the field pretty fully to itself. It must, however, be frankly admitted, in conclusion, that this numerical result is very far from exhibiting any accurate or trustworthy consensus of opinion. Some prominent authors, not now residing in America, as Harte and James, are altogether omitted from these lists. In some cases, accidental circumstances have excluded certain authors, as when Mrs. Bolton omits Whittier and Mrs. Stowe because she has written of them elsewhere. There are also some inevitable elements of inaccuracy, such as the greater immediate popularity of belles-lettres literature as compared with history; it by no means follows that Warner, for instance, has secured a more permanent place in literature than Bancroft or Parkman because he is on three lists and each of the others on one only. All that can be said of estimates based on this kind of selection is, that perhaps it is a shade more significant than a post-office ballot, or the vote for Presidential preferences on a railway train.

—Dr. H. Bening, in the Journal of the Historical Society of Lower Saxony, questions the claim of the Angles to the honor of giving their name to England. The claim rests mainly on the testimony of the Venerable Bede, who wrote nearly 300 years after the Saxon invasion; while neither Gildas nor any other contemporary writer mentions the Angles at all. It seems unlikely that the Angles would take part in such an enterprise as the invasion of Britain. They lived in the eastern part of Schleswig, on the Baltic; if they used their own ships, they would have to sail quite round Denmark; if not, they would have to go across country to the North Sea and find ships there. Moreover, it is improbable that the Angles would join the Saxons in such an enterprise. They were, in the fifth century, and till quite recent times, a purely Jutish, or Danish, people; not till the beginning of the present century was the Danish language supplanted by the German. There was, however, a people inhabiting a large district on both banks of the lower Weser, a branch of the Saxon race—the *Engern*, or Enger-Saxons. It seems highly probable that it was this tribe that joined the Saxons in their invasion of Britain, settled on the eastern coast, and, at the formation of the Heptarchy, gave their name to the new kingdom. *Eng-land* is even more obviously derived from *Enger-land* than from *Angle-land*.

—Apropos of our review of Count von Eckstädt's 'Shakespeare und Shakspere,' found in another column, it seems proper to call attention to the great literary discovery just communicated to the world through the columns of the Berlin *Gegenwart* by Prof. Moritz Carriere, the Munich "Aesthetiker." This discovery, whose title to the supreme rank in the literature of mare's nests will hardly be called in question, is simply that Goethe's "Faust" was stolen from Lessing. After reading the first of Prof. Carriere's two articles, we were inclined, though fully aware that the Teutonic professorial intellect seldom sports, to think the whole a clever bit of persiflage. As persiflage, at any rate, it would have been decidedly clever; one might go far to find a neater *reductio ad absurdum* of the method of the Baconians, which is, be it observed, a different thing from the Baconian method. But upon reading the second article, which is mainly occupied with Count von Eckstädt's "researches," and concludes with a formal application for membership in the "tolerant church" of the Baconians, we find reason to fear that Prof. Carriere is in dead earnest. His argument is like this: Lessing writes a "Faust" and loses the manuscript. He visits Leipzig while Goethe is studying there, but the latter, instead of cultivating the famous man, as we should expect, takes pains to avoid him. Then presently we begin to hear of a "Faust" by Goethe. He reads scenes to his friends, and excites great expectations, but refrains from publishing anything until after Lessing's death. Lessing goes through life with a poor opinion of Goethe's poetical powers. Musing long on this train of suspicious circumstances, Prof. Carriere one day suddenly saw a great light: Goethe had cabbaged Lessing's "Faust," and, translating its prose into Hans Sachs doggerel, had passed it off for his own. The clue once found, mysteries began to clear up and corroborative evidence to appear at every turn. "Faust" is full of Lessing's ideas. The prose scenes are Lessing untranslated. And so forth. As a humorist Prof. Carriere would deserve fuller exposition and high praise; but viewing him as a serious writer, we can only recommend hellebore taken in as large doses as the family physician will countenance.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.—I.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part iv, sec. 1. Bra—Byz, completing vol. i (A and B). Part iv, sec. 2. C—Cass, commencing vol. ii. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THE fourth part of the new dictionary of the Philological Society, our notice of which has been too long delayed, finishes the first volume and begins the second. It is, accordingly, divided into two sections. The first includes the words from *Bra* to the end of the letter B. The second extends in the letter C to the word *Cass-*

weed. With the first section are issued the preface and the introduction to the one completed volume, which contains the words beginning with the first two letters of the alphabet. The undertaking has certainly a long way to travel before it can come even in sight of the end; but it is a good deal to have it started so successfully on the road to fulfilment.

The progress of the work necessarily furnishes ampler opportunities to test its value. Familiarity with it, so far from breeding contempt, impresses one more and more with its general excellence and with its absolute indispensableness to every student of the language. As it advances, there is naturally exhibited greater skill in handling the immense stock of material that has been collected. Two qualities have marked it from the outset in which it finds nowhere a superior in similar undertakings in any tongue. One of these is the skill with which the aid of typography has been called in to facilitate reference by the arrangement of paragraphs and the employment of different sizes and styles of type. This has doubtless added largely to the expense; but it is no easy matter to reckon the saving of time and labor effected by it, to say nothing of the benefit to the morals by its giving no occasion to the display of that wrath which the consultation of most dictionaries has a tendency to provoke.

This is, however, a view of it from the purely material side. There is another in which it stands just as high. Something more than a mere accumulation of facts, no matter on how grand a scale, is essential to the carrying out of a task of this kind. Upon no one more forcibly than upon him whom necessity compels frequently to consult dictionaries, does the truth of the poet's assertion impress itself that while knowledge comes, it is wisdom that lingers. The vagaries, the fancies, the guesses into which lexicographers have run in the effort to explain what they did not understand, or to impart to others knowledge they did not possess themselves, have not always tended to inspire confidence in the men who are striving to carry the burden of an omniscience to which they were not equal. Especially has this been true in the department of etymology. It is the distinction of those concerned in the present undertaking that they have not sought to embarrass future investigation by present conjecture. This means more than at first appears. Lexicographers, even if timid themselves, have to a remarkable extent the courage of other men's convictions. They are perfectly willing to give currency to a definition or a derivation which they could never have been induced to originate upon their own responsibility. It is not so in this instance. Nothing is asserted upon mere authority. The editors, even when stating the suggestions of others, refrain from giving them their own sanction.

In only one instance, so far as we have observed, have they laid themselves open to criticism upon this score; and the variation from their usual practice is noteworthy enough to merit special comment. It occurs in the case of the somewhat peculiar expression *brown study*. The adjective here has assuredly the general idea of 'deep,' 'profound,' 'abstracted.' It is hard to fix upon the phrase the sense of 'gloomy meditation' by which Johnson defined it; and the particular meaning given to it in this dictionary of 'an idle and purposeless reverie' is certainly not common. But it is in the explanation of its origin that conjecture appears here for once to have triumphed over judgment. The meaning is declared to have apparently come in the first place from *brown* in the sense of 'gloomy,' but that this sense of the adjective has to a great extent been forgotten. When, however, we turn to the adjective itself, we find that so far from such a sense having been forgotten, there is not the slightest record that it ever existed. The signification of 'gloomy,' 'serious,' is, indeed, imputed to it, but imputed to it solely for the sake of accounting for the origin of *brown study*, to which a cross-reference is made. No actual example of such a usage is furnished. It is hardly necessary to remark that this is not a method of derivation that advances knowledge, and the origin of the meaning of *brown study* remains as much in the dark as ever. It may be added that *stiff* seems formerly to have been an equivalent expression. In the romance of William of Palerne one of the characters is represented as having fallen "into a styf studie" (1, 2981), and the same usage with slight variations can be found in lines 4038 and 4056 of the same poem.

This is, as we have stated, an illustration of a too common practice on the part of lexicographers; but in spite of our illustration the editors of this dictionary are remarkable not for falling into it, but for not falling into it. A notice of a work of this kind has, indeed, from its very nature a tendency to give to flaws and omissions a disproportionate importance, and therefore to convey to the reader an essentially wrong impression. The reviewer can only speak of the merits of the performance in general terms; it is only when he comes to point out defects that he is under the necessity of descending to details. It would be impertinent as well as unimportant for him to recount how many mistakes of his own had been corrected, how much new light had been thrown upon matters that had been previously obscure, how many complete gaps in his knowledge had been filled up. It seems, therefore, an ungracious act to dwell upon specific errors; for unfortunately particular fault-finding always makes a much greater impression than general commendation. Still, it is only in this way that there can be any hope of finally securing that accuracy and completeness of knowledge which should be the ultimate aim of all those interested in English lexicography.

The present work is certainly not perfect. This is by no means a very serious objection. If, indeed, men waited for perfection before undertaking a task of this kind, nothing would ever be accomplished at all. But in general its faults are rather of a negative than of a positive character. The important thing to be noticed is, that while there are deficiencies in the work, as was perhaps inevitable, there are very rarely errors. To illustrate precisely what we mean, we give one specimen of the very few faults of the latter kind that can be found in the first volume. It occurs under the word *arrest*. From the Summoner's tale of Chaucer there is quoted, with a definition peculiar to itself, the following couplet, which, for the sake of convenience, we put in modern orthography:

> "An irous man is like a frantic beast,
> In which there is of wisdom none arrest."

The meaning of the sentence is clear. An exceedingly angry man, the poet tells us, has the nature of a frantic beast over which no restraint, no check, is exercised by wisdom. *Arrest* has consequently its not unusual sense of 'stoppage, stay, check.' But in this dictionary there is manufactured for the word in this particular couplet a signification of 'remaining, abiding, continuance,' which is utterly unsuited to the context, and for which the passage is the sole authority given.

From errors of this sort the work is, however, almost entirely free. It is naturally in the line of omissions that a far larger list of imperfections can be produced. Upon one point in particular we have insisted previously, and the fact that it seems to us a matter of the very first importance must be our excuse for recurring to it again. This is to the effect that the dictionary fulfils but imperfectly its duty as a record, not of usage, but of the best usage. It ought to be a work to which we can turn with absolute confidence, whenever the question of taste or propriety comes up, that everything, or at least enough, has been recorded to settle the question in dispute decisively. When Horace said that usage was the standard of speech, he did not mean the usage of this man or that man indifferently, but the usage of the best. We should think little of a Latin lexicographer who should furnish as authority for some special meaning or construction the words of one of the authors of the Augustan History, and should leave unrecorded those of Cicero illustrating the same usage. We fail to see why this same standard should not be set up for an English dictionary; or, to put the idea in a similar concrete form, the value of the work to men of letters would be vastly enhanced if it gave us more of Newman, Ruskin, Tennyson, and Browning, and less of Gen. Peronnet Thompson, a writer who is here quoted with a frequency out of all proportion to his importance.

We are far from meaning to assert that the great authors are not often cited, or that they are not cited where their authority is of the greatest weight. Our contention is, that too frequently they are not cited where it is of special importance that they should be—that is to say, in the cases where the usage is at all striking or peculiar, or where the word or expression is uncommon. The definitions are given, but sometimes not the best illustrations, and that, too, in instances where the material must have been in the hands of the editors. Take, for example, the use of *buskined* as applied to tragedy. Milton's 'buskined stage' in the "Il Penseroso" is of vastly more importance as authority than the three quotations given, though even they are taken from Massinger, Young, and Hazlitt. His use of "canon laws" in "Comus," unrecorded here, outweighs any extract furnished to illustrate the attributive sense of this or similar expressions. Dryden, in the "Annus Mirabilis," speaks of *building* ships. We are given here as an example of such usage a quotation from the records of the proceedings of Parliament a few years before. When we leave the class of words about the meaning of which there is little or no dispute, and come to significations of a more peculiar character or of more doubtful propriety, the omission to cite from the highest attainable authorities is a matter of more serious moment. Surrey, for illustration, speaks of "the *brittle* port," where the anchor fails to hold. Keats, in his "Endymion," uses *brush* of the tail of a lion instead of a fox. In one of his poetical epistles he mentions a "*canvas'd* ship." More marked, however, than any of these is the omission to record Tennyson's use of *byre* in his poem of "The Victim," in which he says that "thorpe and byre arose in fire." The failure to insert it is the more noticeable because in this piece the word seems to be used—it is impossible to say that it is used—in a sense which in this dictionary is expressly condemned.

So much for deficiencies of this character. They are of the only kind for which we are disposed to hold the editors at all responsible. It is hardly they with whom fault can be found for the failure to record words or meanings that have been omitted, or instances of earlier

or of later usage. The examples have not been given because they have not been received. That there are such failures is only what might have been expected. One of them occurs in the expression *by and by*. It is used by Chaucer in the sense of nearness in space as well as of nearness in time. In the Knight's tale we are told of two wounded knights lying on the battle-field "by and by." The glossaries, curiously enough, define this as 'separately,' which can hardly be said to furnish any sense at all. The context requires it to be used with the signification of 'close together, side by side.' The proverbial phrase *sift to the bran* is given; but not the equivalent and apparently earlier one, *bolt to the bran*, which is found in the Nun's Priest's tale, though the passage containing it is quoted under *bolt* to illustrate that particular word. The unnoted variant form *brother-by-law* occurs for *brother-in-law* in the dedication of Gascoigne's 'Complaint of Philomene' (1577). Again, in Ben Jonson's play of "The Epicene," *broken-up* is employed to signify 'corrupted, vitiated,' and in fact is so explained. *Caperer* is the contemptuous term applied to a dancing-master by Shadwell in his comedy of "The Volunteers." This same writer is authority for *caravan* in the slang sense of a 'dupe,' which is given in this dictionary; but his further use of it in the signification of 'a kept mistress' is not recorded. Yet with this meaning it appears twice certainly in his play of "The Woman Captain." Again, *capriccioso* appears here only as an adjective denoting a direction in music. Yet it is used as a noun by Smollett in his 'Ferdinand Count Fathom' (chap. 31), where it denotes a musical performance.

Of some of the words or meanings here given earlier usage can be recorded. *Bum-rolls*, quoted from Killigrew, 1665, can be found in Ben Jonson's "Poetaster." *Brisk* as applied to wine, with a quotation from Shakspere, is used by Green of claret in his play of "James IV." The earliest quotation for *Cantaloup* is of the date of 1839. It is a little surprising to see it spoken of as employed chiefly in the United States, for the cultivation of the variety was long ago introduced into England. Lord Chesterfield at London, writing under the date of December 23, 1748, asks Dayrolles at the Hague for some seed of the Cantaloup melon. "The Cantelupes," he adds, "are in my opinion the best sort of melons; at least, they always succeed best here." In subsequent letters he makes further references to them.

We are far, however, from attaching special importance to these omissions, the number of which could without difficulty be enlarged. It is inevitable that every additional year will add to the stock of knowledge of the words here recorded. Early or later illustrations of use will be found, and to a slight extent new significations. New words will be revealed which have escaped notice. It is sufficient praise of this dictionary that it has brought together and made accessible an immense body of facts, systematically arranged and edited throughout with care, with learning, and with judgment. Upon this solid base future generations can confidently build with fuller knowledge the perfected work, and this is the first time that such a possibility has existed in the case of our tongue. Much may be added; but there is very little that will need to be revised.

Letters, Poems, and Selected Prose Writings of David Gray. Edited, with a biographical memoir, by J. N. Larned. Buffalo: The *Courier* Co. 1888. 2 vols.

THESE memorial volumes present the history and something of the work of one of those men who from one cause or another are felt to have left no adequate result of their lives, of whom we commonly say that the man was more than the work. The charm of personal character, the sense of unexpressed power, lead their friends to gather together such fragments and records as may indicate the one they knew, and especially recall and define his memory to themselves. This life of David Gray is conceived and executed in this spirit. He was known as a public man in his locality, being the editor of the Buffalo *Courier*, a paper which was conducted by him in accordance with high principles of journalism; and he was thus brought into relations with fellow-editors and some literary men, while holding an enviable position in the respect of his own community. But he was a journalist against his will. Born in Scotland, in 1836, he emigrated in his boyhood with his father's family, and settled on the Wisconsin prairie, when that was on the line of the ever-moving frontier; there he grew up on a farm, with scanty schooling: and, by native bent, notwithstanding the unfavorable conditions of life, developed a strong taste for poetry. The passages which describe his country boyhood and the growth of warm friendship with the son of a neighbor, who also had been touched, but not filled, with the poetic faculty—their evenings and nights together, of which the description and the records are still fresh with young and untried enthusiasm—are almost pathetic. They would come together, after the labor of the day, which made them feel an inch shorter at night, as Gray says, and share their new treasures, rare in a country of few books, Byron and Moore, Poe, Coleridge, and the other poets of the ruling taste, with real literary passion; and, of course, they wrote verses and confided them to each other, and thought of fame. This is the opening of Gray's life, a portion of it which always lay behind him like a dream, and was evidently affectionately cherished in his memory.

Real life began for him when he went to Buffalo, at the age of twenty, as Secretary of the Library of the Young Men's Christian Union. From this employment he drifted into business, and shortly after became connected with the paper he was to serve as a reporter of the produce market. He did not feel his early hopes slipping away from him, and the grasp of circumstances begin to throttle the inner life, without regret; but he accepted his lot, and became city editor and afterwards editor-in-chief. He was drawn into journalism, and the profession absorbed his energy. The life which is narrated here, however, is not a business career, but his companionship with friends, with whom his exceptional nature made him a favorite. He sometimes wrote verses, many of them upon public occasions; and during a three years' absence in Europe he sent letters to the paper which make up the second of these volumes. These descriptions of travel, mainly, of course, from Italian soil, but also from England, Germany, Sweden, Russia, Switzerland, and the East, exhibit a mind with great capacity for the enjoyment of nature, with sensibility to the more popular (we do not use the word in a depreciating sense) works of art, and with a strong response to historical association. They afford the surface view, full of color and enthusiasm, which the rapid traveller obtains in foreign lands, but without finish of style or that picturesque or humorous detail which the present taste enforces; but, so far as they illustrate Gray's nature, they give an impression of one excellent in himself and desiring excellence. The remainder of his literary work consists of a few poems, of which one can say only that they show the spark of poetic feeling. A few of them are much better than the rest, and in those which still glow with the contemporary passion of the war, one feels the pulse of the nation; but the work of unripe years has too large a share in the collection, and even in maturer compositions the verse is too obviously the echo of those poets whom Gray loved. What one sees in them is rather the mind passive to poetic influences, whether from books or in nature and daily life, than the mind active with its own secret and underived energies. The poems, like the letters, bespeak rather than express the man; and this is the impression which he seems to have made upon his circle of acquaintances.

He died in 1888, after a few years of sadly interrupted health, in painful circumstances, being in a railway accident while on his way to attempt to recover strength, although then his invalidism gave little promise of any permanent improvement. The event drew forth many public tributes of respect for a useful and honorable career as a man of his day in the affairs of his own people; and, though he failed to realize his hopes, and seems to have felt a sense of waste in his life, this biography testifies amply to high character and to duty faithfully done in a measure which leaves no occasion for regret.

Wordsworthiana: a Selection from Papers read to the Wordsworth Society. Edited by William Knight. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

IT is observed in this volume that Wordsworth has been "fortunate in his eulogists"; but this is but half the truth. He has been fortunate in the whole class of minds he has attracted; and the names of those who have taken part in the proceedings of the Wordsworth Society, and whose contributions are here reprinted, are a striking illustration of this fact. From these gentlemen one would expect criticism either fine or solid, but it is a proof how completely the criticism of Wordsworth is exhausted to find that these papers are no more than gleanings after the harvest. The cardinal points, of course, are necessarily here. They are Wordsworth's philosophy, his morality, and his regard for nature. The first topic is, as usual, unfruitful; the discussion of his "Platonism" by Mr. Shorthouse, and his "Theism" by Mr. Veitch, reflects the vagueness of Wordsworth's speculative dogma, which seems to have consisted really of pantheistic conceptions imperfectly appropriated by his mind, and confused by him with his own exalted feelings under the stimulus of scenery. Nothing has ever been made out of it for the satisfaction of the intellect; and perhaps the best commentary on it is Lord Selborne's declaration that, profound Christian as he is, he has never felt anything in Wordsworth's moods inharmonious with ordinary Christian belief. The Dean of Salisbury speaks of Wordsworth's morality, as does also Aubrey de Vere, but both briefly; and, as to his regard for nature, the Hon. Roden Noel makes an elaborate and somewhat mystical plea for the "pathetic fallacy," quite in Wordsworth's spirit. Hutton, whose discernment and precise taste always give attraction to his remarks, and Lowell, whose address has been widely circulated, are the real critics of the company, and both evidently felt the exhaustion of the ground.

The more interesting papers are rather about the poet than upon his works, or else deal with special aspects of the general subject, in essays that resemble extended notes. Mr. Rawnsley's collection of the remarks of the peasants who

still remember the poet is entertaining rather than valuable, but shows us clearly the way in which he was regarded by the country-side into whose judgment poetry did not enter. Mr. Ainger's remarks on the poets who helped to form Wordsworth's style are interesting, and so are the papers on the Chaucer modernizations, by Dowden, Wordsworth's treatment of sound, by W. A. Heard, and his relation to Science, by Spence Watson. The last shows that the poet was by no means unsympathetic with science, but, on the contrary, strongly impressed by its work. Mr. Knight's list of portraits is also a valuable contribution.

The most striking portion of the collection, however, consists of the speeches of the Presidents of the Society, Arnold, Lowell, Lord Houghton, and Lord Selborne, with the reply to Arnold by Lord Coleridge and that to Lord Selborne by Aubrey de Vere. These are all admirable examples of just what such exercises should be, uniting ease and intellectual refinement with a delightful personal touch. They belong to a kind of speech-making to succeed in which is a proof of social as much as of literary cultivation. The intellectual element was more pronounced in Lowell's speech, friendliness in the rest. Lord Houghton's account of the poetic revival at Cambridge, and the expedition of the undergraduates to enlighten Oxford, is a reminiscence in itself delightful with the charm of youth, and related with the pardonable complacency of age; and Lord Selborne's simple and straightforward confession of what he personally owed to Wordsworth in his own life could not be bettered. It is from such acknowledgments as this that one learns best to appreciate the reality of Wordsworth's influence, and of poetic influence in general, to ripen the principles inculcated upon English youth and make of them a spontaneous rule of duty, and also to expand and refine the mind. The distinguished intellectual rank of many of those who have been mentioned, their marked literary taste, and the evident sincerity of their regard for Wordsworth as a helping influence, and not merely a source of æsthetic pleasure in their lives, show the deep mark he has made on the generation he taught, and usefully remind those of us who will not allow his moral weight to obscure in our minds his poetic limitations, how much an inborn race-sympathy and union in moral and national feeling may generate power out of genius even in the face of great deficiencies.

Shakespeare und Shakspere. Zur Genesis der Shakespeare-Dramen. Von K. F. Graf Vitzthum von Eckstädt. Stuttgart: Cotta; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1888.

A BOOK-TITLE like this naturally suggests to the mind some sort of contribution to a familiar orthographical discussion. This is what we had anticipated upon seeing the title in the German trade-lists. But the volume before us turns out to be nothing of that kind. It is not concerned with telling us how to spell the name of a famous English poet, but with proving that there never was a poet of that name at all. Count von Eckstädt, sometime Minister of the kingdom of Saxony to Great Britain, has undertaken to get together all of the "facts upon which is grounded the conviction of those who regard Francis Bacon as the author of the poems and plays that appeared under the names of Christopher Marlowe and William Shakespeare." The Count's theory is, that the boorish play-actor who held horses in London, was descended from a Warwickshire peasant of French extraction, whose name was Jacque's Pierre—that is, as we are kindly informed, Jacob's son Peter. This name was then "softened" by the Warwickshire people into Shakspere, pronounced Shaxpur. On the other hand, Shakespeare was a high-sounding nom-de-guerre, under which Lord Bacon chose to publish the plays written by him, or at least that portion of them which he did not prefer to print under the other *alias* of Christopher Marlowe. To emphasize this distinction between Shakespeare and Shakspere our author uniformly prints the latter name in heavy German characters, the former in ordinary Roman. The Count gives us to understand that, before reaching his present enlightened convictions, he gnawed long and hard at the file which always tries the teeth of the Baconians—namely, the question, How could an "ignorant play-actor in a barbarous age" ever have written these astonishing plays, which even we, the heirs of all the ages, striking the stars as we do with our sublime heads, sometimes have difficulty in following! To such an old-wives' tale he can only say, *Credat Judæus Apella.*

For our part, we cannot declare upon honor that we have found the Count's pages exciting at every point, but they certainly do provide for a receptive spirit many an innocent gratification. For example, to a lover of his country it is no small titillation to find Mr. Donnelly figuring in these learned-looking foreign pages as a great "discoverer"! But the feature of the book that most commends itself to us is the evidence adduced for the Baconian authorship of Marlowe's plays. This lead should certainly be followed up. It will simplify several matters when it is generally understood that the whole traditional list of Elizabethan poets, philosophers, and statesmen is only a kaleidoscopic hoax under which Lord Bacon chose to "half conceal and half reveal" his Protean identity.

The book under consideration is a large octavo of 264 pages, printed in Cotta's best style, on heavy tinted paper, and inscribed by permission to Kuno Fischer, the well-known Heidelberg Professor of Philosophy, on the ground of his services to the memory of Lord Bacon. So imposing, in fact, are the book and its credentials that it almost makes one shudder to think of treating it with anything like levity. Upon reflection, however, we see no real ground for compunction, since the true Baconian always courts and glories in the fate of all great deliverers, the blessed privilege of suffering ridicule and obloquy for the truth's sake. Any attempt on our part to take Count von Eckstädt and his sect seriously would surely be worse than futile; but if this notice should fall under the eye of any reader, not yet a Baconian sectary, who has had his private struggle with the Baconian *crux*, we recommend him to read over, in default of anything better, Prof. Baynes's article on Shakspere in the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Then, after making liberal allowance for what is mere unverifiable filling-in by the writer's fancy, let him put to himself this question: Is it possible to imagine for a man who was to write "Hamlet" and "As You Like It" a better birthplace, a more fortunate parentage, more efficient schooling, or more toward youthful experiences than those which actually fell to the lot of William Shakspere?

Calderon und seine Werke. Von Engelbert Günthner. Mit Calderon's Bildniss. Freiburg im Breisgau: Herder. 1888. 2 vols., pp. xl, 336; pp. viii, 438. 8vo.

THE last ten years have brought us a goodly number of more or less important contributions to our already considerable literature on Calderon, most of them called forth by the increased interest in the poet awakened by the two hundredth anniversary of his death, which was celebrated not only in Madrid, but throughout the European world of letters, on the 25th of May, 1881. Morel-Fatio's exemplary critical edition of "El Mágico Prodigioso" (1877) was followed by Dr. Max Krenkel's 'Klassische Bühnendichtungen der Spanier,' containing in three volumes four very ably edited but rather too heavily annotated plays of Calderon (1881–7), and by Norman Maccoll's 'Select Plays of Calderon' (1888). Among the more recent translations of our poet may be noted here Dr. Franz Lorinser's 'Don Pedro Calderons de la Barca geistliche Festspiele' (1882–7), and A. Richter's 'Udvalgte Komedier af Don Pedro Calderon de la Barca' (1880–7). More numerous, however, than critical editions and translations are publications concerning the biography of the poet, the sources and literary value of his works, and the character of the times in which they were produced. In 1880 appeared the learned Dutchman J. J. Putman's book, 'Studiën over Calderon en zijne Geschriften,' treating of the poet's life and works, and especially of the point of view he occupied in writing them. New facts of interest to Calderon's biography are brought to light, particularly by the Spaniard D. Felipe Picatoste, in his valuable monograph, 'Biografía de Don Pedro Calderon de la Barca' (1881), and also by the German E. Dorer in his essay, 'Calderon und die Hofprediger' (1887). D. Antonio Rubió y Lluch publishes a treatise on 'El sentimiento dal honor en el teatro de Calderon' (1882), and D. A. Sanchez Moguel one on the relations of the "Mágico Prodigioso" with Goethe's "Faust" (1881); while D. Adolfo de Castro y Rossi presents us with an interesting though necessarily incomplete picture of the social life of Spain in the seventeenth century as studied in the comedies of Calderon (1881).

To the above-mentioned contributions to the literature bearing on the great Spanish dramatist may now be added the work which stands at the head of this notice, and the principal aim of which, according to the author's preface, is "to render more accessible to a wider circle of readers the best works of the poet, by presenting, from an æsthetic and historical point of view, an analysis of the contents, together with the necessary explanations that would faithfully indicate the course of thought and the beauties of the Spanish original." Accordingly, of the one hundred and eight unquestionably genuine comedies, Günthner has taken up for thorough treatment all the religious and symbolical dramas, as well as such of the historical ones as are based on incidents belonging to Spanish history, selecting from the other plays and the seventy-three *autos sacramentales* only the most prominent, while the rest have been dismissed with a brief statement of their contents. The work opens with a pretty complete and unquestionably very useful bibliography of the literature bearing on Calderon, to which are to be added the illustrated and annotated edition by J. Alonso del Real (1881), mentioned on p. 27, and Norman Maccoll's 'Select Plays of Calderon.' Then follows—decidedly the best feature of the book—a succinct biography of the poet, which embodies the latest researches in the field, especially those of the above-mentioned D. Felipe Picatoste, and may be regarded as the most reliable account we now have of Calderon's life. Among other things it is worthy of mention that Günthner passes over in well-deserved silence that ballad of Cepeda's which for a time was supposed to be a production of Calderon's,

and as such figures in the biographical part of the editions of Hartzenbusch and Maccoll.

In the second and main part of the book—"Calderon's Werke"—our author first gives us a short account of the editions of Calderon, whereupon he discusses the different classifications of the poet's works adopted by editors and commentators, choosing for his own purpose the one introduced by Valentin Schmidt in his excellent work entitled 'Die Schauspiele Calderon's dargestellt und erläutert' (1857), and closes this brief general introduction to his work with a few remarks on the metre of Calderon's plays. In these it can only be regretted that, contrary to the well-established results of modern research, Spanish verse should still be forced into the Procrustean bed of the classical iambic and trochee. But what must even more disappoint the student of Calderon is, that neither here nor elsewhere in the book has the author availed himself of the opportunity to show that he has an opinion of his own in regard to the literary value of Calderon's drama and its relations to the dramatic literature of the times; all that we find concerning such important matters as these consisting in quotations from other, chiefly German, critics, the latter of whom Günthner joins in a somewhat more enthusiastic than just appreciation of Calderon's merits as a dramatist.

Indeed, there is very little that is original or new in Günthner's treatment of the subject. Throughout the whole work, whether in the general estimate of each class of plays or in the critical remarks on each separate play, he seems to have leaned altogether too much on his predecessors, especially on Valentin Schmidt and Von Schack, whose aid, it must be said, is always faithfully acknowledged. Schmidt's commentary contains copious and valuable notes on the grammar, phraseology, and other points of Calderon's language, and it would have been well for Günthner, who has here again contented himself with quoting from Schmidt and Krenkel, to follow the former's example, by bringing the results of his own reading to bear on the interpretation of the still considerable number of difficult passages in Calderon. His whole mode of treatment leaves one with the impression that he had confined his study of Calderon almost exclusively to the works of that poet and the recent literature bearing on the subject, instead of basing them on independent and broad researches in the whole domain of Spanish language and literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. But while Günthner's work contains few if any original views or new facts, it may be cordially recommended to the student of Calderon as summing up and arranging in a convenient form the results of recent research in regard to the life and works of the most celebrated of Spanish dramatists.

English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages (XIVth Century). By J. J. Jusserand. Translated from the French by Lucy Toulmin Smith. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. 8vo, pp. 451.

No country offers a better field of operation to the historical inquirer than England. Scarcely a single phase of its inner, as distinguished from its political, history during the Middle Ages has been adequately investigated. There is no satisfactory history of its mediæval law, religion, commerce, industry, or municipal development. The abundance of accessible materials illustrating these subjects seems to receive more attention from foreigners than from Englishmen themselves. Many of the best contributions to English mediæval history have been made by such writers as Gneist, Pauli, Schmidt, Nasse, Von Maurer, Gundermann, Brunner, Von Ochenkowski, Schanz, Vinogradoff, Adams, and Bigelow. In no other country of western Europe has historical investigation been aided so much by foreigners as in England.

The book before us is a translation and expansion of a work which appeared in 1884, under the title of 'La Vie Nomade d'Angleterre,' etc. The author has taken advantage of the opportunity afforded him by this translation to revise the original treatise and to add about one-fourth of new matter.

The opening chapters describe the roads and bridges, the dangers and difficulties of travel in the fourteenth century (pp. 35–171). Then, in six different chapters, we are made acquainted with the life of the wandering herbalists, charlatans, minstrels, jugglers, and tumblers; messengers, itinerant merchants, and peddlers; outlaws, wandering workmen, and peasants; preachers, friars, pardoners, and pilgrims. The author points out how they served as links between the different groups of society:

"Pursuing their singular calling, these wanderers, who had seen so much and knew so many adventures, served to give some idea of the great unknown world to the humble classes whom they met on their way. Together with many false beliefs and fables, they put into the heads of the stay-at-homes certain notions of extent and of active life which they would hardly otherwise have had. Above all, they brought to the men attached to the soil news of their brethren in the neighboring province, of their condition of misery or of happiness, who were pitied or envied accordingly, and were remembered as brothers or friends to call upon in the day of revolt. At a period when, for the mass of mankind, ideas were transmitted orally and travelled with these wanderers along the roads, the nomads served as a true link between the human groups of various districts" (pp. 30, 31).

M. Jusserand shows that the condition of feeling among these wanderers, and the mode in which they carried on their businesses, were interwoven with the whole social condition of England; that in all the great social and religious questions of the age the part played by the wayfarers, though little known, was not insignificant. The wandering laborer breaks the fetters which for centuries had bound him to the manor. The begging friars and pardoners grow rich on the alms of the people; but by constantly addressing the masses they end by exposing themselves; by making the crowd of its own accord condemn them, they render religious reform inevitable.

"Besides, each of these strange types deserves to be taken apart and considered not only in relation to the masses, but in itself, too; for each shows very apparently in his own person a characteristic side of the tastes, the beliefs, and the aspirations of the times; through them we may examine, as it were, one by one, the souls of the people and reconstitute them entirely; just as the nature of the soil may be guessed from the flora of a country. . . . For good or evil it may be said that the wanderers acted as 'microbes' in mediæval history, a numerous, scarcely visible, powerful host" (pp. 407, 408).

Both the plan and the execution of the work deserve high praise. The range of sources used is very wide: Rolls of Parliament, Statutes of the Realm, local histories, and publications of learned societies have been critically sifted, and have yielded a rich harvest. Matters of much general importance are incidentally discussed. Many portions of the work are at once amusing and instructive. The book is adorned with many excellent illustrations; its typography and general equipment are admirable.

We have noticed very few errors. The author confuses frank-pledge with the Sheriff's tourn (pp. 113, 133): the former was only a part of the business of the latter. "Coram Rege Rolls" ought not to be identified with "Assize Rolls" (pp. 266, 267); the former contained pleas held before the King, while the latter recorded pleas held before the justices itinerant. A more correct transcript of the document concerning London Bridge (pp. 413, 414) will be found in Hardy's edition of the Rotuli Literarum Patentium (p. 9). According to the latter, "vobis" should be substituted for "nobis" (p. 414); "forisfecerit," for "foris faciat"; "Molinell" (= Molineux), for "Molmell." In connection with the subject of fraternities that maintained bridges and roads (p. 44), the "gilda de ponte" of London should have been mentioned; also, the "Corporation of the wardens and assistants of the bridge of Rochester." There were also certain gilds in Bristol and Ludlow which performed these functions. On page 84 attention should have been called to the numerous grants of "pavagium" contained in the Patent and Charter Rolls. Better or supplementary authorities for matters discussed on pages 238, 240, 246, and 267, are 'The Libell of Englishe Policye' (ed. Hertzberg), Lappenberg's 'Geschichte des Englischen Stahlhofes,' Kitchin's 'Winchester Fair,' and Andrews's 'Punishments in the Olden Time.' What is meant by the words "all the cases submitted for the decision of the justices in eyre" (p. 111), is not quite clear. Perhaps "all cases amenable to the jurisdiction of the justices in eyre" is the idea intended to be conveyed to the reader. The following passage is very obscure:

"Justice travelled not only in the King's suite. She was peripatetic in England, and *the magistrates from London* who had to bring her into the shires, as the sheriffs and bailiffs into the boroughs within their counties, periodically went around the country redressing wrongs. But grave abuses also slipped into *these institutions;* and, in spite of the precautions which had made *the men under the jurisdiction of the sheriffs and bailiffs* themselves the judges of these officials, numerous statutes one after the other had to declare some practices culpable and to stop them, for a time" (pp. 112, 113).

The words that we have italicized are obscure or ambiguous. The sheriffs and bailiffs of the King were excluded from exercising jurisdiction in the principal boroughs of England in the fourteenth century. But such obscurities and mistakes are rare in the volume before us. On the whole, the translation appears to be excellent.

An Investigation as to the Causes of the Great Fall in Prices which took place coincidently with the Demonetization of Silver by Germany. By Arthur Crump. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 198.

The main object which Mr. Crump, the author of several previous financial and economic publications, proposes in this book, is (to use his own words) "to produce a result which shall be, as near as possible, a demonstration that prices [in recent years] did not fall owing to a scarcity of gold, but that they did decline owing to other causes, which are definitely assigned as having produced the fall in each case, apart from other and more general causes which will have affected all to some extent." We fail to find much that is new in it, and Mr. Crump, although evidently understanding his subject, fails oftentimes to express himself clearly, as will, indeed, be evident from the above quotation which we make from his preface. He follows and endorses the facts and reasoning in respect to the cause of the decline of prices set forth by Mr. David A. Wells in the well-known series of papers "On Econo-

mic Disturbances," published by the latter during the past year—reprinting nearly the whole of one paper, and recommending Mr. Wells's "ordinary and simple" explanations to those economists who so persistently "invoke complex agencies," with the result that they "worry the scientific world with the everlasting sound of their fog-horns." Following also a similar law of investigation, Mr. Crump gives a very detailed commercial history of the supply and demand of *tea* as far back as 1863, as showing that, in the case of this great staple commodity, a price movement in the direction of a decline, and extending over many years, can be clearly and unmistakably explained "without searching in the currency domain for any subtile or obscure causes."

One view taken by Mr. Crump, which we have not before seen advanced, and which strikes us as not improbable, is, that had the mints of the world been open to "private coiners," or the free coinage of silver, "as was the case before the Latin Union took fright, the silver coins would probably by this time have bought less of commodities than they now do; supposing always that the general collapse of prices which we have seen had come about"; the closing of the mints having (after the manner of dams) restricted the supply of silver "from pouring into circulation."

Speaking of the influences which are influential in economizing or supplementing the use of metallic money, Mr. Crump uses this illustration:

"Confidence annihilates money. In our day, the amount of metal money required diminishes in an inverse ratio to the increase in the magnitude of the operations. The country shopkeeper will not trust the village blacksmith with a shilling's worth of nails for horseshoes unless he produces the coin. In the London Stock Exchange the aggregate operations of the fortnight, as shown by the Clearing-house returns, reaches from £150,000,000 to £200,000,000, all of which is settled without the intervention of a single gold sovereign. With the growth of the telegraph system, money in the shape of metal has been—in proportion to the growth of operations in which money plays a part—diminishing like dew before the rays of the sun."

Mr. Crump considers that the "case for bimetallism" has so completely broken down that "it is hardly worth while to discuss the schemes of its supporters"; and in this he is certainly in line with the London *Economist*, which, in its issue of November 17 last, expressed the opinion that if trade should revive in Great Britain, "bimetallism will soon die a natural death."

Letter-Book of Samuel Sewall. Vol. II. [Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. II—Sixth Series.] Boston: Published by the Society. 1888. 8vo.

THERE is very little of interest or value to the student of our colonial history in this volume of Judge Sewall's letters. They were all written in the latter and comparatively inactive part of his long life, when his mind was more intent on his private affairs, his ailments, and the theological questions of the day than with matters of public moment. We doubt whether there will be found anything of importance, even for the genealogist. Here and there, however, there are incidents related or allusions made which recall the entertaining diarist of provincial New England. In a letter dated March 2, 1714, he protests against the acting of a play in the council chamber at Boston, affirming that even the Romans, fond as they were of plays, were not "so far set upon them as to turn their Senat-House into a Play-House." "Let not Christian Boston," he concludes, "goe beyond Heathen Rome in the practice of shamefull vanities." It is possible that Gov. Francis Nicholson and his troublesome secretary, Netmaker, were at the bottom of this project, which we presume was not carried out. The incident is of interest, as being one of the earliest, if not the very first, reference to a dramatic performance in this country.

Six years later Sewall writes to the provincial agent, Jeremiah Dummer, at London, thanking him "heartily for the effectual care you took to prevent the passing the Bill that was to forbid our making of Iron. 'Twas one principal article of the forlorn Condition our Aborigines were in, that they wanted the use of Iron: And to deprive the Planters of it, would be to reduce them to the Miseries of the Iron Age." There is a very brief allusion to a scheme of the Rev. Thomas Prince for a "Lending Library" which Sewall characterizes as "inconvenient." That the old man's thoughts towards the close of his long life turned fondly back to the home of his childhood (he was born and his youth was passed in England), is shown by the memorandum of an inquiry of his London agent, "whether Nightingals would bear the Cold of our Winter, what the Cost of a Cock and Hen," and "Desired Mr. Balston to bring me over some Primrose Roots in a Box with Earth." A few months before his death, Gov. Burnet "sent Andrew to me with his Violin. I was refreshed by many of his Tunes; he plays well, yet his Tunes are too gaudy and Luscious, that the Tune doth not appear so plainly as it should. I was stricken with Horror at the Tune and Relation of the Murder of Glencove [*sic*] by Soldiers in their Quarters at Midnight in their beds, who treated their Guests kindly."

In addition to the Judge's letters, there are given a few pages of extracts from his son Samuel's "Memorandum-book," chiefly melancholy notices of deaths and funerals. There is a short introduction by the editors, calling attention to the most interesting letters in the collection, a few brief and unimportant notes, and an excellent index. In the introduction the editors suggest that another volume might be published of Sewall's letters which are not contained in his Letter-book. Unless they are far more interesting than those in these two volumes, we believe this would be unwise. A catalogue of them, with a short description of each, would answer every purpose. We are glad to learn that this plan is being carried out with the Pickering manuscripts, which are in the possession of the Society. An analytical index of them is being prepared with great skill and care, which, if it should be printed, would give greater assistance to historical students than the publication even of all the letters and documents in full, if that were possible.

The Story of Washington, the National Capital. By Charles Burr Todd. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS volume of the "Great Cities of the Republic" is divided into two parts, the Historical City and the Modern City. In the former, the author shows how the city in its situation was the result of a compromise, what were the first beginnings, what grand intentions the fathers of the city had, how the city was laid out; describes its appearance in the early days, the capture by the British, the effect of the war of the rebellion, and the city subsequent to that time, which Mr. Todd aptly terms the Renaissance. The second part is given up to a description of the various public buildings, with the officers of the Government, the churches, the schools, the Washington Monument, and the chief features of Washington journalism.

Parts of the work are singularly out of place, while other parts are by no means in proportion. How, for instance, did the "Battle of the Giants," as the author terms the anti-slavery debates in Congress, to which he gives a chapter, affect the city? The treatment of modern society is very meagre, but one page being devoted to official society, when nearly all the society the city has is official.

Several inaccuracies occur, as in the statement that the District has only fifty square miles, instead of sixty-four, or that the avenues of the city run from the chief buildings; does the author know the location of Georgia, Virginia, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island Avenues, and can he tell what building they start from? The water of the city, by some inexplicable mistake, is called pure. The Capitol is reported to be 751 feet long, or nearly one-fifth of a mile in length—a very short mile. The citizens, we are told, suffer no extortions of gas companies because of the city government; on the contrary, the citizens are subject to the demands of the gas companies, and the Commissioners are powerless before them. The city is in its government far from the Utopia which Mr. Todd calls it. The number of pupils in the High School is 500 more than is stated.

There are omissions too. A most instructive and amusing chapter could, we think, have been made from the works of noted foreign tourists in the United States, describing the appearance of the capital from epoch to epoch before the war. Mr. Todd does not hint that its shabby, dirty, and dreary condition was mainly due to the existence of slavery in the District and to the dominance of the Slave Power in national affairs. As to minor matters, when he speaks of the Soldiers' Rest, he might do as he has done with other buildings—mention that it is still in existence, and that it was once used as a factory for making canes of the wood taken from Mount Vernon. When he says that the dome of the Capitol is lighted for night sessions, he might tell the reader that when the houses are in session a flag waves over them, which on adjournment is taken down. He might give the source of Washington's statue in Statuary Hall, since he has accounted for all the others. There are numerous illustrations, one of Webster's reply to Hayne. The text says that the "Senate floor is densely crowded, and in the members' chairs are many ladies," but the corresponding cut shows the floor to be far from crowded, and no ladies are visible, except in the gallery.

The History of the Roman Republic. Abridged from the History of Professor Mommsen by C. Bryant and F. J. R. Hendy. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889. 8vo, pp. 542.

STUDENTS and teachers of Roman history, even those who possess the original work, will be glad to have in their hands the present abridgment of Mommsen's Roman History. It is not in the proper acceptation of the word an abridgment, at least as we understand that word; for an abridgment is the original work shortened by the omission of unnecessary matter, with no changes in the wording except when necessary to the connection. The work before us is a paraphrase, very skilfully made, in the language of the editors, with the rather awkward feature of an occasional sentence quoted with inverted commas from the larger work. Skilfully as the work is done, it is almost unavoidable, in a book prepared in this

way, that there should be occasionable slips, obscurities, and defects of perspective. As an illustration, we have, p. 150, Hannibal brought as far as Fæsulæ in the spring of 217, "where he encamped." Then it goes on to say that, "stung by the sight of the devastation which marked far and wide the line of Hannibal's march through Etruria, Flaminius [who was at Arretium] hastily followed, and overtook Hannibal in the District of Cortona." From this the reader, if he got any idea of the geography at all, would certainly understand that Cortona was between Arretium and Fæsulæ. Here is an omission of facts; on page 158 we find an inverted order of events, coming from the necessities of condensation, and resulting in an actual contradiction: "Capua, Nuceria, Acerræ joined him [Hannibal], . . . but the important ports of Neapolis, Cumæ, and Nuceria remained faithful to Rome"—the last named events coming properly first in order. We are glad that the editors have abandoned Mommsen's perverse practice of dating all events by the year of the city. A very welcome feature of the book, alone worth its cost, is the list of authorities appended to every chapter.

Les Bardeur-Carbansane: Histoire d'une famille pendant cent ans. La Mission de Philbert. Par Jaques Nauroze. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie. 1889. 8vo, pp. 348.

If any parent or guardian of ingenuous youth shall take up this heavy and handsome volume and lay it down again because its title faintly resembles 'Les Rougon-Macquart,' he will make a great mistake. The work of M. Nauroze suggests that of M. Zola as distantly as Monmouth suggests Macedon, and resembles it not more than chalk resembles cheese. M. Nauroze has had, in fact, the young reader especially in his mind as he wrote, and his aim in following the history of a bourgeois family through the century 1750-1850 has been to show that, in spite of all reports to the contrary, the homely virtues of the fireside have been, and are still, traditional in France. It can hardly be said that this task was so necessary as to be inevitable, and yet one may be content to note that it has been well and pleasantly done.

The story begins at the home of Guillaume Bardeur, an honorable merchant of Rouen, in his warehouse *le Vaisseau marchand.* It will evidently concern itself chiefly with the fortunes of his twin sons, Pierre and Jean, types of the artist and of the man of affairs; perhaps, also, of the Nord and of the Midi. In the book now in hand, the mission of Philbert, who is an old servant of Guillaume Bardeur, is to discover and bring back Bernard Savien, confidential clerk of the house, and betrothed of his master's daughter, whose sudden disappearance has made a vacancy in the shop which exactly concurs with a vacancy in the cash-box. Of course, Bernard is innocent, and is brought back and marries Nanine. But the search for him leads Philbert and the twins through camp and court and grove, and even to the Bastille, and brings them into the neighborhood of many illustrious persons, known and unknown to history. The court of Versailles is seen, and the cabarets of the Pont Neuf, the Place de Grève, the Louvre, the army of Soubise, the Academies and Academicians, the ateliers of Chardon and of Boule, the salon of Mme. Geoffrin.

Covering so much ground as this—and more, for the complementary story of Bernard is given, too—and being of the nature of an historical romance, the book cannot be said to have much, or any, value as a work of art; and yet it is a book pleasantly written and pleasantly instructive. It is indeed bulky, like a quartern loaf; but if this seem a fault to older palates, it will not suggest itself as such to the keen and omnivorous appetite of the young.

The English Restoration and Louis XIV., from the Peace of Westphalia to the Peace of Nimwegen. By Osmund Airy, M. A., one of H. M. Inspectors of Schools. With three maps. [Epochs of Modern History.] London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This is a genuine "Epoch" book—that is to say, it is not, like some volumes of the series, a mere chapter of English history, but aims to sketch the complicated events of the period as a whole, as they occurred in the several countries side by side. To be sure, it does not cover the entire field of history for its epoch. It is concerned wholly with western Europe in the time between the treaties of Westphalia and Nimwegen, and takes no account of that important series of events, in the east of Europe, which centred in the treaty of Oliva—a treaty as important, for those States, as that of Nimwegen was for the west. We find no fault with this. An attempt to combine the two series of events in one sketch could only have resulted in confusion and lack of unity, and the contents of the present volume form an eminently compact and united whole.

How completely this is an epoch, and not a chapter of English history, is shown by the fact that only seven chapters out of twenty-two are distinctively English chapters, although several others are partly devoted to English affairs. This is a positive merit. France and Louis XIV. formed the controlling influence in Europe at this time; Charles of England was contented to be a mere hanger-on of his cousin. The reader therefore obtains a more truthful idea of the period by noting that in it England played a wholly secondary part. From this point of view, the introductory chapter, upon the Peace of Westphalia, is of unusual excellence.

The maps possess the same merit. The first map, of Germany, shows by the use of colors the territorial changes wrought by the Peace of Westphalia. The second, of the Netherlands, exhibits clearly the acquisitions by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and especially the strategic frontier obtained by the treaty of Nimwegen—a point of view made prominent in the introductory chapter. The third illustrates the campaigns upon the upper Rhine.

The features which we have pointed out will serve to show the peculiar merit of this book. This age was the Age of Louis XIV. The treaty of Nimwegen is the central diplomatic event of this age. A book, therefore, which clearly and concisely describes the steps by which the great power of Louis was established up to the time of this treaty, places before us in small compass that group of facts which, from the point of view of general history, was the leading group of facts for the last half of the seventeenth century. We should add that the chapters devoted to English affairs are equally good, being, like the whole book, fresh and suggestive in both matter and style.

This excellent series has dragged very much of late. We do not understand why we have not yet any volume upon the Anglo-Saxon period, or upon the reign of George III., except the American and the French Revolution, in both of which English affairs are, of course, wholly neglected. Two or three additional volumes for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, from the point of view of English history—a precedence which for this period England has a full right to claim—would be very acceptable.

Ancient and Modern Lighthouses. By Major D. P. Heap, Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

Major Heap's work is made up of a series of papers which were originally published in that excellent periodical the *American Architect and Building News.* There is a peculiar fascination about a lighthouse, especially to one who approaches such a building from the sea by daylight and in calm weather, and this work will not dispel the charm. In his opening chapter Major Heap gives a very readable account of the lighthouses of the ancients and of the Middle Ages, and next passes to the history and construction of the famous Eddystone buildings, of which the present is the fourth. Passing over the interesting accounts of the Bell Rock, Skerryvore, and other buildings with submarine foundations, we come to the principal lighthouses on our own coast. We have excellent accounts, with plans and drawings, of the towers on Minot's ledge, Spectacle Reef, Tillamook Rock, and the N. W. Seal Rock. We may note that the difficulty of constructing the well-known building on Minot's ledge in Boston harbor was greater than in the cases of the Eddystone, Bell Rock, or Skerryvore towers, the present building taking the place of one destroyed by a great storm in April, 1851. Special chapters are devoted to skeleton iron lighthouses, to miscellaneous lights of all kinds, and finally to lighthouse administration. The work is agreeably written and beautifully illustrated; in fact, we may consider it as a popular scientific treatise in which an attractive subject is set forth in a very attractive manner. The accounts of the difficulties attending the erection of the various lighthouses, and of the modes in which those difficulties were overcome, are full of exciting interest. We can congratulate Major Heap on the production of a thoroughly good and permanently valuable work.

By-Ways in Bookland: Short Essays on Literary Subjects. By Wm. Davenport Adams. Lockwood & Coombes. 1889.

The pleasant series of volumes for the book-lover to which this collection of short essays belongs, quietly bound and beautifully paged, has included no more agreeable book. These essays are literary diversions—light, refined, and exacting nothing from the reader. They have no air of instruction or utility; they merely entertain. The subject, generally speaking, is minor verse of the familiar, unsentimental sort; or, if there be sentiment, it is the sentiment that smiles at itself; the verse of clever wits, of humorous confidences, always with a touch of comedy. The London Season and the Recess, Matrimony, "The Not Impossible She," The Praise of Thames, Parliamentary Eloquence, Epigrams on the Stingy, are specimen topics; and interspersed with these are essays upon such matters as the English adaptations of 'Don Quixote,' the attempts of Charles Johnson—"famous for writing a play every year and being at Button's coffee-house every day"—and of George Sand to represent *Jaques* in love, or upon the trials of reading in bed, the subscription of letters, and postscripts. In such a varied collection the substance is necessarily quotation, and the pleasure is often that of being reminded of the good things we have forgotten. It is thus that one comes on Colman's lines:

"My muse and I, ere youth and spirits fled,
Sat up together many a night, no doubt,
But now I've sent the poor old lass to bed,
Simply because my fire is going out."

That is an old favorite; but does every one know Aubrey de Vere's exquisite quatrain?

"For me no roseate garlands twine,
But wear them, dearest, in my stead;
Time has a whiter hand than thine,
And lays it on my head."

Mr. Adams's book is preëminently one of those in which the author is the unobtrusive editor, like a friend drawing from the stores of anecdote and reading, repeating an old tale at times, but not to our tedium. Unlaborious minds will enjoy it best, the likers of "a slight thing" of cleverness. Its final postscript, "a certain Mr. O. to a recent Bishop of Norwich," we have not seen printed before: "Mr. O——'s private affairs turn out so sadly that he cannot have the pleasure of waiting upon his lordship at his agreeable house on Monday next.—N. B. His wife is dead."

Foreign Visitors in England. By Edward Smith. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

Field and Hedgerow. The Last Essays of Richard Jefferies. Longmans, Green & Co.

HERE are two widely different books, yet possessing at least one point of resemblance. Mr. Smith quotes all kinds of opinions of English manners and customs from the letters and books of more or less distinguished visitors, beginning with Von Rozmital in 1466, and coming down to Voltaire in 1730, Hawthorne in 1854, and Taine in 1872. The quotations are intelligently made and are decidedly interesting. It is curious, for instance, to find that Voltaire was as much impressed with the need of an English Academy as Matthew Arnold in these later days; and in reading Mme. Bocage's unsparing criticism of the London statues in 1750, and the Abbé Le Blanc's remark about the portrait-painters of the same period—that they "practised this noble profession as the meanest trade, for money alone, without the least ambition of fame"—one is reminded of the fact that in England changes come very slowly. Referring to the lack of cheerfulness in English society, the Abbé makes the statement that "there are families of them that have never laughed for two or three generations." The latest of the foreign visitors is M. Philippe Daryl, who writes in 1884 that in the House of Lords there are scarcely thirty politicians worthy of the name; and although a good deal might be said in favor of this proposition, it arouses the ire of Mr. Smith. For although this gentleman quotes all manner of opinions with judicial impartiality, he does not hesitate to express his contempt for those visitors who have failed to appreciate whatever is distinctively English.

Here and there in these last essays of Richard Jefferies we find a similar note of satisfaction with various things in that they are English, and a certain suspicion of all things that are otherwise. Except in this one matter, the two books are very different. It is perhaps not too much to say that Richard Jefferies was as passionately in love with the glories of nature as Wordsworth himself; and yet his writings are almost entirely in prose. How much English literature has lost by his early death will never be known; but no one can read this volume, with its delicious descriptions of country sights and sounds, and its records of the slowly changing seasons, without regretting that so keen an observer and so true a poet is gone. Unfortunately he did not realize in time that his special gift was the power to see and describe such things; unfortunately, too, he was unaware of his limitations in other directions. When he takes up such questions as the balance of trade and the competition that the modern English farmer has to face, it is easy to see that he is out of his element; but it would be hard to find elsewhere such beautiful word-pictures of English country life and scenery as he gives us here. Their charm cannot be conveyed by brief extracts, so the reader must go to the book itself and rest assured that it is worth his while.

Constitutional Government in Spain. A Sketch. By J. L. M. Curry, LL.D., late Minister of the United States in Spain. Harper & Bros. 1889.

IT is an honorable tradition which demands of the American Minister to Spain some literary fruit of his residence in that country, and this little book of Dr. Curry's is only the latest instance of bowing to it. He writes with clearness and vigor, and is able to convey much of the enthusiasm with which it is evident that he himself came to the study of a new subject. A great historical or political value he himself would be the last to claim for his pages. Those whose reading will enable them to clothe his outline with the needed details, are already beyond his help, while it may be doubted if his outline is sharply enough drawn to satisfy one coming to the topic for the first time. There would always be, to be sure, the possibility of falling back on Dr. Curry's own word, and remembering the conclusion which he reaches, viz., "With all the undoubted drawbacks, the drift in Spain is not strong, not consistent, but hopefully towards constitutional principles, promoting the general good while conserving individual rights." That is undoubtedly true. The only thing like unfairness which we have noted in the book is the failure adequately to state the aims of the existing conservative party in Spain. Sagasta contributes a chapter setting forth the Liberal programme, and in it says that the Conservatives have really no policy of their own, but are simply maintaining an expectant and negative attitude. This is too partisan a statement. Cánovas would certainly not assent to it; nor would the facts bear it out. Four appendices give sketches of some of the notable Spaniards of the century, some details of Spanish legislation, and an account of our acquisition of Florida—the last reprinted from the *Magazine of American History.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dreamer of Dreams: A Modern Romance. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Angerstein—Eckler. Home Gymnastics for the Well and the Sick. Illustrated. From the eighth German edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bartlett, T. Heart Stories. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Bosanquet, B. Essays and Addresses. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.
Burgwyn, C. P. E. The Huguenot Lovers: A Tale of the Old Dominion. Richmond, Va.: The Author.
Chamberlain, N. H. The Sphinx in Aubrey Parish. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Daudet, A. Recollections of a Literary Man. Illustrated. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Desty, R. Lawyers' Reports, Annotated. Book I. All Current Cases of General Value and Importance Decided in the United States, State, and Territorial Courts, with Full Annotation. Rochester: Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co. $5.
Dexter, S. A Treatise on Coöperative Savings and Loan Associations. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Doyle, E. Moody Moments: Poems. Ketcham & Doyle.
Emerson, J. M. European Glimpses and Glances. Cassell & Co. $1.
Figuier, L. L'Année Scientifique. (32e année, 1888). Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Gould, A. A Woman of Sorek: A Narrative. American News Co. 50 cents.
Ker, Prof. J. Lectures on the History of Preaching. Introduction by Rev. Wm. M. Taylor, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Kimball, E. C. Midnight Sunbeams; or, Bits of Travel through the Land of the Norseman. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
King, F. M. A Man of the Name of John. Cassell & Co. 75 cents.
Kraszewski, I. I. The Polish Princess. George Munro.
Landon, J. S. The Constitutional History and Government of the United States. A Series of Lectures. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Lee, K. Stranger than Fiction: A Sensational Romance. Pollard & Moss.
Lee, Margaret. Divorce; or, Faithful and Unfaithful. Frank F. Lovell & Co. $1.
Letchworth, W. P. The Insane in Foreign Countries. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Lewis, I. N. Pleasant Hours in Sunny Lands, in a Tour Around the World. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Magnus, Lady. Jewish Portraits. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Rawlinson, G. The Story of Phœnicia. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Rives, Amélie. The Witness of the Sun. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Safford, Dr. O. H. Hosea Ballou: A Marvellous Life Story. Boston Universalist Publishing Co.
Serrano, Mary J. Dragon's Teeth: A Novel from the Portuguese. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
She: An Allegory of the Church. Frank F. Lovell & Co.
Sherman, C. P. A Bachelor's Wedding-Trip. Philadelphia: The Pen Publishing Co. $1.
Shut the Gate. American News Co. 50 cents.
Stickney. First, Second, Third, and Fourth Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Swift, J. The Tale of a Tub, and Other Works. Edited by Henry Morley. George Routledge & Sons. $1.
Taylor, B. Views Afoot. J. B. Alden. 50 cents.
Taylor, Dr. J. E. The Playmate Naturalist. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
The Man from the West: A Novel. Pollard & Moss. 50 cents.
Valk, F. Lectures on the Errors of Refraction, and their Correction with Glasses. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Van Voorhis, E. W. A Genealogy of the Van Voorhees Family in America: or, the Descendants of Stephen Coerte Van Voorhees of Holland and Flatlands, L. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Vescelius-Sheldon, Louise. An I. D. B. in South Africa. John W. Lovell & Co.
Vincent, J. Vaillante: Ce que Femme Veut. W. R. Jenkins.
Ward, Prof. A. W. The Counter-Reformation. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Warden, Florence. St. Cuthbert's Tower. Frank P. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Wasson, D. A. Essays, Religious, Social, Political. With a Biographical Sketch by O. B. Frothingham. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Wilberforce, R. Life of Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop of Oxford and Winchester. New ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.75.
Wilson, Adelaide, and Weymouth, Georgia. Historic and Picturesque Savannah. Boston: Photogravure Co.
Wood, J. G. Sixth Natural History Reader. Illustrated. Boston School Supply Co.
Wordsworth, W. Complete Poetical Works. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Wordsworth, W. The Recluse. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Worthy, C. Practical Heraldry, or an Epitome of English Armory. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford. $2.25.
Wortman, D. The Reliques of the Christ. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Wright, J. An Old High-German Primer. With Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Wright, Julia McNair. Nature Readers. Sea-Side and Wayside. No. 3. Illustrated. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Yeats, W. B. The Wanderings of Oisin, and Other Poems. London: Trübner & Co.

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References: Robert M. Morse, Jr., and Edward C. Perkins, Boston; James M. McLean, Pres. Man. Life Ins. Co.; Amos Cotting, New York, and the banks of Denver.

*SCHOOL BOOKS IN FOREIGN LAN*guages. Miscellaneous Books in Foreign Languages. Catalogues on application. Foreign Periodicals. CARL SCHOENHOF, Importer, 144 Tremont St., Boston.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 11, 1889.

The Week.

THE action taken by the Vermont delegation at Washington in designating by unanimous vote the persons to be appointed as Collector of Customs at Burlington, United States District Attorney, United States Marshal, Bank Examiner, and Pension Agent, leaves the President very little to do in that State. If similar action were taken by all the State delegations, the time at his disposal for public receptions and hand-shaking would be very much enlarged. It is quite true that this course was suggested by the President himself when he told Mr. Niedringhaus, M. C. from Missouri, that he would like to have the Republican Congressmen from that State get together and designate the men they wanted to have appointed as consuls and foreign ministers. However harmonious, therefore, the joint action of President and Congressmen may be, it is necessary to point out that the plan of action involves substantially an amendment of the Constitution without the formula of submission of the same either to the people or to the State Legislatures. "The President shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint," all officers, is the language of the present Constitution. "The Congressmen shall nominate, and the President shall thereupon appoint and the Senate confirm all officers," would be the language of the Constitution thus surreptitiously amended.

It should be noted, also, that this is the first time that such a practice has been reduced to form. However much yielding there may have been heretofore on the part of the Executive to Congressmen, there has been nothing like an admission by the President of a right on the part of Congressmen to make a chart of the State patronage for the President to follow. When the Pennsylvania delegation, in Mr. Hayes's term, met at the instance and request of Secretary Evarts and designated Simon Cameron for Minister to England, the President refused to send his name in. When, a few days later, the Illinois delegation, at the like instance and request, met and designated Col. Ingersoll for Minister to Berlin, the Secretary himself refused to send the name to the President. It is quite probable that the present Ohio delegation would have voted unanimously for Mr. Halstead as Minister to Germany; and as this corresponded with the President's inclinations, the name would have gone to the Senate and would have been rejected, and thus the surreptitiously amended Constitution would have been broken at the start. We think that the present Constitution should be followed and obeyed in letter and spirit until it is amended in the way provided in the instrument itself. If it is inconvenient for the President to perform his constitutional duty of selecting ministers and all public officers, owing to the magnitude of the undertaking, the reform should be in the direction of an improved civil service, limiting the number of changes to be made to those which have a clear relation to and bearing upon the political side of the Government as distinguished from the administrative.

The editor of the *Iowa State Register* is Mr. J. S. Clarkson, who is not "on deck," however, at present, being entirely engrossed, as Assistant Postmaster-General, in redeeming the civil-service reform pledge of the last Republican National Convention by turning out efficient postmasters at the rate of hundreds a day, simply because they are Democrats and their places are wanted by hungry Republicans. Mr. Clarkson will probably read with some surprise a leading editorial article in his paper of Saturday last on the New York appointments, wherein appears this remarkable passage: "Mr. Van Cott, who was appointed Postmaster at New York to succeed Mr. Pearson, whose term had expired, *is said to have been connected with the Post-office for many years. His promotion, therefore, is in the line of true civil-service reform.*" This extraordinary blunder puts in its true light the disgraceful character of the change in the Postmastership. If for any good reason Mr. Pearson were to be removed, "the line of true civil-service reform," as the *Register* correctly says, required the promotion of some good and efficient subordinate, who had been "connected with the Post-office for many years," instead of bringing in from outside a spoilsman who had no experience whatever. No severer condemnation of President Harrison's act could be pronounced than was uttered by the *Iowa State Register* when it pointed out what his pledge to advance the cause of civil-service reform required of him in the matter of the New York Post-office, if for any reason he were not prepared to reappoint Mr. Pearson.

Considering that it is edited by an Extraordinary Envoy and professional diplomatist, the *Tribune's* treatment of Mr. Van Cott's appointment is very clumsy. It says in its local columns that, in appointing Mr. Van Cott, the President had "selected a Republican of whose party loyalty there could be no doubt;" that "Mr. Van Cott has been an active worker in behalf of the party in this city for over thirty years, has kept his district in line, and never failed to have it support the party ticket faithfully at the polls. In describing the effect of the news in the Post-office, it says it "created consternation among some of the employees of the Post-office who have been outspoken Democrats during the last four years, for Mr. Van Cott is known by them to be an ardent Republican." This same view is maintained by the Minister to France in the editorial columns, for it is there said that "Mr. Van Cott has been an energetic Republican politician all his life," that the President "has selected from among the leaders of his party an active politician, who is also a man of character and capacity," and that "party organization cannot be maintained by ignoring party leaders." So far all is straightforward admission that the new Postmaster is appointed in order to put the Post-office back into politics; and if the Ministerial Editor had stopped there, he would have shown the courage of his convictions, would have avoided all appearance of a disposition to "pander a little to the moral sense of the community," and would not have committed the diplomatic blunder of giving an excuse for what he had thus far argued to be a laudable action. But he went on and added: "It is a fact that the New York Post-office has declined in efficiency since 1885, and has not for years been in so unsatisfactory a condition as during the year 1888." In addition to being a grave diplomatic blunder, this is a bald untruth, which will be recognized as such on sight by every man who reads it.

New York is obviously entering upon the most remarkable "spoils" era in its history. On the Republican side the President, in cordial alliance with "Tom" Platt, is making arrangements to turn over all the Federal offices and patronage to the "Boys" for the purpose of building up a Republican Machine which shall carry everything before it. The scheme includes the building of a grand Republican hall, as a rival for Tammany Hall, and for this all the good business Republicans, like the famous John F. Plummer, are contributing generously of the money which they make out of the high tariff. This hall will give the reorganized and multiplied Boys a headquarters worthy of their Machine and its purposes; and the Post-office, Custom-house, and other branches of the Federal service are expected to furnish thousands of workers with good "places" and the means of subsistence. On the Democratic side, Mayor Grant, as the representative of Tammany Hall, is working hand in hand with Gov. Hill to strengthen and extend the power of Tammany by using the city and State patronage in every possible way for Tammany's benefit. The Mayor's unrestricted power of appointment will give him unprecedented opportunities in this direction, and we shall be able to see how he is going to use them when he makes his first batch of appointments on May 1. If the Legislature shall pass his Rapid-Transit Bill in the form in which he and the Governor desire—that is, giving him the power to select all the Commissioners, and thus virtually control the matter—he will secure a plum of patronage which will be of enormous value.

It will be interesting to watch the effect upon public sentiment here of these two

onslaughts for "spoils." The leaders in both movements have not the slightest concern for the public interests or the public rights. They are all seeking the same object—that is, the building up of a machine which shall be powerful enough to control the vote of this State in the next Presidential election. "Tom" Platt has obviously convinced the President that, if he will allow him to distribute the New York patronage among the "Boys," he can build up an organization here which will make New York a Republican State in 1892. Now, as a matter of fact, New York cannot be made a Republican State without Democratic treachery; and that kind of aid will not be forthcoming in 1892 if Gov. Hill succeeds in his plans for constructing, with Tammany aid, a Democratic Machine which will nominate him for the Presidency. If he is himself a candidate, he will not consent to "trade off" his ticket in the interest of the Republican candidate. In other words, if both of these "spoils" schemes are carried out, there will not be a Hill and Harrison combination in 1892, but Hill and Harrison will be running against each other—one with all the city and State patronage behind him, and the other with all the Federal patronage behind him. But 1892 is a long way off yet, and before it arrives the prostitution of public trust involved in the double experiment may arouse an indignation which will seriously interfere with both plans. But that both plans are about to be put in operation, there can no longer be any reasonable doubt.

The latest news from Rhode Island shows that nothing except the State's constitutional requirement that a majority over all is necessary to elect any candidate to office, has saved the Republicans from defeat. If, as in all but a very few other States, a plurality had been sufficient to elect, the Democrats would now be shouting over a "great victory in Rhode Island," for their candidate for Governor has a plurality of 4,398. They have elected one of their candidates, that for Attorney-General, and their candidate for Governor is within a few hundred votes of a majority over all his three competitors. The Legislature is Republican by some dozen votes on joint ballot, but the House is Democratic. A year ago the Republicans elected their entire State ticket by about 2,000 majority over all, and secured 91 out of the 109 members of the Legislature; the Democrats having only 17 members and the Prohibitionists 1. The drop from a majority of seventy-three to a meagre if not bare majority is very significant. Like the vote on the State ticket, it indicates that something like a reaction is in progress in the State. Harrison's majority in it in November was over 3,000, and his plurality over 4,000.

The one striking feature of the recent municipal elections throughout the West is the great amount of independent voting. The party organs were sure after the Presidential election that the Mugwump was at last dead and buried, and that there would never be any more trouble from that objectionable personage. But here he is again, "alive and kicking"—smashing a Republican machine here, ousting a Democratic ring there, going in for the best men everywhere, without any regard to party labels.

In an interview in a morning paper, Mr. John A. Kasson, one of our Commissioners to the Berlin Conference on Samoan affairs, says that it is not to be supposed that Prince Bismarck will object to Mr. Bates as one of the American conferees merely because he wrote a magazine article saying that the German Government had lied to us, and that her sailors tore down our flag and trampled on it, and that no conference ought to be held until Germany had offered fruits meet for repentance, which she has not yet done. All such sayings, in Mr. Kasson's opinion, will be overlooked by a man of broad views like Bismarck. On this point we differ altogether from Mr. Kasson, but our concern is more with our own Government and our own standing among nations than with the Bismarckian frame of mind. How Mr. Bates can consent to go as a Commissioner after publishing the article is a mystery. How our Government can let him go after being made acquainted with the article, is a greater one. But greatest of all is the mystery of his appointment in the first place if our Government knew beforehand that the article had been written and would be in Berlin before the Conference could assemble. We assumed, when the article first appeared, that the appointment must have been made in ignorance of it. We are now informed that Mr. Blaine was made acquainted with the article beforehand. If this is the fact (and the retention of Mr. Bates as a Commissioner certainly points that way), the conclusion is plain that Mr. Blaine wants to widen the breach with Germany and not to close it. The refusal of Germany to receive Mr. Bates must have been anticipated and prepared for. Bismarck is not a man of meekness, but, well seated as he is, we do not believe that he could hold his place at home if he should consent to treat with a person who had said what Mr. Bates said of the German Government and sailors in the *Century* article. Another piece of news which has reached us, but upon less authentic information, is that another article by Mr. Bates on the same subject and in the same tone is to appear in the May *Century;* and that this, too, has been known all along to the Department of State.

A rather late-coming speech, but one that deserves commendation, is that of Congressman Butterworth of Ohio, on the anti-social and uncivilizing tendencies of trades unions which resist the use of labor-saving machinery. The speech was made on the item in the Sundry Civil Bill relating to the use of steam-plate presses in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. The Senate and House disagreed as to the use of steam-plate presses, the former body passing the appropriation for their use, and the latter, being "nearer to the people," rejecting it. The upshot was, that the House consented to the use of the steam presses, provided that no payment should be made to the patentees of the machines, or only a nominal sum. Thus the Senate carried its point in appearance, and the House carried its point in fact. Mr. Butterworth's speech is published in the *Congressional Record* of April 2. It first goes over the grounds of the controversy, showing that the opponents of the steam presses were completely baffled by the tests made to show the character of the work done by the presses. "The experts," he said, "who were called by the organization which is seeking to have these presses thrown out, having placed before them a number of bills, a part of which were printed by the steam presses and a part by the hand presses—that part of each bill by an inspection of which they would be enabled to tell whether it was printed by hand press or by the steam plate-press being concealed, and the expert interrogated as to which was the better work—three times out of four selected the bill printed by the steam plate-press as being the better work, as it doubtless was." It was shown, moreover, that there are not hand-plate printers enough in the United States to do all the work, and that steam presses are an absolute necessity in private establishments if not in the Government offices. "The throwing out of the steam presses from the Bureau is, therefore, equivalent to creating a privileged class of workmen in the Government employ." Mr. Butterworth then enlarged his theme to take in Mr. Powderly and the Knights of Labor, and the practice of boycotting and driving non-union men out of employment, and gave the whole lot of anti-social and uncivilizing agencies a well-deserved lashing. It required no little courage to make such a speech.

It is necessary to point out that the smuggling in which the firm of Allard & Sons are implicated has nothing to do with undervaluations, or appraisements, or "sugar frauds," or tobacco frauds. It is simply a case of deception in the packing and transportation of goods, the same in kind as the smuggling of opium across the Manitoba frontier a little while ago. A good sleight-of-hand performer can deceive the most watchful persons by mechanical contrivances that nobody anticipates or suspects. Thus a valuable picture can be concealed between a mirror and its backing, and rich tapestry can be stuffed into the upholstery of a chair or sofa, just as a lot of opium can be conveyed in the interior of a single pumpkin in a farmer's load. The smuggler takes his risk, and, if he is caught, he must pay the penalty. It is safe to say that such smuggling goes on all the time, more or less, at all ports and in all countries which collect duties on articles containing much value in small bulk, whether the duties be levied for protection or for revenue only. The only way to insure perfect honesty in the importation of such articles is to repeal the duties. Of course, those who violate the law must be punished; but since it is the aim of the law to pre-

vent rather than to punish, it would seem to be the part of statesmanship to take away the motives and incentives to smuggling as far as the needs of public revenue will justify, and to put on the free list such articles as diamonds, laces, tapestry, pictures, and similar articles which most easily evade the customs laws. These things generally do not compete with domestic industry. The duties are therefore not protective, and they are not now needed for revenue. It should be mentioned that the purchasers of the goods from Allard & Sons paid the full price of duty-paid articles, and are entirely guiltless. But the law gives the Government a claim on the goods wherever found. They may, therefore, be compelled to pay the amount of the duties a second time, in which case they will have been swindled just as they might be by a counterfeiter or a confidence game.

Few decisions will have a wider influence for good on railroad investments than that of the Chancellor of Alabama in the case of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad. The East Tennessee, Virginia and Georgia Railroad, having acquired a controlling interest in the stock of that road, is charged with operating it in the interest of the owners of the majority of the stock, so that the minority of the stockholders are deprived of the advantages of its situation in obtaining traffic with all roads with which it connects. The object of the purchase by a railroad of the majority of the stock of another is to operate the latter as a feeder to itself. It is fully indemnified for any loss its investment suffers in the decreased earnings of the purchased railroad, by the destruction of competition with other roads, and by the *long haul*, over its own system, of whatever traffic is received from the road operated not with a view to the development of its proper traffic, but of that of the roads of its principal stockholder. The loss falls on the individual stockholders, the benefit inures to the railroad holding the majority of the stock. This the court refuses to sanction, and practically disfranchises the stock held by the controlling railroad as a voting power in the management, and places the control of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad in the hands of its individual stockholders, who hold it for the purpose of investment.

The following words, quoted from the *Times* of March 28, explain the grounds of the decision :

"If a corporation can purchase any portion of the capital stock of another corporation, it can purchase the whole, and invest all its funds in that way, and thus be enabled to engage exclusively in a business foreign to the purposes for which it was created. A corporation may without express authority acquire shares in another corporation in payment of or as security for a claim which is in danger of being lost through the insolvency of the debtor corporation, and, having acquired the stock, it may collect the dividends, but it is not authorized to vote upon the stock. The directors of a corporation have no right under any circumstances to purchase shares in the company with the company's money for the purpose of controlling the election of officers."

It must be remembered that whatever be the relation of a corporation to the State, stockholders as between themselves are joint owners in a joint enterprise, with only this difference between such associations and unincorporated ones—that it is part of the agreement that a majority in interest, and not of the number of the associates, has the sole government of the corporation. The power thus given to the majority in interest is abused by the railroads so as to deprive their individual co-owners, not only of any voice in the management, but of reaping the fruits of the joint enterprise, which is managed in the interest of the one principal stockholder. The private investor may use and exercise whatever judgment he possesses as to the natural advantages of the railroad in which he places his money; his foresight goes for nothing when the interest of another corporation requires the acquisition of the majority of the stock for its own purposes alone. Such purchases of the majority of the stock by railroads not only have effaced every principle of public law as to the scope of the corporate powers of public companies, but have invaded the domain of private ownership and rights.

The report of the State Comptroller gives the taxpayers of the State another opportunity to see what the course of the Legislature on the prison-labor question costs them. The deficiency in the prison department during the past six months is over $192,000, and indicates a deficiency for the year of $400,000. This is the price which the State pays for an annual failure of the Legislature to do its duty; or, to put it in another way, it costs the State $400,000 a year to allow its legislators to get on their knees to the professional labor agitators. Until this annual neglect began, the prisons were self-sustaining, even paying a surplus into the treasury, and the convicts were well disciplined and in better physical and moral condition than they had ever been in the State. Now there is not only this enormous deficiency, but the prolonged idleness of the convicts is having the inevitable results. The prisons are overcrowded, the convicts have to be kept in their cells, many of them becoming insane in consequence, and all of them suffering physically and morally to a deplorable degree. In the past six months thirty-seven convicts have been sent to the State Insane Asylum, an increase of twenty-two cases over the same period of last year. There are now more convicts in the State prisons than ever before, not through any increase in crime, but because the county authorities, who formerly sent convicts to the penitentiaries, finding that they are forbidden to keep them at work and must support them at the county expense, have thrown them upon the support of the State.

Jacksonville, Fla., has just afforded a fresh illustration of the fact that color prejudice is not a matter of sections or parties. Two or three of the leading hotels in that city are owned and conducted by Northern Republicans, and their patrons during the winter season are almost entirely from the North, and, of course, largely Republicans. Frederick Douglass recently visited Jacksonville, and a delegation of colored clergymen called on the Directors of the Sub-Tropical Exposition to ask that during his stay he be quartered at one of the first-class hotels. The directors, of course, had no control of the hotels, but suggested application to such as are run by Northern Republicans. The application was made, but it proved impossible to secure quarters in any one of them for the best-known colored man in the United States. The race question as thus presented was simply a matter of business, and the Northern managers of Jacksonville hotels filled with Northern guests refuse to admit a negro for the same reason that the managers of theatres in Brooklyn, "The City of Churches," to this day refuse a negro admission to any other part of the house except the upper gallery—because they think that any other course would hurt their business.

Now and then we perceive a feeble movement of bimetallism in some part of the world. The latest, and one of the feeblest, was an attempt in the German Reichstag to secure a pledge from the Government to the effect that if England would take the lead in restoring the double standard, Germany would join her. The Government nipped this project in the bud by refusing to entertain it at all, and at the same time expressed its entire satisfaction with the present gold standard.

The flight of Gen. Boulanger to Brussels to avoid trial on charges of treason, or treasonable plots, before the Senate, makes the political crisis in France a little more picturesque, but it is very difficult to say what it means. The suggestion that the Government has found damaging evidence against him among the papers, recently seized, of the Patrictic League may have some foundation, but it is not likely. His belief that the Senate would convict him on any charge is a much more probable and justifiable excuse for his flight. If he were convicted and sentenced to a long term of imprisonment, it would injure him seriously by removing him from the political arena during the canvass for the general election, and disqualify him for a seat in the Chamber. This of itself is reason enough for running away. What effect his flight will have on the French popular mind, too, it is hard to guess at this distance. Its fluctuations about Boulanger have been inscrutable. His lies about the Duc d'Aumale were expected to ruin him; so was his unlucky duel with M. Floquet; but he has come up smiling after both. During the war of 1870, M. de Mazade claimed for France, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, a continuance of the "glorieux privilège d'étonner le monde," and she seems as ready to use it about Boulanger as about other things.

THE NEW YORK POST-OFFICE.

We do not believe the business men of this city are aware what the restoration of the New York Post-office to the Republican "Boys" means, because the older men have forgotten, and the younger ones never knew, what it was sixteen years ago, when it was taken out of politics and made a business establishment.

In 1873 President Grant appointed Mr. Thomas L. James to the Postmastership. He had previously been Assistant Postmaster, and his accession to the highest place practically put an end to the old régime, under which the Post-office, like the Custom-house and Navy-yard, was treated as a place of refuge for ward "workers," in which they sorted letters at their leisure. In those days, the days of Isaac V. Fowler and "Pat" Jones, the Postmaster was no more expected to devote his time to the administration of his office than to the teaching of school. He was "in and out" during the day, but when in was almost exclusively occupied with "politics." To him the district captains sent their complaints against clerks or carriers or sorters who were lax or inefficient in their work at the primaries, and their demands for places for more energetic "heelers" who needed salaries while attending to their party duties. About the despatch of letters and newspapers, he concerned himself but little, and could not have concerned himself to any purpose. His knowledge of the Post-office machinery was slight, and the business of the Post-office was comparatively small. When letters were lost, or miscarried, there was not much use in complaining, because, even if the fault could be traced to any particular person, it probably could be easily shown that, even if he was a bad sorter or drunken clerk, he was a very valuable political worker. The delivery system, too, was unimportant and few people relied on it. Business men had their boxes, as in country towns, and sent for their own letters, and their friends and families living up town had their correspondence addressed to their care. A defalcation on the part of the Postmaster was not uncommon, and when discovered was passed over lightly. The culprit ran away or hid for a while, and his bondsmen, of course, made the loss good. Everything was done on an old-fashioned, good-natured basis. If the letters came to hand, well and good. If they were lost, they were lost in a world of accidents, and it was un-American to grumble over trifles.

When the new Post-office was built and Mr. James was appointed, we began for the first time to have a modern post-office, and to enjoy the latest appliances in the letter-carrying art. "Pat" Jones, who retired in 1873, was the last of the old school. Mr. James introduced modern methods. He gradually cleared out the Boys, got rid of the privileged drunkards, and established discipline and order. When he retired in 1881, he left us a model public office. Mr. Pearson, the assistant who succeeded him in 1881, has maintained his traditions and improved on his methods. The New York Post-office is now one of the institutions of which the country may be proud. The best English, German, and French post-office experts may learn something by inspecting it. It ministers to the comfort and convenience and business of the people of this city with extraordinary efficiency, considering that it has to contend with something unknown in any other civilized capital—powerful opposition to the conduct of Government offices on business principles. That is to say, there is among us, incredible as it may seem to foreigners, a very large and influential body of persons who are bitterly hostile to having the Postmaster appointed solely with reference to the careful and efficient handling of mail matter. With this every postmaster in this city has to contend, and will have to contend for a good while to come. Mr. Pearson, the late Postmaster, suffered severely from it. It prevented his receiving the proper support of his superiors under President Cleveland's Administration, and kept on foot constantly during the past four years movements for his overthrow, and for the promotion of a spirit of criticism and insubordination among his inferior officials.

This body has made an energetic and successful attempt to oust Mr. Pearson, not for the purpose of putting in his place another post-office official, if such could be found, of greater experience or higher skill, but for the purpose of giving the New York Post-office back to the same class of men who managed it fifteen years ago under "Pat" Jones, and this in spite of the following pledge in Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance :

> "In appointments to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. Only the interests of the public service should suggest removals from office."

The person who has got the place is Mr. Cornelius Van Cott, one of the old Republican Boys, brought here by Mr. Arthur in 1873, when he established his Republican Machine. He is a Republican Boy, belonging to the same category as "Jake" Hess, "Barney" Biglin, "Steve" French and the rest. We mean nothing derogatory to his personal character when we say that he has lived by offices of one sort or another since Arthur made him an Inspector of Customs, and has filled them all as a politician and not as a business man. Of post-offices we presume he rarely thinks except as places partly in the gift of the Postmaster-General and partly of the President, through which documents may be distributed in campaigns. That they should be conducted on business principles by non-political clerks we presume he considers a silly Mugwump dream. We are thus minute in describing him because we think a description of him gives a good idea of the sort of danger to which the Post-office is exposed.

No adequate notion of this danger can be formed without considering the enormous growth of the Post-office business under the régime established by Mr. James and perpetuated by Mr. Pearson. To go back only ten years to 1879, the increase is striking.

Number of pouches and sacks of mail matter received from and despatched to other post-offices in 1879	1,294,615
Ditto in 1888	3,741,218
Increase	2,446,603
Letters, papers, etc., delivered and collected by letter-carriers in 1879	224,589,132
Ditto in 1888	355,672,049
Increase	131,082,917
Amount of money-order business 1879	$43,652,273
Amount of money-order business 1888	85,057,565
Increase	$41,405,292
Registered letters and packages received and delivered, 1878*	1,924,884
Registered letters and packages received and delivered, 1888	6,457,235
Increase	4,532,351
Total receipts, 1879	$3,235,675
Total receipts, 1888	5,162,972
Increase	$1,927,297
Receipts over expenditures, 1879	$2,033,421
Receipts over expenditures, 1888	3,271,138
Increase net revenue	$1,237,717

We ask every inhabitant of the city who owes to the Post-office either domestic peace and comfort, or business security and prosperity, to remember, in view of these figures, that it is not the old Post-office of 1873 which the President gives back to the Boys, but an immensely enlarged and greatly improved and vastly more important institution, which is one of the glories of the city, and which it is scandalous now to surrender to the party bosses.

Mr. Van Cott, the new Postmaster, is reported in the *Tribune* of Sunday as saying, apropos of his management of the Post-office, "There will be no attempt to evade any law, neither shall it be forgotten that this is a Republican Administration." This little reservation is exactly like that of President Harrison's new Postmaster at Indianapolis, who said he would "obey the Civil-Service Law as far as possible." Mr. Van Cott's determination to remember "that this is a Republican Administration" must mean, and can only mean, that when he is making appointments he will give the preference to Republicans because they are Republicans, which is exactly what Postmaster Wallace meant when he said he would "obey the law as far as possible." But Mr. Van Cott, in making this reservation, overlooked the fact that the law prohibits his remembering, in his management of the Post office, that "this is a Republican Administration." It in fact makes it his sworn duty to forget it. Rule 8 forbids "the expression or disclosure," "in any examination or proceeding by or under the Commission or Examiners, of any political or religious opinion or affiliation, and any discrimination by reason thereof if known"; and the Commission and examiners are required to "discountenance" all such disclosures by the applicants themselves even, or "by any one whose name is on any register awaiting appointment." And the third section of the statute directs that the rules shall provide that "no person in the service has any right to use his official authority or influence to coerce the political action of any person or body." If, therefore, Mr. Van Cott so far remembers that "this is a Republican Administration" as to find out the political opinions of candidates in order to give Republicans the preference, he will violate the law. He will also violate the law if he dismisses, or threatens to dismiss, any employee, or refuses

* Figures for 1879 are not now accessible.

him promotion, on account of his political opinions. But that he will try to do so, that he will endeavor to evade and nullify the law in all ways which will not expose him to immediate criticism or condemnation, we have very little doubt.

The reason we think so is this: Mr. Van Cott is over fifty years old—an age at which men do not change their habits or take in new ideas. He not only has been trained in the spoils system, but has lived by it during his whole manhood. He has held various offices, but for not one of them has he been selected on account of his fitness, using that term in its business sense. He has probably pushed scores of men for office, but not one has he ever pushed on account of his fitness. He has got all the offices he has ever held because of his activity and success in doing some other and totally different kind of work —namely, political "work"; which is very much as if a man should be made a teacher of mathematics because of his success as a writer of lampoons, or should be employed as a cook because of success as a dish-washer or oyster-opener. He has urged the claims of many friends to places in the public service, but we venture to say he has never supported one on the simple ground that he had the special capacity and training which the place called for. All his own experience of life leads him to regard salaried Government offices as existing mainly to reward the political activity of political partisans, and, secondarily only, to do the work of administration for the benefit of the taxpayers at large.

The Civil-Service Law he doubtless considers, in agreement with nearly all men of his class, as a concession unnecessarily and unwisely made to the Mugwumps in 1883, on a false estimate of their strength and importance, and not taken seriously by practical politicians of either party, and, therefore, one which may now be properly disregarded and evaded to a limited extent. He is perfectly justified in regarding his appointment as an indication that President Harrison shares this view. For of course no lawyer or business man who did not share it, would think of charging with the duty of seeing that none but fit men got into a large public office, a man whose own career was a signal illustration of the needlessness of fitness, and who therefore might reasonably be expected to feel a contempt for it proportioned to his own success in getting on without it.

Considering that it was the Republican party which first took this great office out of politics—that is, out of waste, inefficiency, and fraud; that it was the Republican party which took a successful New York Postmaster, Mr. James, and, after eight years' trial of him, made him Postmaster-General — that is, head of all the post-offices; considering that it was the Republican party which then, before any Civil-Service Law was passed, took Mr. James's first assistant, and, on account of his eminent fitness and experience, put him in Mr. James's place; considering that when the Democrats came into power, and the hounds of faction made another desperate effort to get hold of the office again, Mr. Cleveland, at Mugwump solicitation, and in spite of "charges" against Mr. Pearson, kept him in his place, on the simple ground that no man in the country could fill it so well—considering all these things, it must be admitted that this appointment of Van Cott is the most deliberate and conspicuous exhibition of disregard for efficiency in the public service to which the public has been treated since the war; and it comes from a President who has been supposed in a peculiar degree to meet his official obligations under the most solemn of all sanctions.

RAILROAD MORTGAGES AND PRIOR LIENS.

THAT a railroad mortgage is not in every respect an absolutely first lien upon the property, has been long conceded. Taxes, for example, must be paid. Risk of forfeiture of the franchise from acts done contrary to its provisions is necessarily one which bond-holders must assume. In addition to these, early arose other claims for which priority over the mortgage was demanded. In the sixties, as our railroad system began to approach its present importance, and the possibilities of floating large funded debts became apparent, with the consequent great gains for the shrewd railroad organizer or dishonest speculator, the system of the appointment of receivers of bankrupt railroads by the courts was entered upon. New and complicated questions arose. Railroads burdened with mortgages far too heavy for the traffic to carry were brought one by one into court, with the request that the differences between income and fixed charges should be adjusted there. This sometimes required years of effort, and meanwhile two courses were open: one to proceed as in the case of a bankrupt merchant—stop the business and sell out the assets as speedily as possible; the other, to continue to operate the road pending the adjustment. Duty to the public, whose interest in these public highways is second only to that of the owners, would of itself lead to the adoption of the second plan. But operation means expense and machinery under the governance of the court for carrying it on. Hence the appointment by the court of receivers who should manage the property and issue certificates from time to time for the payment of expenses. These certificates issued under the orders of the court took precedence of the mortgages as claims upon the property, and were paid at foreclosure as part of the expenses of the court.

This common-sense view of the matter has legal authority. A mortgagee in possession may lawfully expend upon the property such sums as are necessary to preserve it. The early decisions nearly all give this as the reason for the validity of receivers' certificates. Later cases, however, seem to cover much more than the conservation of the property. Little by little—in practice if not in theory—we find expenditures easily passed which a strict construction of the original rule would not have allowed, until the popular meaning of a receiver has come to be one who, as an officer of the court in possession of the disputed railway, shall operate the same exactly as though he were the real owner, the court generally leaving the entire management in his hands. In Beach on Receivers this process is traced and set forth in condensed form.

But we have gone a step beyond this. Of several cases which might be mentioned, the most recent is the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company vs. the Cincinnati, Washington and Baltimore Railroad, tried in the Superior Court of Cincinnati. This was an action to foreclose the mortgages, at which the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad asked that its claim for $1,220,397.62 be made a lien upon the property prior to the Trust Co.'s mortgage. This was granted by the court. The C., W. and B. R. R. was reorganized in 1883, and since then interest upon the mortgages amounting to nearly $700,000 yearly has been paid. It was soon discovered that the traffic would not support such interest charges; these, however, were regularly paid and the shortage was carried in the following manner: An understanding was had with the B. and O. "in pursuance of which the officers of the C., W. and B. (one of which was also an officer of the B. and O.) from time to time purchased materials and supplies necessary for the operation of the road, the bills for which were paid with funds of the B. and O., and an assignment taken from the holder to B. and O." Upon these claims judgment was obtained by the B. and O. against the C., W. and B. in 1888. Nothing about this transaction was concealed, for the amounts of these claims for materials furnished were regularly given in the annual reports; in the general balance for December 31, 1887, for example, there is a credit item of $1,067,716.17 supplies furnished by B. and O.

The decision of the Court making this claim a lien prior to the mortgages, is based upon the laws of Ohio, section 3398 of Revised Statutes reading as follows: "The lien of mortgage and deeds of trust, authorized to be made by the preceding section, shall be postponed to the lien of judgments recovered against the company after its reorganization for labor thereafter performed for it, or materials or supplies thereafter furnished to it, or for damages, losses, or injuries suffered or sustained by the misconduct of its agents, or in any action founded on its contracts or liability as a common carrier thereafter made or incurred." This broad language as to materials or supplies furnished was broadly construed by the Court, contrary to some of the earlier decisions in cases of receivers' certificates, which insisted upon strict construction of all authority granted for their issue. It is clear that the moneys owed to the Baltimore and Ohio were really expended in the payment of interest to the bondholders. "The equity is much stronger," says the Court, "in cases like the present, where the earnings of the road for and during the time when the supplies were being furnished were applied to the payment of interest on the loans with which it conflicts."

This liberal statute of Ohio, and the Judge's language construing it, mark an important advance over the position of the earlier courts, which cautiously admitted the claims of receivers' certificates to be prior to mortgages. The principle thus pronounced of granting priority to claims for materials and supplies is a far-reaching one. In the first place, in the C., W. & B. case, under the terms of the statute, no question seems to have been raised or examination made as to these materials, whether they were such as were really essential to the operation of the road or not. It was taken for granted that they were such as would be bought under ordinary circumstances—which might be for betterments and improvements as well as not. English investors recognized this point some time ago, for in the (London) *Law Quarterly Review* for July, 1888, is an elaborate article upon railway mortgages in the United States, in which the limitations of receivers' debts are set forth and thoroughly insisted upon. Nothing is clearer than the fact that the admittance of priority over mortgages on the part of any other claim is an impairment of a contract, which is expressly forbidden by the Constitution of the United States. And yet, as we have seen, certain things like taxes do have such precedence. Hence follow the general rulings of the courts that receivers' certificates, when issued strictly for the preservation of the property and for the best interests of the bondholders, shall also have such priority. But where shall we define this limit? This is the all-important question. If we follow the older theories strictly, there is ground for thinking that the quoted statute of Ohio, with others like it, is unconstitutional, and will be so decided by the Supreme Court when a case involving that question comes before it.

The mortgages of railroads constitute the greater part of all the investments offered to the public, and the question of their absolute safety is most important. Out of four billions of dollars (our present railroad bonded debt), about one-quarter has suffered impairment or loss through foreclosure and reorganization during the last dozen years. This, indeed, is not as it should be, for the funded debt of a railroad should represent pretty accurately the minimum value of the property, and thus be beyond any ordinary loss, leaving the speculative fluctuating value to be represented by the stock. But the fact that a quarter of our mortgages has been in danger emphasizes still more the need of asserting the title and right to the property covered. If any and all expenditures can come before a mortgage, it only remains for unscrupulous men to take advantage of supplies furnished and betterments made, to obtain judgments, thus, as Beach well says, "improving the bondholders out of their property."

SPANISH-AMERICAN COMMERCE.

THERE were more glimmerings of sense in the speeches at the formation of the new Spanish-American Commercial Union of this city than we remember to have encountered in recent discussions of the South American trade. It is something to have got the square admission that the larger part of the firms who have attempted to secure a share of that trade have pursued methods which are wretchedly unbusinesslike and inefficient. This admission was distinctly made by Mr. Hughes of the Ward Line of steamships, and is amply borne out by consular reports and the testimony taken by the South American Commission of 1885. American merchants have shown the most fatuous disregard of the elementary principles of successful trade with Spanish-America; they have not consulted established tastes, have shipped goods either too poor or too good, badly packed, improperly invoiced, wrongly consigned, have selected incompetent agents, have given their "exclusive" trade to several houses in the same city, have refused to conform to the settled terms of credit and discount, have dealt with South American purchasers in the most lofty and contemptuous fashion, and then have gone about declaring that it is a shame the Government doesn't do something to enable them to make profits.

After the emphatic remarks of Mr. Hughes upon this part of his subject, it is disheartening to find him arguing in the same breath that nothing can be done without subsidized steamers. Perhaps he did that to avoid the charge of disloyalty to the interests of his steamship company. The thing one would have expected to hear him say is that if what stands in the way of our South American trade is the stupidity of American shippers, the trade would come as soon as they used the proper means to develop it. We have Mr. Hughes's own word for it that the trouble is not in the rates of freight; in an address given on another occasion he very correctly stated that the British tramp steamers would attend to that, and that one of them would appear wherever there was a profitable cargo. Would he simply give American merchants the chance to ship their unsalable goods a little oftener than they now can? "We don't need free trade to capture South American commerce," says Mr. Hughes. "All we need is reciprocity treaties admitting to our ports the raw materials of South America, and securing in return the free admission of our manufactures." This means free wool, if it means anything, but Mr. Hughes naturally did not want to blurt that out so soon after the last election.

This whole scheme of entrapping the South American republics into some sort of reciprocity treaty which they have no earthly reason for desiring, is particularly absurd after the flat failure of the Commission of 1885 to work any game of that sort. They were particularly instructed by Secretary Frelinghuysen to get a reciprocity treaty in every case possible, and they did not get within sight of a single one. Let any one read the account of their reception in Chili by the President of that country, and the remarks made upon their simple-minded efforts by the Chilian press, and he will not wish to have the United States get another repulse of that sort. The President "said it was out of no want of respect for the United States, for whom he and his people held the highest esteem, but it was his settled belief that all treaties were needless; that they subserved no valuable end, and that, in the matter of reciprocity, there could be no control of the laws of trade by any convention; that men would buy and sell where it was most to their advantage, and that this could not be aided or materially influenced by national compacts." We probably still need such elementary tuition, but it is rather humiliating to get it from a people whom we patronize so condescendingly.

Ex-Senator Miller added his wisdom to the debate of the evening alluded to, and gave it as his belief that, with a subsidized line of steamers to Brazil, our trade with that country would increase 100 per cent. within a year. Probably he never heard of the subsidy to the Garrison Line to Brazil, $150,000 a year for ten years; or, if he did, he must have failed to note that, while our exports to Brazil averaged $6,346,000 a year for the term of the subsidy, as soon as it expired, in 1874, an increase was at once apparent, the average exports for the next two years being $7,463,000. He might also have learned, if he had inquired of some of our merchants who do business with Brazil, that freights are now less than half what they were at the time of the Garrison monopoly.

President Harrison has so distinctly favored, both in his speeches and in his inaugural, the policy of subsidies, that the general hurrah by the expectant ship-owners since his election is not at all strange. We believe, however, that they have overlooked a very important element in the situation—the opposition which they will have to encounter from those Republican Congressmen who represent Western farming constituencies. Many of them would not vote even for the moderate proposition of Mr. Bingham of Pennsylvania last summer, although the madness of the impending election was then upon Congress, and party lines were tightly drawn. It is altogether likely that they will be even more ready to ask impertinent questions in the Fifty-first Congress, such as, Do these steamship lines pay any dividends? If they do, what are they complaining of? If not, why is not the capital invested where it will get a return? Very likely, too, some successor will be found to Mr. Nelson of Minnesota to say, as he did last year, that the shortest way for owners of steamships to increase their profits is to strike for free ships.

AN ENGLISH ESTIMATE OF AMERICAN ILLUSTRATION.

LONDON, March 21.

To all who are interested in bookmaking, book-illustration, and book-decoration this winter in London has been of unusual interest. There is no branch of art more popular to-day than illustration, and yet there is none so persistently ignored by writers on art. The fact that so much attention has been given to it in late lectures and exhibitions is therefore in itself worthy of note. But the manner in which the subject has been treated by the lecturers is of still greater significance, especially to Americans. A short analysis of the lectures and a slight reference to the exhibitions will make this clear.

The subject was first given prominence during the Exhibition of the Arts and Crafts So-

ciety held in the Grosvenor Gallery before Christmas. The very name of the Society, as well as the interests of its President, Mr. Walter Crane, made it impossible to omit from the show the art and craft of bookmaking. But, once accepted among the exhibits, it was somewhat of a surprise to find how very small was the space given to it. Several frames of drawings by Mr. Walter Crane, two or three of work by Mr. Heywood Sumner and Mr. Jacomb-Hood, and a few designs by Mr. Lewis F. Day, represented illustration and decoration as applied to books. The only examples of printing came from the Clarks and the Chiswick Press; the only specimens of bookbinding from Mr. Cobden-Saunderson and Messrs. Roger and Lorenzo de Coverly. When one paused to consider the large number of illustrators, designers, and publishers, the slimness of this part of the exhibition seemed altogether unaccountable. A slight clue to the reason for this slimness, however, was found on carefully consulting the introductory notes in the catalogue. Here the short paper on Printing ended with this paragraph:

"Next in importance to the type are the ornaments, initial letters, and other decorations which can be printed along with it. These, it is obvious, should always be designed and engraved so as to harmonize with the printed page regarded as a whole. Hence illustrations drawn only with reference to purely pictorial effects are entirely out of place in a book—that is, if we desire seriously to make it beautiful.'

This is really a sweeping condemnation of all the magazines and all the illustrated books, with a very few exceptions, printed at the present day. That it was so intended was confirmed by the series of lectures which followed the opening of the exhibition. In the lecture on printing—given, by the way, by a photo-engraver whose principal business it is to reproduce purely pictorial drawings for book-illustration—if the arguments were weak, the meaning was plain: the only good book-decoration and illustration is that done by the artists and craftsmen of the sixteenth century, and by a very small saving remnant, with Mr. Walter Crane for its leader, to-day; all other modern attempts at book-illustration and decoration are hopelessly and atrociously bad. We may consider it perhaps a compliment, certainly a proof of our influence in the art world, that for the atrocity and hopelessness Americans are held wholly responsible. Indeed, to listen to the dogmatists of the arts and crafts school is to believe that, beyond the small remnant to which I have alluded and the Americans, there are no modern book-illustrators and decorators. As far as they are concerned, Menzel and Wietz, Vierge and Montalti, Jeanniot and Habert-Dys might never have lived. During the lecture on printing, after all that is right in illustration was shown by lantern slides, the wrongness of American work was demonstrated by throwing on the sheet an enlarged page of *Harper's* decorated with some of Mr. Hamilton Gibson's flowers. As the original drawing was made in wash, it did not, as was to be expected, enlarge to such good effect as drawings made in line. But no one questioned the value of the demonstration; on the contrary, it was received with applause.

In its relation to book-illustration, the exhibition, narrow in its limits and arbitrary in its lectures, was chiefly significant because it for the first time definitely showed the attitude of Mr. Walter Crane and his friends and followers on the subject, and openly expressed their hostility to the methods of American draughtsmen, art-editors, printers, and publishers. Since the close of the exhibition, this attitude has been still more arbitrarily maintained, this hostility more fully avowed, in two series of lectures given before the Society of Arts, the first by Mr. W. J. Linton, the second by Mr. Walter Crane.

It is almost unnecessary for me to state that Mr. Linton's subject was wood-engraving, or that, however much one might disagree with many of his opinions and conclusions, one listened to him with that respect always commanded by the words of any workman upon the work to which he has devoted his life. Moreover, his lectures gave a full, clear, and concise history of the growth and development of wood-engraving, well illustrated by means of the lantern, which has become indispensable to the modern lecturer. That Mr. Linton's standard of wood-engraving is wholly conservative is a fact already well known in America. He, too, believes the Americans responsible for everything that is bad in modern illustration, though he casts the blame upon the new methods of the engraver rather than of the draughtsman. But, curiously enough, all the arguments he used in support of the old methods, if carried fairly and without prejudice to their logical conclusions, really prove the merits and rightness of the new school of reproduction.

His history of course began with the inevitable Egyptian stamp, continued with the Venetian playing-cards, the famous St. Christopher, the block-books, to the work of Dürer's time, which came to the very height of its perfection in the great arch of Maximilian. After the woodcuts of the sixteenth century, the historian of wood-engraving finds little to record until he comes to the work of Bewick and his followers and the perfected use of the white line, with which Mr. Linton's own name will for ever be associated. Up to this point Mr. Linton praised, as the chief virtue in the wood-cutter, his subjection to the artist—a subjection so complete that the names of many of the great engravers of the sixteenth century are now unknown. His business it was to reproduce, to the very best of his ability, the draughtsmen's lines, with intelligence, of course, but with absolute fidelity. If he thought the lines bad or unworthy of his graver, if he felt that he himself could make a better design, then, very possibly, he gave up reproducing other men's work and made his own drawings on the block. But so long as he reproduced the drawings of other men, then he realized that the design was of primary importance, and that he, the interpreter, was in every way subordinate to the artist.

Another reason, too, for the great work of wood-engravers in the past was their readiness, as well as that of the artists and craftsmen with whom they worked, to take advantage of every mechanical and artistic invention and development. The actual methods of the man who cut the St. Christopher and the engravers of Dürer's drawings may have been the same, but the great contrast between the early and later work shows that in the meantime the engraver must have been striving to increase his power in cutting his lines in proportion as the draughtsman was developing his skill. Nor was he slow to avail himself of the invention of movable type to lighten his labors. Instead of abusing the invention of printing as a mechanical substitution for the sympathetic and intelligent work of a craftsman—though, for all we know, there may have been conservatives in those days, too—he at once adapted it to his requirements, and ceased to cut the lettering as in the old block-books, but left the text which accompanied the drawings to be set up in type by the printer. The white line was a distinct innovation in wood-engraving, an entire change from the methods of the old engravers, and yet Mr. Linton, by his use and praise of it, shows that in certain cases and at certain times he recognizes innovation in and development of artistic methods to be necessary and commendable. But when it comes to our own times, then all change means to him degeneracy.

Of modern wood-engraving he seems to know only the American, for to the degenerate methods of to-day he gives the name of the "American New Departure." This is scarcely fair, even if his estimate is to be accepted. The devil should be given his due. Long before the production of the wood-engravings which have made the *Century* and *Harper's* famous the world over, Menzel, in his determination to obtain good reproductions of his illustrations for the Life and Works and History of Frederick the Great, had developed facsimile wood-cutting in Germany and France to a wonderful perfection. Besides, if among American wood-engravers are to be found such masters as Cole and Juengling, they are by no means greater than Frenchmen like Beaude, than the German successors of Unzelmann and Vogel, or even than Englishmen like Patterson, Swain, Cooper, and the Brothers Dalziel in their particular line.

But suppose all the credit of the new methods of engraving is to be given to the Americans, what is Linton's objection to them? This is really impossible to understand, for at the beginning of his second lecture, which was principally taken up with strong abuse of the "New Departure," he stated that with the reproduction of tone he was not concerned, as that was a distinct art. Now, the American engravers of to-day are as a rule—there are of course occasional exceptions—concerned only with the reproduction of tone. The invention of photographic methods of reproduction has revolutionized book-illustration in the nineteenth century as completely as the invention of printing revolutionized bookmaking in the fifteenth. Just as the printer then replaced the scribe, so, for line drawings, the photo-engraver has now supplanted the wood-engraver. And just as the scribe then saw the folly of competing with a machine which could do his work much better and more quickly and cheaper, so to-day the wood-engraver sees the uselessness of rivalling a mechanical process which will reproduce the draughtsman's lines more easily and accurately, and in a tenth or twentieth of the time it would take him to do the same work. Mr. Linton himself admits this: for his forthcoming work on the 'Great Masters of Wood-Engraving,' he is having all the woodcuts reproduced by process instead of making new ones. As yet, photo-engraving cannot equal wood-engraving in the reproduction of tone, and therefore to this reproduction the wood-engraver has devoted all his attention and skill, with the result that he has made wood-engraving not only a distinct but an entirely new art. Compare a woodcut after Dürer with one of Cole's engravings of an old Italian fresco or mosaic, and the truth of this assertion must be at once seen. And what is the chief merit of the engraver in this new branch of his art? The very same subjection to the artist which is applauded as such a virtue in his predecessors of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the drawings he seeks to reproduce there are no lines; consequently he avoids all aggressive effect of line in his engraving. It is as unfair to take a small bit of one of his engravings and enlarge it on the screen, and then compare it to an entire engraving in line, as Mr. Linton delights in doing, as it would be to compare an enlarged corner of an oil painting to an en-

larged etching, and then find fault with the painting because in it was shown no true feeling for line.

No sooner had Mr. Linton finished pointing out the rightness of old engraving and of his own, and the wrongness of American engraving, than Mr. Crane undertook to prove that truth about book-illustration and decoration which he had already declared in the Arts and Crafts Exhibition. His subject was, of course, far wider than Mr. Linton's; but, interesting as is the history of illustration, beginning as it does with picture-writing and hieroglyphs, I have only space here to dwell upon a few of the more prominent features of its development which bear specially upon Mr. Crane's conclusions in regard to modern illustration. For all practical purposes it is sufficient to study this development in Christian Europe, where it is necessarily divided into two great periods, the MSS. period and the period of printed books. There are examples of a stage of transition between the two. In the very early days of printing, the printed text was sometimes decorated by hand with a beautifully illuminated initial letter or margin. But soon the decoration, as well as the text, was printed, and old methods were entirely done away with. But in the artistic treatment of the page there was little difference. The MSS. had been rich with ornament, sometimes confined to a very elaborate initial letter, sometimes extending down the margins, and they had also contained many little pictures meant to illustrate the text, but often so interwoven with the ornament as to be almost inseparable from it. And so it was with the printed books. At times the text was enclosed in a border of graceful spirals or purely decorative forms; at times it enclosed a picture; often picture and ornament, as in the MSS., were not to be separated. In a word, there seemed two distinct ways in which the illuminator or the draughtsman could treat his page. He could ornament it without his ornament throwing the least light upon the meaning of the text, or he could decorate it with pictures which were primarily illustrative and intended to enforce its meaning; perhaps it may be said he found a third way of treating it in a compromise by which he joined together his purely decorative and his illustrative ornaments. In view of this fact, which no one with the least knowledge of MSS. and early printed books can deny, Mr. Crane insists upon a distinction between the decoration and the illustration of books, though both, he teaches, are legitimate. While this is in a measure true, it is not wholly so; for if often book-decoration is not illustration, book-illustration is always decoration—that is, of course, provided it is good of its kind. The distinction really is between the drawing which is conventional or geometrical in form and treatment, and the drawing which seeks to give a realistic rendering of its subject. However, for the sake of argument, let the former be called decoration and the latter illustration.

Like Mr. Linton, Mr. Crane sees only good in the work that was done until the end of the sixteenth century. He also finds much to commend in English decoration and illustration towards the end of the last and the beginning of this century as represented in the drawings of Blake and Stothard and Bewick, while he approves of the pre-Raphaelites as illustrators. But when he comes down to our own day, again, like Mr. Linton, he can see only evil, and for the present perversion of decorative and illustrative art he too casts the blame upon an American new departure. One might have thought he had never heard the name of Menzel, had he not given it a passing mention in the course of his lectures. That he does know it, and yet is ignorant of the fact that it is Menzel who is really responsible for almost all modern illustration, seems almost incredible. American illustrators themselves would be the first to admit the debt they owe, not only to the German master, but to Fortuny, Rico, and Vierge, to whose work and influence Mr. Crane did not even refer. The very pre-Raphaelites who meet with his approval were indebted not a little to Menzel, whose drawings were better known among English artists in their day than in ours.

But whoever is responsible for this "new departure," the important question, as in Mr. Linton's case, is, What is the objection to it? and before this can be satisfactorily explained, it is well to consider for a minute the chief differences between the old and perfect—according to Mr. Crane—illustration and decoration, and the modern, which is held to be so vitally at fault. These are, first, the greater command of technique of the modern draughtsman, and secondly, and even more important, the enormous development in mechanical methods of reproduction and printing. In illustration as in painting, it will be found that, as the artist's technical resources were perfected, his rendering of his subjects became more realistic; the difference between Menzel and Dürer is due to the same cause as the difference between Fortuny and Giotto. Often what seems to us decorative in the painting and illustration of the past is nothing more than the result of technical limitations. Again, the illustrator of the sixteenth century had to adapt his drawings to the woodcutter's power of cutting them on the block. That he was much less free in his illustration than in his other work, is seen at once by comparing Dürer's etchings, like the "Big Horse" and the "Melancholia," with his woodcuts, like those of the "Kleine Passion." As Mr. Crane says, the mechanical relation of the work of draughtsman, engraver, and printer really gives the key to all good design. In the sixteenth century the power of engraver and printer was limited; therefore, when the mechanical relations were right and the design was good, the power of the draughtsman was limited as well.

To-day, with the development in mechanical resources, the draughtsman gains in freedom. He can draw in wash an elaborate landscape, or make a no less elaborate figure study, and, reproduced on the pages of a magazine, the mechanical relation of his work to that of engraver and printer is not violated. With this greater freedom he does what would have simply been an impossibility in Dürer's day; but this does not necessarily imply that what he does is wrong. It can easily be understood that, with his own constantly increasing command of technique and the ease with which his drawings can be reproduced, he has given more and more of his attention to illustration, and less and less to decoration, using the words in the sense attached to them by Mr. Crane. But surely this cannot be the great fault in modern work. Mr. Crane, when dealing with the sixteenth century, found as much to praise in illustration as in decoration, holding up as models drawings of Dürer and Holbein which had absolutely no decorative relation to the page on which they were printed. Nor can it be in the greater elaboration of modern drawing; it is not thought a fault in Dürer that his drawings were far more elaborate than the St. Christopher of the earlier artist. Why then is American work, which, with Mr. Crane, seems to mean all modern work but his own and that of his followers, so debased a form of illustrative art?

When it comes to giving his reasons for his wholesale condemnation of American magazines, it seems his quarrel is really with a very small portion of the work published in them. His argument really is this: American illustrative work is bad, because here and there the magazines publish decorative drawings which, as decorations of the page, are bad. That their decoration sometimes is not good is true enough, but is it sufficient reason to condemn all the work of the American illustrator? And how does Mr. Crane prove his case? By keeping a discreet silence about the drawings of Americans, like Mr. Howard Pyle, who work according to the methods he advocates, and by holding up to ridicule one page from the *Century* with a decoration of flowers in which the text, as he put it, torn into an irregularly ragged edge, seems instinctively to shrink from touching the illustration, squeezing itself together, as the passengers in a crowded omnibus might do, reluctantly, to admit a chimney-sweep. The page is not especially beautiful, but when it comes to Mr. Crane's own pages with the text written by him, we find often the same ragged effect in it. American magazines might unquestionably be improved if greater attention was given to the decoration of their pages; but it must be remembered that the most beautiful and richly decorated books in the past were made solely for the rich; the magazines are for the people. This of course would be no reason for the dissemination of bad art, but that the art is bad not even Mr. Crane would assert; for (a proof of the weakness of his case) when it came to showing the best examples of contemporary illustration, he was obliged to borrow from these very magazines and from Americans. He showed the work of one or two other Englishmen as well as many drawings of his own, but even greater prominence was given to the work of Mr. Vedder, Mr. Abbey, Mr. Parsons, and Mr. Pennell, though I noticed he neglected to mention the fact that three of these artists are Americans, and all are contributors to American magazines, so that, to his audience at least, his argument was not weakened. It is strange that in the one newspaper report of his lectures I have seen, while his abuse of the *Century* and *Harper's* was carefully recorded, his exhibition of American work was as carefully ignored.

Thus it will be seen that in this loud outcry against American illustration, the criticism, when analyzed, amounts to this: American engravers are taken to task for qualities found admirable in engravers of the sixteenth century; American illustration is ruthlessly condemned because occasional magazine pages are faulty according to conventional standards. It would be no less folly to praise our illustrators without qualification than it is to blame them without reserve. Many would doubtless profit by a careful study of book-decoration in the past. But at the same time, just now that in England the effort is being made to put all American magazines under the ban, it is only right to show the fallacy of the arguments used against them.

PREHISTORIC SICILY.

CATANIA, February 27, 1889.

IT seems to me that there is more to be learned of the earliest civilization of Europe from Sicily than from any other European land. Its extreme fertility, and its position in the great currents of migration and commerce from the earliest traditions, at once favored agriculture, which is the basis of civilization, and colonization and commerce, which sustain and stimulate it. Diodorus Siculus tells us that

the antique tradition was that wheat had its origin in Sicily, and that even in his day it was to be found wild in the fields of Leontini and in other parts of the island; and the interpretation of the myth of the rape of Proserpine long ago offered by the myth interpreters is, that the corn when planted was supposed to be with Dis, and when in bearing to be restored to the light of day for that part of the year which Proserpine passed with her mother, thus dividing the time of its existence between the infernal and supernal deities. Certainly the plant has never been found growing wild in any other country, and if not now in Sicily, there is no cause for wonder, for no land has seen its domestication so completely carried out. And in the mythology of the Greeks, who never pretended to be the earliest colonizers of the island, the original home of Ceres, the goddess of the wheat field, was always allowed to be Trinacria, the Greek name of the island, and Proserpine was said to have been born there. Ceres was the peculiar Sicilian deity, and Diodorus, in his simple pagan credence, says: "And that the rape of Proserpine did take place here is clearly shown by the observation that there is no record that those goddesses had ever lived anywhere else than in this island, loved by them far above any other place. And that rape took place in the fields near to Enna, a locality not far from the city, laughing with violets and other species of most beautiful flowers, and in every way worthy of being admired. And so strong here, it is said, is the fragrance of the odors [of the flowers] that the dogs on the track of the game cannot find the scent for the overpowering force that the perfume of those fields has on their organs."

Be it coincidence or confirmation, it does so happen that the earliest indication of a settled and determinate order of social existence that we find in Europe is here to be found. The tombs of the great plains to the west of Palermo are at once indications of social organization and that reverence for the dead which must be taken as a sure sign of some religious culture—of the former through the aggregation of the sepulchres in so great a number and in so close propinquity, and of the latter in the care for the security of the remains and the provision for the use of the departed in the other existence, and the curious decoration of the bones after the flesh had been stripped from them. The graves belong to the type of "well-tombs," and show a curious and subtle art in their design for the purposes of concealment, though by their technique they are widely separated from the "well-tombs" which are the earliest we know of in Italy, as well as by their contents, no metal being found in them; and though it is impossible to come to any comparison of dates, we have a right to consider them earlier than the *terramares* of Italy by virtue of that fact.

But as, at the time when a tolerably authentic tradition of Sicilian affairs comes to us, the island was divided between two races, the Sicani and the Siculi, the latter being recognized as invaders from Italy and belligerent to a high degree, according to Diodorus, and the boundary being recognized by mutual accord at the Himera—the Sicani occupying the western and the Siculi the eastern half—we can safely conclude that these cemeteries are those of the former. Of these Diodorus says, referring to the traditions still extant in his day:

"The Sicani once lived in villages, and had made for themselves on the hills little cities to protect themselves from the attacks of thieves. They were never under the rule of a single king, but each village had its own particular prince. And first they held the whole island, and obtained their living by cultivating the earth. Then, as it happened that in many parts Ætna scattered its flames and for great distances covered much land by its eruptions and devastated the earth for many years, the inhabitants, conquered by fear, abandoned the eastern parts of Sicily and retired into the western. After many ages the nation of the Siculi passed with all their families from Italy into Sicily, occupied the sections that had been abandoned by the Sicani"—

and finally, as he describes, came to terms with the previous inhabitants.

This was the nation which the Greeks, who came in the eighth century B. C., found in Syracuse and Agrigentum as well as in many sites in the interior, from which they were never dispossessed, but maintained their individuality and civic existence until the conquest by the Romans had unified the populations, who had, as Diodorus says, "learned the language of the Greeks and adopted the same manner of living, having abandoned both the barbaric dialect which they spoke before, and the name which they bore, being thenceforward called Siculi." Of these eastern Siculi, there are many necropolises in the vicinity of Syracuse which furnish the evidence of a step forward in the progress of civilization, being excavated in a rock that seems to have been impracticable to the Sicani. From such examination as I was able to make of the tombs, I believe that they must have employed bronze hammers. They have the same form of mortuary chamber as the graves in the western necropolises, which is an indication that the Sicani were a kindred people to the Siculi, as this form is peculiar and (so far as I know) does not appear elsewhere than here, and in parts of southern Italy in which tradition has established the Siculi also. It is a low, oven-shaped chamber, generally about four to five feet across and three high, forming a flattened dome; and it was closed by a slab of stone fitted to the opening, which was only large enough to admit the shoulders of a man of ordinary size, so that the cutting must have presented great difficulties. In the western graves this opening is out of a well sunk in the soft tufa or calcareous limestone, sometimes two or three being cut from one well; while in the eastern the cutting is in the face of a ledge of rock—a harder but by no means difficult stone to excavate, and not, indeed, impossible to be worked by stone tools, as the western clearly were, for they have been found in the graves.

With these differences the two systems of burial appear to have been the same. But while it is clear that the flesh had been stripped from the bones in the western graves, we have no evidence as to this practice in the eastern, for the scientific excavators have not yet succeeded in finding an authentic grave of the Sicilian period intact, their position in the face of a ledge of rock exposing them to view as soon as the earth was washed away, which has in most localities taken place long ago, and leading to their pillage by the peasants, who are always on the lookout for the treasures supposed to be buried in ancient tombs; so that, though the authorities of the museum at Syracuse have been able to obtain a considerable collection of the objects from Sicilian graves, they have never been able to induce the finders to show them the graves the objects were found in. These objects consist of vases of well-burned terracotta, generally hand-made, but in some cases made on a wheel; but as the Sicilian period runs into the Greek, and these tombs are in some cases possibly of the latter epoch, we cannot divide the arts of one from the other with rigid distinctions. The pottery has, however, its own character, and the vases in the museum are always of a primitive type, with decoration, where decoration is, of the simplest geometrical character and in no case of natural forms. They have nothing in common with the decoration of the so-called "Mycenean" or "Corinthian" vases, and in some cases the hand-made vessels are of an admirable make, such as I have not seen in any ancient production of the same stage of art. There occurs, however, the difficulty which must always be encountered in comparative archæology, that the contemporary productions of two countries may be of greatly different stages of progress, and, as we know, the age of stone in one country may coexist with the age of steel in another. Moreover, in the judgment to be pronounced on the Sicilian objects we have also the consideration that the Greeks broke into the civilization of the Siculi in the eighth century, and in all probability the Pelasgi still earlier (if, indeed, the second were not a branch of the last); and it is not impossible that the tombs which have rendered some of our objects were made in the early Greek period; so that any judgment in the matter must be taken with the benefit of an inventory not now possible to draw up.

But this interesting result is sure, that we find in the Sicilian system tombs excavated in the solid, if not very obdurate, rock by a people who did not possess the art of making edged tools to do this work, and whose ceramic products are of a totally different type from the earliest Greek or so-called Phœnician. Together with these in the tombs we find a few bronze articles such as have been found in Italic tombs, viz., the "spiral fibulæ," a type of that article different from any found in Hellenic or Roman tombs; and no articles in common with either of those. In those cemeteries in the immediate vicinity of Syracuse, and which we may suppose to have belonged to the inhabitants expelled on the arrival of the Greeks, as we know that they were expelled, the manner of working the stone is most distinctly to be seen as hammering, similar to the Pelasgic work: and the form of the tomb is so closely allied to that of the tombs of the Sicanian period as to indicate the common origin of the two races—*i. e.*, that Sicani and Siculi alike were immigrations from Italy at widely separated epochs. But we have further confirmation of this provenance in the recorded existence in Italy of lingering remnants of the Siculi, and the occasional occurrence of tombs of their type, showing that they had learned the art of working hard stone in the interval between the two emigrations. But another allied fact, learned from the excavations in Italy, is, that a system of well-tombs obtained in Italy prior to the advent of the Etruscans according to one theory, and in their earliest development, according to an alternative (the former being that of Gamurrini and the Italian archæologists generally, and the latter that of Helbig)—in either case to be put at not later than 900 B. C.—in which we have the use of metallic chisels clearly and indisputably indicated, and the presence of bronze work of Oriental provenance, as in the well-tombs in the museums of Corneto and in the new "Papa Giulio" (Falerian) just inaugurated at Rome, as well as in the *trouvaille* of Vetulonia in the museum of Florence and that of Sybaris. It seems safe to draw the conclusion that the race of the Siculi and Sicani was probably that supposed to be indigenous in Italy, and which was driven down and out of the peninsula according to the traditions, of which one is given by Homer in the account of the origin of the Phæacians.

There is a great difficulty in arriving at more definite conclusions on these points from the fact that, so far, the explorers in the Sicu-

lian cemeteries have not been able to find a tomb intact, the diligence of the treasure-hunting peasants and the stupid obduracy of the proprietors of the ancient sites combining to prevent intelligent and scientific examination of the localities which have those cemeteries still possibly hidden, for many of the Siculian cities are now sites as deserted as the most ancient in the Old World. At any rate, we have in Sicily two stages of development, as marked by their inhumations, prior to anything we find in Italy proper. Professor Orsi, the young and enthusiastic coadjutor of Halbherr in the researches in Crete, and who is the inspector of antiquities in Syracuse, has taken up the subject of Siculian antiquities in his region, while Salinas, the head of the archæological department at Palermo, has given his attention to those of the Sicanian remains; and time and the patience which is so imperative a qualification in such researches will one day give us the complete solution of the problems to be solved. There is one tradition which may be taken for what it is worth in comparative chronology bearing on the antiquity of the Siculian settlement of Sicily. This is the story of the invasion of Sicily by Minos in his pursuit of Dædalus as it is recorded by Diodorus, in whose account Minos is received by the King of Akragas, which was then a Siculian city, and one of those which were on the western limit of the territory assigned by the treaty with the Sicani to the later comers. But as Minos was contemporary with the earliest Greek civilization, we can, from the point of view of mythology, form a conjecture as to the state of the island in the prehistoric epoch of Theseus and Minos. W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

PROHIBITION IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To a looker-on in Vienna, the whole question of prohibition seems one easily met and readily answered. It becomes, therefore, a matter of interest to discover why prohibitory laws are not enforced in the same manner that laws affecting persons or property are. It cannot be that they are worse than laws generally, and that for this reason executives let them alone, for the most arbitrary laws are sustained upon the principle that the way to repeal a bad law is to enforce it.

Two reasons more strongly than any others present themselves why temperance legislation is ineffectual. One is, that legislation favoring prohibition is in advance of public opinion; the second is, that it is mixed with politics. That it is in advance of public opinion is shown by the fact that men call the liquor traffic a business, and class it with other commercial interests, and, while the temperance movement is a great moral movement, temperance legislation is entirely destitute of any moral principle. So far it is a mere tissue of expediencies, varying enormously according to the pressure brought to bear upon the different State and local governments within the limits of whose territory the question has been agitated.

Perhaps the very best test of a prohibition vote possible was given in Iowa in 1884. Containing a million of people, this State has no city with a population of over 40,000, and but one, its capital Des Moines, that can claim within 10,000 of those figures. It is an independent, agricultural State with more available land to the acre than any State in the Union, and claims, besides, as its especial honor, the highest per cent. of education *per capita* of any State in the Union. This is the State that polled a prohibition majority of 31,000. So far, so good; the moral pulse of the people beat responsive to the temperance cause. What follows is a commentary on the slowness with which laws are formed, and demonstrates the seeming impossibility of uniting political and moral ideas. The effect of the prohibitory amendment was immediate. The wholesale dealers grew restless, many removed to the large cities in other States, and the retailers showed every disposition to close. In the city of Keokuk, in southeastern Iowa, on the morning of July 4, 1885, the saloon-keepers closed their doors, making no resistance to the law. But mark the conduct of the city fathers when called upon to decide the closing as final. They argued that the city needed revenue, and that the saloons should be licensed. One by one these reopened, paid the license levied by the Council, and continued open until May, 1888, when the Mayor, Mr. John N. Irwin, himself not a Prohibitionist, decided to enforce the law. There is not to-day a saloon open in the city, though liquor in the shape of original packages and in club-rooms is before the people.

In Sioux City the *business men* made a proposition that the saloons be permitted to run. Against this proposition the women of Sioux City, six hundred in number, drew up a protest, drawing upon themselves, by so doing, the most scathing criticisms of the press. "They spoke only the spasmodic sentiments of the feminine nature," one of the leading Iowa papers stated, adding "that men have business experience, and see a certain amount of capital and business going, and nothing to take its place," etc. And again, the Iowa Republican party, in a late platform, did not hesitate to disclaim connection with the temperance party, and to censure the action of the Democratic party in declaring for a $250 license, "compulsory on every community, regardless of local opinion."

These temporizing political conditions are the key to the whole situation; and, until the people decide to enforce the law and compel the assent of voters to law rather than to party, a better state of things cannot be hoped for.

E. B.

Keokuk, March 31, 1889.

On Monday, April 1, an election will be held in this city for Mayor and Marshal. The issue is the enforcement of the law. The Democratic candidate refuses to say that he will enforce the law, while the candidate on the same ticket for Marshal is a saloon man.

[The Democrats carried the day, defeating Mr. Irwin, who sought a reëlection.—Ed. Nation.]

THE IOWA COW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An article in the March number of the *North American Review* from the pen of Dr. George B. Loring, on "Does American Farming Pay?" has not, as yet, received the attention it merits, both from the facts it presents and from the authoritative character of the writer, an ex-Commissioner of Agriculture, and now Minister to Portugal.

The paper was prepared, as Dr. Loring himself gave notice to the New England Agricultural Society, in response to ex-Secretary McCulloch's article in the October *Scribner* on the unprofitableness of American farming, and therefore may be regarded as the matured results of the ex-Commissioner's careful deliberation. It appeared at a time when the author was a prominent candidate for the Secretaryship of Agriculture. Whether it came under the eye of President Harrison or not, one cannot definitely say; but as the President says his entire time has been taken up in the "classification and arrangement of applications for office," it is possible that Dr. Loring's paper may have been arranged and classified with the rest. At any rate, as Dr. Loring was sent to Portugal instead of into the Cabinet as the representative of agriculture, it is perhaps safe to infer that the President not only saw the article, but read and inwardly digested it.

On page 366 of the March number of the *North American Review*, Dr. Loring writes as follows:

"When the wheat crop of Iowa failed, the farmers turned their attention to the dairy. They improved their cows largely, by careful breeding and judicious feeding. On the 1st of January, 1887, they had 1,243,000 cows, valued at $32,541,792, and they produced butter and cheese to the amount of $277,477,429, milk, sold and condensed, amounting to $200,000,000, and skimmed milk to $50,417,054. The pasturage of the State is most luxuriant, and the valuation of the live stock is $180,110,016."

By the simple process of division, we find from Dr. Loring's statement, disregarding fractions, that the average Iowa cow, valued at $26, produces annually butter and cheese to the amount of $223, and "milk sold and condensed" to the amount of $160. Besides this, the grateful Iowa cow of average grade returns to her lucky owner skimmed milk to the value of $40, a sum which the average New York cow fails to return as the resultant of her entire yield in dairy produce. Hence we see that the average Iowa cow, $26 in value, yields in butter, cheese, milk, and skimmed milk to the amount of $423 annually, a little over 1,600 per cent. of her value. It is hardly necessary to repeat Dr. Loring's conclusion that farming in America, particularly in Iowa, *does* pay.

In presence of such an achievement as this of the Iowa cow, one can only mention apologetically, even by way of comparison, the results from the New York milch cow of average grade, which, with the comparatively high value of $30.50 (Report of Department of Agriculture, 1887, p. 567), only gives, according to the Report of the State Dairy Commissioner, an annual return in dairy products of $25.79—a sum, as has been previously remarked, far below the yield of the Iowa cow in skimmed milk alone. After giving the figures quoted in the paragraph above, it is surely a work of supererogation for Dr. Loring to go on to sketch some of the visible results of farming in Iowa—dairy farming particularly. It does not, for example, seem necessary to state (p. 366), "The farms of the State are in good condition. The taxes are readily paid." It is obvious that the proceeds from skimmed milk of one genuine Iowa cow would keep in good condition all the fences of a moderate-sized farm and pay all the taxes. What need is there of saying, "An air of substantial thrift pervades the State," when the most casual consideration shows that, disregarding the return from skimmed milk, a decent Iowa cow would yield in one year enough butter, cheese, and milk to pay for and keep a carriage and span of horses? Still more unnecessary is it for Dr. Loring to assert, "It is easy to see that a widespread prosperity pervades the community whose characteristics are the repose and self-possession which attend success." Any farmer who receives an annual income of $8,460 from a herd of 20 cows, worth $522, has achieved a success of which repose and self-possession are but feeble

indications. But as Dr. Loring says, perhaps by way of explanation, "The pasturage of the State is most luxuriant."

One can almost picture our new Minister to Portugal wandering through vineyards and plantations, and discussing, with the Portuguese Minister of Agriculture, matters of bucolic lore. How deeply impressed will the latter be with the results of American dairying when he comes to calculate from the data furnished by Dr. Loring, less in the rôle of Minister Plenipotentiary than of ex-Commissioner of Agriculture Extraordinary, that the American cow of the Iowan variety gives, on an average, each day at least seventy quarts of milk.

FRANK ANGELL.

GENEVA, N. Y., April 4, 1889.

CUSTOM VS. CONSTITUTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent, in a recent number of the *Nation*, takes issue with Mr. Bryce in regard to the alleged omnipotence of a State Legislature except as specifically restrained by the written Constitutions of the State and the nation. What your correspondent has to say upon that subject is not only peculiarly apt, but also highly important, in view of the prevalent notion that the fabric of our State governments rests solely upon written Constitutions. It is rare, indeed, to see public officers charged with the making, adjudicating, or enforcing of the laws, appeal, in matters involving constitutional questions, from the letter of the fundamental law to the spirit of immemorial usage which animates it. Such a slavish regard for the written word in which the founders of the States have endeavored to embody the spirit of Anglo-Saxon government, and especially of American government, and such a careless disregard for the numberless usages and customs which no Constitution can ever hope to formulate, bear their fruit in the not unnatural conclusion to which even so close an observer and so careful a scholar as Mr. Bryce has been led. It is time that public attention be directed less to written Constitutions, and more to the customs and principles on which they rest and from which they derive their strength.

One of the most valuable contributions that have been made to this end is to be found in an opinion delivered by Judge Cooley in the case of the People vs. Hurlbut (24 Mich., 44). In this case the Legislature of Michigan undertook to appoint the members of a Board of Public Works for the city of Detroit. The appointment was resisted on the ground of its unconstitutionality. Judge Cooley in his opinion makes use of the following language:

"We must assume [from a written Constitution] either an intention that the legislative control should be constant and absolute, or, on the other hand, that there are certain fundamental principles in our general framework of government which are within the contemplation of the people when they agree upon the written charter subject to which the delegations of authority to the several departments of government have been made. That the last is the case appears to me too plain for serious controversy. The implied restrictions upon the power of the Legislature, as regards local government, though their limits may not be so plainly defined as express provisions might make them, are nevertheless equally imperative in character; and whenever we find ourselves clearly within them, we have no alternative but to bow to their authority. The Constitution has been framed with these restrictions in view, and we should fall into the grossest absurdities if we undertook to construe that instrument on a critical examination of the terms employed, while shutting our eyes to all other considerations."

And, after a careful survey of the historical development of local self-government and its relations, historically and politically, to the State, he continues:

"Some things are too plain to be written. If this charter of State government which we call a Constitution were all there was of constitutional command; if the usages, the customs, the maxims that have sprung from the habits of life, modes of thought, methods of trying facts by the neighborhood, the precepts which have come from the revolutions which overturned tyrannies— . . . if a recognition of all these were to be stricken from the body of our constitutional law, a lifeless skeleton might remain, but the living spirit, that which gives it force and attraction, which makes it valuable and draws to it the affections of the people, that which distinguishes it from the numberless Constitutions, so called, which, in Europe, have been set up and thrown down within the last hundred years— . . . this living and breathing spirit, which supplies the interpretation of the words of the written charter, would be utterly lost and gone."

These words of perhaps the greatest living American jurist ought to be carefully weighed by all those who, like Mr. Bryce, are likely to fall into the error of supposing a State Legislature to be, save as restrained by written Constitutions, as omnipotent as the English Parliament. Our courts are the real guardians of our liberties, and, so long as they maintain their purity, will enforce not only the guarantees of written charters, but also the unwritten principles of constitutional government.

E. W. H.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., April 3, 1889.

REGULATION OF THE FRANCHISE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent in your issue of March 28 thinks it strange that the Democratic party of North Carolina have passed no act properly regulating the exercise of the elective franchise. In those communities which have a large negro population, it is very difficult to prevent improper votes from being cast, because the majority of negroes applying to vote are wholly unknown to the judges of election. Any one who has observed an election in one of the "black" districts must have been struck with this fact.

Perhaps an explanation of the failure of the Legislature of North Carolina to pass any legislation upon this subject may be deduced from the fact that there is a large portion of the State which does not suffer from the evils mentioned. In western North Carolina only a small portion of the population is composed of negroes. The western part of the State would naturally not sympathize with the efforts of the eastern counties to regulate the franchise, and would be unwilling to put themselves to any inconvenience to benefit others.

A bill was introduced in the Legislature of this State recently, which adopted the main features of the Australian system as far as the secret ballot is concerned. It further provided that where a voter was not known to the judges of election to be qualified to vote, he should prove that fact by the testimony of two citizens of the voting precinct known to the judges. Otherwise, he could not vote unless he produced a poll-tax receipt for the fiscal year preceding the election.

The bill was defeated by the votes of the Republicans in the House of Representatives, largely aided by the votes of northwest Arkansas, the strongest Democratic stronghold of the State. The reason of their opposition is perhaps best stated in the language of their leader in a speech closing the debate:

"You may be able to make your 'nigger' toe a mark thirty feet away from the ballot-box, but I want to tell you now that the white people of the north part of this State will be slow to comply. They are a law-abiding people, and if this bill should become a law I hope they will obey until we can repeal it; but I must confess I have some doubt as to whether you can, even by law, force a proud American citizen who has lived in the mountains of Arkansas for years, and breathed its pure air and drank from its pure, sparkling streams, to toe a mark and put his hat under his arm and take out his poll-tax receipt in one hand and his ballot in the other, and walk up and ask if his name is registered."

It would be interesting to know whether a similar reason is not at the bottom of the failure of the Legislature of North Carolina to enact some law upon the subject.

Very respectfully, T. D. CRAWFORD.

LITTLE ROCK, April 1, 1889.

COLLEGE INSTRUCTION BY LECTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While "A. G. G." (in No. 1239) is treating of the abuse of the college examination and the remedy therefor, I wish to enter a protest, if space be allowed me, against a custom quite as widespread and almost equally pernicious. In the letter referred to are these sentences:

"In ethics the subject is first treated in a series of thirty-four lectures, of one hour each. Each student is required to take notes on these lectures, and he is encouraged to make them as full and accurate as he can. After the lecture, he rewrites and improves his notes."

It is to direct attention to this custom of attempting to impart information by lectures that I write.

A seemingly sufficient objection is, that it is prodigally wasteful of time. The hour that the professor occupies in reading his lecture, the student spends in the mechanical labor of writing down the spoken words. Then he is supposed to spend (and he must if he "improves" any) another hour in reducing the hastily scrawled and all but illegible notes to a plainer and more enduring form. The first hour the student has performed the work of a stenographer, the second that of a bookkeeper, with the skill of neither. Whatever its object may be, its practical result is the getting the ideas of the professor before him in an accurate and available form. Having accomplished so much, he can proceed to study and reflect upon the more abstruse points of the address, and perhaps read a few references. Judging from my own experience, this time is worse than wasted: it has imposed needless and irksome work entirely foreign to the purpose of lecture-giving. One half-hour of study with the professor's lecture before him in printed form would accomplish more for the student than the two hours of scribbling.

A second objection is the inaccuracy that results. "A. G. G." says the student "is encouraged to make them *as full and accurate as he can!*" My dear sirs, professors all, who read the *Nation*, and, mayhap, are accustomed to lecture yourselves, is it not your business to see to it that every student who comes under your care shall have the matter you wish him to understand placed before him with absolute and entire accuracy? Instead of that, you puzzle, annoy, and set down as a stupid many a young fellow, because, indeed, he has not facility in transcribing and reproducing the ideas you have so admirably presented.

I have a trunk full of note-books—and I confess that many of my lectures, for lack of time, were never rewritten—containing what I could catch of ethics, æsthetics, philosophy, political economy. Instead of being well-nigh invaluable as containing the elements of the subjects treated, they are well-nigh worthless. Fully one-third was never set down, one-third is illegible, and the remaining portion is too incom-

plete to be of service. These lectures represent several years of "education." Printed, they would be an enduring and helpful presence; as it is, they are a brilliant memory.

The custom is old; it is not merely a mediæval one — it belongs with hieroglyphics, cuneiform inscriptions, and peripatetics. It is out of place in the age of the printing-press and the manifolding typewriter. It ought to go.—Very respectfully, THEODORE JESSUP.

BALDWIN, WIS., April 2, 1889.

COLLEGE EXAMINATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The best method of conducting college examinations will doubtless be an unsettled question for some time to come, but the speediest way of arriving at a comparative solution is by an interchange of ideas and by a comparison of the results of experiments.

Your correspondent in the *Nation* of March 28 very naturally found an oral examination "little better than a farce" when only a few minutes were devoted to each pupil. But, without question, an oral examination has some advantages peculiarly its own, and the advantages of an oral examination properly conducted should not be underestimated. I quote from a letter of Dr. Arnold, dated March 17, 1838, to the Chancellor of the University of London, on the subject of vivâ-voce examinations:

"First. The exercise of extempore translation . . . is an exercise of exceeding value; . . . and if men are tried by written papers only, one great and most valuable talent, that of readiness, and the very useful habit of retaining presence of mind, so as to be able to avail one's self without nervousness of all one's knowledge, and to express it by word of mouth, are never tried at all. Second. Nothing can equal a vivâ-voce examination for trying a candidate's knowledge in the contents of a long history or philosophical treatise; . . . for a man's answers suggest continually further questions; you can at once probe his weak points; and, where you find him strong, you can give him an opportunity of doing himself justice, by bringing him out especially on those very points."

The first objection urged against a written examination at the end of the term is, that "preparation for it led (almost necessarily) to cramming," but this objection can be urged with almost equal force against any kind of examination, and the only remedy for this widespread evil, so far as I can see, is to free the pupil from a tendency to it by insisting upon thorough daily labor. If written examinations foster "the vice of cheating," and if students "make and carry in notes concealed from the professor by every conceivable artifice," and "tear up text-books and conceal the fragments about the person in many ways," then there is evidently something wrong in the moral tone of the institution, and the remedy is to be sought deeper than in the form of the examination. If the honor of a student cannot be relied upon, we had better adopt at once the Chinese plan.

In all the colleges of which I have any knowledge (they are Southern ones), the only restraint placed upon the student is the reliance on his honor, and dishonesty is rare in the extreme; but, if there should be an offence of this kind, the sentiment of the body of students compels the offender to leave immediately. These written examinations are very valuable to the student, for they enable him to summarize his work for the term and to gain a comprehensive view of the scope of his work.

The system proposed, which is described as a "method of detailed written reviews," is, to my mind, a very imperfect one, although it has many excellent features. Used alone, I note the following objection to it: it facilitates "cramming," for it is easier to reproduce thirty pages by a temporary stress of memory than three hundred; even a good student, having a fair knowledge of a subject in its parts, may fail to comprehend it as a whole.

Some experience has shown me that to give students a chance of doing full justice to themselves, and, at the same time, to benefit them most, a combination of these methods is necessary, and the following is a brief outline of the method I am accustomed to pursue. At the close of every five weeks, reviews of the text studied in that time are held; these reviews are sometimes written, but generally oral, and occupy only the usual recitation hour. Then a written examination of half a day is given at the end of each term. After these have been graded and averaged, from twenty to thirty per cent. of the whole examination is allowed as a maximum for the *daily average* in recitations. The combination of the class standing and the review examinations with the semi-annual ones does a great deal towards getting rid of chance, and at the same time does justice to the whole of the student's knowledge, and is of special benefit to timid students whose presence of mind fails them in the examination room. It is apparent that, by combining these different factors, the merits of one system supplement those of another, and defects are reduced to a minimum.

One of the best ways, both of preparing a student for examination and of shaping and fixing his knowledge in his mind, is to insist upon continual original work in all branches of study, by means of weekly exercises, which are corrected and handed back to him.

As your correspondent said in regard to his system, all this means work, and an enormous amount of work, but the results are so satisfactory that the conscientious teacher is compensated, realizing that there can be no excellence in the pupil without labor on his part.—Very respectfully, GEORGE SHIPLEY.

MIDDLEBURG, VA., April 4, 1889.

THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE AMENDMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The report of the Inter-State Commission appears to me to present some subjects worthy of notice apart from the results of their action, which I am probably not competent to criticise.

The inherent objection to all commissions of the kind is most obvious, namely, the desire to extend their jurisdiction or power, and the evident desire to interfere with what has been withheld. The notion that they can regulate men's business better than the owners can is quite patent. On page 4 there is asserted a right to inquire into the concerns of every corporation engaged in inter-State commerce, because that information will enable the Commission to deal the more efficiently with the subject committed to them. Why confine this to corporations? If the reason or ground for the claim warrants the arrogation of the power, evidently not a dealer or trader exists whose business arrangements are not liable to be made public at the demand of this Commission. They ask that carriers by water shall be subjected to their control; and look at the consequence: Tramp ships can skin the regular carriers alive, for the essence of the demand is that no carrier shall lower or raise his rates without adequate notice—a fair provision where all are subject to it, but where rivals are not, how absurd! And is it intended to prohibit charters without ten days' notice to the public of the rate? On page 22 the Commission undertake summarily to declare that they, and not the carriers, are the proper persons to name rates on different kinds of goods. Under this system the packets would have been prohibited bringing out Scotch pig as ballast.

In respect to the main assertion, however, the cardinal object of the statute, they have, in my judgment, exhibited a most remarkable want of the judicial faculty. If there be a maxim more valuable than another, it is that phrases which have an ascertained meaning in the courts are presumably used in that sense in subsequent legislation. Now, discrimination between shippers never has been objected to. Nobody ever supposed that an obligation to treat all customers alike prevented discrimination. No one ever supposed that universal laws of trade were to be disregarded. Yet these gentlemen evidently (p. 10) treat as absurd the notion that one who stipulates to furnish a train-load can be dealt with at a lower rate than one who sends a tenth of a car-load. But they seem to ignore the fact that—(1.) The statute does not prohibit discrimination. As I remarked, that would be to disregard the laws of trade and make it illegal to sell by the cargo lower than when selling by the ounce. (2.) That it is *unjust* discrimination at which the act is levelled, and which is made criminal by the amended statute. (3.) That what they denounce on page 10 was decided to be legitimate, under a provision requiring all customers to be put upon an equality, as long ago as 1858. To deny this to the carrier may be right, but one must take care of his words when he does it.

It reminds me of that phrase which always precedes the surrender of the litigant to the caprice of the judge, *sound discretion*. I once knew a court, in the exercise of a sound discretion, sanction the sale by a trustee to himself at a less price than was offered by a stranger; and, strange enough, they would not, though requested, change the term by which they defined the reason for this judgment. But, as I read the act, Congress has not yet determined to set up a commission who shall supplant the managements of all the railroads. They are doubtless bad at times, but a commission would be worse.

If I understand the statute, the power to interfere, being conferred by statute, is limited to the cases defined. A general paternal supervision is not conferred, and never will be while we are a free nation. Better by far assume the business and let the nation be the universal carrier. The statute is aimed at an *unlawful* discrimination of rates (sec. 2 of the amendment) and *undue and unreasonable preference* (sec. 3 of the original); and when the same distinction that prevails in all business between wholesale and retail transactions is declared to be proper when construing an act prohibiting discrimination, can it be possible that the Commission have the right to disregard it in construing the new statute?

For what purpose is the word discrimination qualified by the adjective unjust or unlawful? or advantages qualified by undue and unreasonable? In the same way, the qualification in the long-and-short-haul clause seems to be disregarded.

Doubtless there are cases that seem very hard—possibly they are so; but if it is proposed to treat the fact that the long haul takes an entire train and the short hauls are of fractions of trains between the same termini, as an immaterial difference, it is a mistake. No

one who knows anything of the practical operation of a railroad but must know that it is impossible to carry the short hauls for the same gross sum as the long hauls, for the simple reason that the delays in casting off the cars at each local station cause an expenditure in wages and car hire for the short haul double what they are on the long haul.

If, for instance, it takes fifteen minutes to get the train under way after stopping to deliver the cars for the way station, if the through-train takes ten hours, and there are forty stations for the local train, the latter will require double the time for delivering the same quantity that the through-train requires. Upon the hypothesis, the same quantity of rolling-stock is used and the same wages paid per hour. The receipts being the same, the expenditures are double. Then ask what proportion of the expenses of railway management is attributable to wages and rolling-stock.

It is also stated as a debatable point (p. 10) whether the lowering of rates so that any trade with a particular point is practicable is permissible. If not, there should be a new set of rules framed that will explain how one is to expect to get a dollar for an article in the open market which is offered at fifty cents. This reminds one of fiat money, only it is much more absurd, because it is absolutely impossible even for tyranny to maintain. R. W. M.

PHILADELPHIA, April 8.

THE NORTHWEST RAILWAY SITUATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of March 28 contains an article entitled "The Northwest Railway Situation," beginning as follows: "Under reductions begun by the Chicago, Burlington and Northern Railroad, the old flour and grain rate of 7½ cents per 100 pounds between Minneapolis and Chicago, which was raised to 12½ cents by great efforts last fall, seems likely to be reëstablished." The grain and flour situation is discussed, and some of the questions incidental to it—including milling in transit, the origin of the grain, and the destination of the flour.

In my opinion, the article is wrong in the statement that "the road which brings in the wheat and can carry out the flour feels, rightly and naturally enough, that the flour belongs to it." The railways which bring wheat from the West to Minneapolis, in place of taking it to points on their own lines east of Minneapolis, do so because they cannot help themselves. The milling facilities at Minneapolis attract the grain, and the railroads take it there. When the wheat reaches Minneapolis, it changes ownership, usually once at least, and may change several times. It changes its character as well, and goes out as manufactured product—the flour in one direction and the bran and other low-grade products usually in another.

The questions involved in milling in transit have been gone over so often in the past that perhaps it is not worth while to discuss them now. It is a matter of opinion as to who is right about it, and the "transit" roads and the "non-transit" roads differ in accordance with their several interests. I believe it to be a fact, however, that among railroad-traffic men who have no interest in the question, but who have examined it, the preponderance of opinion agrees with the position taken by our company. This is an opinion about which we have nothing to say; but the article in question contains direct misstatements, of which, perhaps, you would like to be advised. The reductions in question were not made primarily by the Chicago, Burlington and Northern Company. The facts in the case are as follows:

One road took flour from Minneapolis to Lake Superior without fixing any price at all, billing it without freight charges, leaving the same to be determined on the opening of navigation in the spring. Another line, discovering this, reduced the rate from Minneapolis to Lake Superior from 7½ to 5 cents per one hundred pounds. Thereupon a line doing business through Canada reduced the rate from Minneapolis to a point occupying the same relation to that route that Chicago occupies to ours, to 7½ cents per 100 pounds. The latter rate was then met by our company.

The writer of the article in question may not have had opportunity to get at the facts, and therefore unintentionally misstated them.

Canadian lines have been for some time past able to secure freight which they have never been able to take before. The Inter-State Law is the direct cause of the trouble, forcing the business of Minneapolis out of the country by the shortest possible route. A large part of the flour ground at Minneapolis goes to Europe. The transportation lines from Minneapolis to all United States seaports are, of course, subject to the provisions of the Inter-State Law. The direct result is, that business naturally takes the route where it is least obstructed, and therefore goes via Canadian railways to Canadian seaports, instead of via our railways to our seaports.—Yours truly,

GEO. B. HARRIS, Vice-President.

CHICAGO, BURLINGTON AND NORTHERN RAILROAD CO., ST. PAUL, MINN., April 6, 1889.

JOSEPH COOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my judgment you are decidedly in error in intimating that the power and popularity of Joseph Cook are declining. If the test of power and popularity is the space given to a man in the Boston daily press, then Sullivan is a greater man than Phillips Brooks, A. J. Gordon, or Joseph Cook. As to popularity, it is a wonder that the fearless champion of popular reforms was greeted at his two hundred and tenth lecture, on Monday, March 25, when I was present, by the same matchless audience as to quantity and quality that he used to have when his lectureship was a novelty. I know Boston, and I know that its aggressive leaders were largely represented and profoundly appreciative of the speaker's words that were half-battles. That the lectures are less published than formerly is due to the fact that Mr. Cook prefers to publish them in his own magazine, *Our Day*. His engagements to lecture, at prices like those of Gough and Phillips, five or six times per week from four to six months per year, do not betoken fading popularity.

WILBUR F. CRAFTS.

BOSTON, March 26, 1889.

FAUST AND LESSING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your first impression about Prof. Moritz Carriere's article on the authorship of Goethe's "Faust," attributing it to Lessing, that it was only a "clever (?) bit of persiflage," was, after all, the correct one. Prof. Carriere declared it so under his own signature in a letter which, unfortunately, I have not at hand and can therefore not quote, addressed to the *Revue Politique et Littéraire* (*Revue Bleue*) of Paris, which had fallen into the same mistake as the *Nation*, and for the same reason. Prof. Carriere's case is a little like the boy's who had to write under his drawing, "This is an ox." The learned Professor omitted to write as an epigraph to his paper: "This is a joke."

Yours truly, A. C.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 6, 1889.

Notes.

HARPER & BROTHERS publish this week 'Further Reminiscences,' by W. P. Frith; the third edition, revised to date, of 'A Manual of Historical Literature,' by President Adams of Cornell University; 'The Tramp at Home,' by Lee Meriwether—studies in the condition of the working classes; and 'The Mouse-Trap, and Other Farces,' by W. D. Howells, illustrated by C. S. Reinhart.

Macmillan & Co. announce as the second issue in their dainty "Temple Library" 'The Poems and Plays of Oliver Goldsmith,' edited by Austin Dobson, and illustrated by six etchings; in their new "English Men of Action" series, a 'Life of Livingstone,' by Thomas Hughes; in their new "Library of Philosophy," 'Epistemology, or the Science of Knowledge,' by Dr. James Ward of Trinity College, Cambridge, and a translation of Erdmann's smaller 'History of Philosophy,' in three volumes; and 'The Swiss Confederation,' by Sir Francis Ottiwell Adams and C. D. Cunningham.

'John Charaxes,' a novel imputed to Mr. George Ticknor Curtis, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co. It bears upon the question leading up to the civil war.

Cassell & Co. have published a new edition of the 'Life and Times of John Bright,' by William Robertson, which originally stopped at the year 1883. It is now brought down to the present moment, when the great orator and reformer is no more. This work is, in a literary point of view, much inferior to Mr. G. Barnett Smith's memoir (1881), but as it, too, quotes freely from Mr. Bright's speeches, it cannot be thought superfluous for reference on the same shelf with Mr. Smith's. We could say this with greater emphasis if the index were adequate, which it is far from being. The thirty-eighth chapter, for example, is on "The Civil War in America," but no reference to the war, to the cause of it, or even to the United States, is to be found in the index. Mr. Robertson's capacity for historical summaries outside of his own province is shown by his account of the origin of the rebellion: "The quarrel arose through there being a disposition in the North to abolish slavery throughout the Union; and the election of Abraham Lincoln, who was the first anti-slavery President, brought matters to a climax," etc. Not a few admirers of Mr. Bright will wish the last chapter, on his attitude towards Home Rule, had never had to be written.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish a complete edition, in four volumes, of the works of the late Rowland G. Hazard, edited by his granddaughter, Caroline Hazard. It consists of two volumes of miscellaneous essays arranged under a general head, and two distinct philosophic treatises on the Will; and all bound so that each volume can be bought separately. That on Language contains a brief and interesting memoir of the author, but it ought to receive a title which would suggest the nature of its contents more accurately, for it is really a collection of interesting literary, moral, and biographical essays. The philosophic volumes on "Freedom in Willing" have

a double interest in having originated, one of them from a suggestion of Dr. Channing that he refute the arguments of Jonathan Edwards, and the other in a correspondence and controversy with John Stuart Mill, and also in having been the work of a man who was engaged all his life in manufacturing and business. Several essays are published for the first time. The collection on "Politics and Economics" contains several on questions of current public interest, one written in 1864 on the wool tariff, and one in 1885 on the existing tariff in general. One in 1840, after the election of Gen. Harrison, on political morality, outlines the present position of the Independents as to civil-service reform. All show how much a busy man with a sound moral and philosophic judgment may do for literature, benevolence, and good government, the three objects for which Mr. Hazard seemed to live. The paper and print are excellent, and the editing is of the best.

Dr. Georg Steindorf of the Berlin Museum has translated Maspero's 'Egyptian Archæology' into German (Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann). The German edition is more convenient than the French original or the English translation by Miss Amelia B. Edwards, as it is provided with an index. Dr. Steindorf has also added some valuable notes.

Cassell & Co. send us their annual 'National Academy Notes,' Mr. Charles M. Kurtz's illustrated catalogue of the exhibition of which we speak in another column.

The February *Portfolio* (Macmillan) has for frontispiece an exceptionally fine photogravure after one of the three Van Eycks in the National Gallery, the turbaned head of an unknown man; W. J. Loftie's papers on Westminster Abbey are continued, with the aid of a variety of illustrations; and others, on the Certosa of Pavia, by Selwyn Brinton, are begun, with two process views of the façade. Dartmoor is the subject of papers in both the February and March numbers, with etchings of scenery and cuts of antiquities.

L'Art for February 1 (Macmillan) offers new documentary evidence concerning the Bellini family of painters, and numerous examples of the art of the late Eugène Lavieille, the landscapist, who died in January last. In the issue for February 15 Troyon is the leading theme, again with much accessory illustration. It is told of this painter that he acquired the masterpieces of contemporary artists, like Delacroix, Rousseau, Millet, Dupré, leaving at his death a very pretty fortune in this collection. He was an indefatigable worker, and of equal modesty and independence.

The *Photographic Times* of this city, for April 5, tells of a prize worth $200 offered by the Executive Committee of the Photographers' Association of America for three plain photographs illustrating Longfellow's "Evangeline."

The veteran philanthropist George Jacob Holyoake has just begun "an occasional magazine advocating the amity of nations," called the *Universal Republic*, and published at 6 Salisbury Court, Fleet Street, London, E. C. He disclaims any thought of profits from the enterprise, and apparently does not contemplate an organized propaganda; nor do we find in the first number any definite statement of means to the desired end, though there is reference here and there to things which make for international peace and good-will. Mr. Holyoake's address is Eastern Lodge, Brighton, England.

The fourth number of the seventh series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science relates to the "Municipal History of New Orleans," the writer being Mr. William W. Howe. The fifth section deals with charitable endowments, and gives, among others, a brief account of the McDonogh fund, with which the city builds its school-houses.

We have received the March Proceedings of the American Society for Psychical Research (Boston: Damrell & Upham), in which the general reader will find most entertainment from studying the report of the Committee on Phantasms and Presentiments, by Prof. Josiah Royce, the appendix of narratives, and Prof. Royce's comment on these. We pick out a practical item from a communication on the general subject by Prof. Coleman Sellers, under date of December 20, 1888, to the effect that "a flash of thought" unconnected with a conscious train of reflection gave him an invention for "racking back" on the Remington type-writer, in a manner corresponding to the advance by means of the spacing-key.

The Proceedings of the American Oriental Society at Philadelphia last autumn have been issued in connection with vol. xiv of the Journal. Vol. xiii, with the Proceedings to May, 1888, is promised shortly.

"The Dimensions of the Babylonian Ark" are discussed in No. 36 of the *American Journal of Philology*, by Paul Haupt, after the cuneiform tablet. He even determines the draught of the vessel, viz., 80 half-cubits; the Babylonian cubit being .5328 metres.

H. Gaidoz, in *Mélusine* for March 5, takes up once more the judgment of Solomon, using as his point of departure an ancient intaglio, apparently of Eastern origin, which represents the disputed infant held like a frog by the King, while the executioner is ready to divide it with his sword, and one of the women is suppliant at Solomon's knees. Solomon, M. de Longpérier has remarked, is slighted by the evangelists, and has rarely been the theme of Oriental Christian art. With the Arabs his vogue was quite different.

We learn that the Greek Government has taken the privilege of excavating Delphi from both French and Americans, and given the concession to the Greek Archæological Society exclusively.

"C. W. G." writes us from Philadelphia: "Apropos of your recent correspondence regarding the word *topsyturvy*, it may not be uninteresting to call your readers' attention to the τρέπουσα τύρβ' ἄνω κάτω of Æschylus. Of course it is only a coincidence of sound and idea alike between the Greek and the English. Not often does our language take up words from another and make a common or vulgar use of them, as the French has done with the *tohubohu* of the Hebrew. Even so plausible a derivation as that of the French *charivari* from the late Greek χαλυβάρια (kettles) is to be received with much caution unless the history of the word can be traced."

The attention of the editor of the *Revue Historique* may be called to the fact that Prof. J. (not "G.," as he has it) B. McMaster did not die upon the completion of the second volume of his 'History,' as is stated by Mr. A. Moireau in the March-April number, page 420.

Prof. O. H. Mitchell, who held the chair of Mathematics at Marietta College, Ohio, died of pneumonia on the 29th of March, at the age of thirty-seven. He was one of the authors of the 'Studies in Logic by Members of the Johns Hopkins University.' His paper on a new method of Symbolic Logic in that volume was a work of great originality, and we venture to predict that it will hereafter be found to be the most valuable contribution that has yet been made to that subject. He also contributed several articles to the *American Journal of Mathematics*.

—The newly-issued Calendar of the University of Michigan indicates an unprecedented attendance of students at that institution. The total registration for the current academic year is 1,882. In view of Governor Luce's recent recommendation of an increased fee for non-residents of the State, it is of some interest to see where these students come from. Of the total number Michigan furnishes 876, or about 46 per cent.; 695 come from other Western States and the Territories; 146 from the Middle States; 45 from the Southern States; 32 from New England, and 88 from various foreign countries. It is in general somewhat difficult to formulate the motives which govern American youth in their choice of a college. Often the son goes where his father went. Again, social or confessional grounds, or the recommendation of a teacher or pastor, becomes the decisive consideration. Much more rarely than trustees and professors like to think, probably, does the choice turn upon a deliberate preference of the youth themselves for particular teachers or particular "facilities." But, in spite of the difficulties besetting the subject, if the question be raised, what it is that draws a thousand students from outside of Michigan to Michigan's University, we should venture to guess that, along with the institution's atmosphere of liberty and the admitted excellence of its "plant," its low fees have a great deal to do with the matter. At present a resident of the State pays in fees for his whole four years' course from $90 to $110; a non-resident from $145 to $165. The administration of the University is historically committed, for reasons that are not far to seek, to this policy of low fees, but the founders of the policy, of course, had in mind primarily the needs of Michigan students. There exists no good reason in logic or in political economy why the people of a State should go out of their way to furnish cheap education to those who are not of the State. On the other hand, it is tolerably certain that any considerable increase in the fees of non-residents—that is, any increase worth talking about from a fiscal point of view—would greatly cut down the attendance of foreign students, and thus not only deprive the establishment of whatever prestige there is in numbers, but perhaps actually reduce the total revenue received. Friends of the present arrangement argue that the foreign students are worth, in a purely pecuniary sense, more than they cost. We do not know whether this somewhat singular problem of State politics, if so it may be called, has come to the front elsewhere than in Michigan or not.

—No period of history is so difficult to study as the most recent, partly from the lack of perspective with which we look at events near to us, partly for the reason that the materials for this study are only by slow degrees gathered, sifted, and assayed. A great deal of the most valuable material, indeed, will not be accessible until another generation. The lack of perspective cannot, of course, be remedied; the defect of materials has been largely supplied by the admirable syllabus of Professors Levermore and Dewey, entitled 'Political History since 1815' (Boston: Schofield). This consists of an introduction and twenty-four lectures, which begin with England and end with Africa, the United States being excluded. Being a "political" history, it takes no account, except incidentally, of other departments of the subject; wars are of course referred to, but even economical and industrial history receives rather scant attention. Perhaps, to have given

these events the space which they required would have unduly swollen the bulk of the book; as it stands, it only professes to take up a limited field, and this it does almost exhaustively. A more serious defect is the absence of a general sketch. It is a series of national histories, but we find no general history of the period, nothing to show the relation of the nations to one another, and the succession of great European controversies. We hope that a future edition will add two or three lectures, to coördinate the information contained in the present work, and present a combined view of the history of mankind during this period. This would be assisted by chronological and genealogical tables, and by an index, which the present volume lacks.

—In the *Nation* of April 28, 1887, we noted the beginning of a series of "Einzelbeiträge zur allgemeinen und vergleichenden Sprachwissenschaft," to be published by W. Friedrich of Leipzig. The third number of the collection, which now lies before us, is a volume of 354 pages by Dr. Kurt Bruchmann of Berlin, and is entitled 'Psychologische Studien zur Sprachgeschichte.' The book bears the motto "Feeling is everything." It is essentially an attempt to throw light upon the parallel development of feeling, thought, and language as mutually affected and determined by one another. Our attention is drawn to the fact that in all languages many phrases and sentences are employed which seem, on the face of them, to have an intellectual basis—that is, to imply thought, conviction, intention—when in reality they do nothing of the kind, but are mere senseless expressions of emotion. To introduce us to his line of thought, Dr. Bruchmann comments upon the sentence, "Go to the devil." He observes that the one who delivers this command does not expect any one to "go" anywhere. Very likely he does not believe that there is any devil. Also, he is fully aware that the person addressed would be quite at a loss, if he wished, to execute the order given. In short, the words of this command are hardly "language" at all, but a mere expression of strong disapproval, a sort of roundabout "ugh." Taking this case as a starting point, the author proceeds to quote from many different literatures a large number of locutions which illustrate this tendency of speech. The second part of the volume is devoted to psychological observations upon the data collected. Its style is somewhat too abstract and metaphysical to be fascinating, and the reader occasionally comes across a very simple and familiar idea couched in verbose and circuitous phraseology. Nevertheless, the work presents an interesting contribution to an important line of linguistic study. It deserves to be generally read by philologists.

—It has been announced that the third and last part of the Norwegian Professor Sophus Bugge's 'Studien über den Ursprung nordischer Götter- und Helden-Sagen' is about to appear. This announcement will be received with the greatest interest by mythologists as well as by the students of Teutonic philology. The first two parts appeared, as will be remembered, in 1881, and caused no little stir in the scientific world, especially in Germany, whose scholars used to consider the Norse mythology as representative of the original Teutonic, and in the Scandinavian myths loved to find manifestations of the pure and unadulterated German spirit. For in this work Mr. Bugge boldly asserted the influence, not only of the Christian religion, but also of the ancient Greek-Roman mythology—through Christian missionaries, be it understood—upon the old Norse myths. At the same time the Scandinavian poets, even if their subjects were partly foreign, treated this borrowed matter in an entirely national manner, so that the Old Norse poems are none the less characteristic manifestations of the Scandinavian genius. In the two parts of this work which have already appeared, Prof. Bugge treats of the Balder myth—the "white god" who has so many traits of character in common with Christ. The late Prof. Müllenhoff of Berlin assaulted Prof. Bugge vehemently in the fifth volume of his 'Deutsche Alterthumskunde.' Nevertheless Bugge, in the last part of his book, which treats of the Scandinavian Freyja, a goddess bearing in many respects a striking resemblance to the Roman Venus, still upholds his theory, and even considers it definitively proved.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.—II.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part iv, sec. 1. Bra—Byz, completing vol. i (A and B). Part iv, sec. 2. C—Cass, commencing vol. ii. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York; Macmillan & Co. 1888.

Let us now turn to another branch of the subject which is of more peculiar interest to us in this country, but which at present seems to be exercising the minds of Englishmen also. The question of Americanisms has recently come to attract attention in a marked degree. This is partly due to the fact that there is supposed to be a great divergence going on between the language of Great Britain and that of the United States. English writers make it of late the subject of constant comment, and American ones, so far now from resenting it, are disposed to plume themselves upon the fact. That differences must arise is inevitable. They will spring up wherever new conditions demand new words or demand the use of old words in new senses. In that respect they will develop themselves as rapidly in Australia as in America. There are, besides, peculiarities of usage belonging to one section of the Anglo-Saxon race which will find no admission, or very late admission, into the other. Actual differences of pronunciation do exist and will continue to exist, and that, too, in cases where it is almost impossible to furnish a reason for the divergence. No satisfactory explanation has yet been given of the almost absolute failure of the misuse of the letter H to reproduce or perpetuate itself upon American soil. It is common in England now; in its origin it goes back to the remotest times; yet for some inexplicable cause the air of this country seems fatal to its survival, though it must often have been imported at different periods. Take an even more striking illustration, because it extends to the educated classes in both countries: if the assertion of Prof. Skeat is to be trusted, it is the exception rather than the rule that the aspirate in words like *which*, *whig*, *why*, is pronounced in Great Britain. In the United States the failure to pronounce the aspirate would be the exception rather than the rule.

Differences therefore exist, and they have of late been made especially prominent by two causes. One of them is the custom of selecting slang or popular phrases from all parts of America, and then composing a piece of some length in which they are all carefully included. This within the past few years has been frequently practised by English writers, sometimes for the sake of ridiculing the resultant speech, sometimes for the sake of admiring it as a vigorous Doric dialect racy of the soil. Now, if this sort of work were done accurately, which it very rarely is, the impression produced by it would be utterly misleading. In nearly all cases it is both misleading and incomprehensible. The native of this country who reads this specimen of attributed peculiarities of speech finds a perfectly familiar expression followed by others which are as strange to him as they would be to Englishmen. For the difficulty with a large proportion of Americanisms is that they are local. Common in one section, they are utterly unknown in another. Yet, while local, it is no easy matter to assign them precise or at any rate restricted limits. Such is the constant movement of population on this continent that expressions the most remote from the ordinary speech of any particular community may be found in the mouths of individuals residing in that community. In this way an entirely erroneous impression is given of the extent to which particular words and meanings and phrases are used. But manufactured articles of the kind we have spoken of are no more representative of the American speech as used anywhere than similar articles made up from the dialects of the various English counties would represent the speech of any Englishman anywhere.

Another and probably far more potent reason for the attention now paid to this subject, is that whenever the average English reviewer comes across a word in an American author with which he is unfamiliar, he immediately sets it down as peculiar to this country. Especially is this the case when some phraseology occurs to which he has for any reason taken a dislike. Unhappily it is the fact that good and often brilliant as are the critical essays in English periodical literature, they rarely exhibit much knowledge of the history of the English language, or betray any too great familiarity with the extent of its resources. Hence it is by no means an unexampled thing for the writers of them to attribute to America the origin of words and phrases which have belonged to our speech from the earliest period, and have been ever since more or less in use. Too often, also, these imaginary peculiarities of speech are made the vehicle for expressing an ill-concealed dislike; for England, which has added and still continues to add so many illustrious names to the royal race of authors, is specially fertile in the production of fifth-rate men of letters, who feel it constantly incumbent upon them to express profound disappointment in first-rate nations or profounder dissatisfaction with their manners and ways.

The present dictionary, as it proceeds, will make clearer and clearer the falsity of the belief which fancies that there is an increasing difference between the language of England and that of America. Instead of diverging they are approaching. It is inevitable that in a period like the present this should be the case. The means of communication between the two countries are too abundant, the communication itself is too frequent, and the steadily widening influences of a common literature are too potent, to permit the development of any differences upon a large scale. The forces that make for unity will always be increasingly powerful over those that make for diversity. One of the functions of this dictionary, therefore, will be to teach the English-speaking race what are strictly Americanisms. It is for that reason that we have taken exception to the habit of appending U. S.—which in this Part, however, we have not happened to observe—to some

peculiar usage which has been found in some one author who happens to be a native of this country, or, what is worse still, is the chance creation of some newspaper of no value or authority whatever. Americanisms can never be successfully treated so long as there is a failure to recognize the distinction between what is peculiar to the individual and what is characteristic of the nation, or at least some section of it. *Cabbalism*, for instance, is given in this dictionary with a query for one of its meanings, for which two passages are cited from Emerson. Now, the word, with this particular signification, is properly not credited to the United States, though used perhaps exclusively by a native writer; for it is very certain that nowhere in this country are men in the habit of going about and talking of "cabbalism," whatever may be the sense in which it is employed.

The information already collected in this work has been sufficient to dispose of a number of so-called Americanisms. In this respect its value will steadily increase as it advances further down the alphabet. To consult it on this one point will become increasingly necessary to writers on both sides of the Atlantic. At least it will be necessary to those who feel hesitation about pronouncing dogmatic judgments on matters of usage. A practical illustration will make clear the service it will render. At this very moment of writing we find in a late number of one of the best English literary periodicals an article upon Prof. Bryce's recent work upon this country, in which he is taken to task for employing certain words designated as Americanisms, though it is probable that this is the first time that most of them were ever included under that category. One of them is the word *anyhow*, and this usage the present dictionary enables us to test. We find it put down with two senses, and with several citations, none of which are of American origin. The earliest recorded instance of its appearance in print belongs to the year 1750, and among the authors employing it are Carlyle, Brougham, Freeman, and Newman. This seems to dispose pretty effectually of the charge of its being an Americanism, and the authority of the writers using it will probably be reckoned by most as at least equal to that of the critic who condemned it.

To descend to particulars about Americanisms, we remark a few slight deficiencies. *Campus*, used in many colleges in this country to designate the grounds about the buildings, does not perhaps deserve an entry; at any rate it does not get one. The decoy game *bunko* is very imperfectly defined—a thing perhaps not to be wondered at in proceedings about which neither the victim nor the sharper is usually anxious to diffuse information. *Brakeman* is put down as an American equivalent of the English "guard." If the English "guard" corresponds to the American "conductor"—and this is the explanation usually given in dictionaries—the statement is an error. Still, the greatest divergence which exists between the speech of the two countries is in the matter of railway terminology; and where the variation is so marked and so wide, it is hardly safe for one not fully acquainted with the usage of both to express a positive opinion. *Bull-pout*, which is queried as the name of an unknown American fish, is the same as "bull-head." We notice with some surprise that the phrase *one's cake is dough* is marked as obsolete. It is certainly far from being so in the United States. And though not strictly allied to the subject, we will remark that the novel 'Brother Jonathan,' which has been quoted several times in the course of this work, is the production of the eccentric American writer John Neal, who was in England from 1823 to 1827.

With the discussion of one word we close what we have to say of Americanisms. This is the ancient *casus belli*, the term *Britisher*. Here we are told that it is "apparently of U. S. origin, and chiefly used by or attributed to Americans." This rather cautious statement is followed by the assertion that Mr. Richard Grant White disclaimed its use in the United States, while Mr. Fitzedward Hall has known of its currency here all his life. No one can say what has not been common somewhere in a country so vast as this. Nor in any ordinary case would any scholar hesitate between authorities like Mr. White and Mr. Hall. Yet in the present instance we are bound to say that the former strikes us as being in the right; that while *Britisher* may have been employed in some sections of the Union, it has never been employed extensively. That it is of wide currency cannot be said of it even now. But whatever may be the actual facts, the treatment of the word in this dictionary hardly bears out the belief to which the editors evidently incline. While it is spoken of as being used chiefly by Americans, the singular state of things remains that not one illustration of its use is furnished from an American writer. Marryat, Leslie, Freeman, Stevenson, and the London *Spectator* are quoted; the American author is distinctly conspicuous by his absence. Later evidence may show that the term originated in the United States. We submit that all the evidence the dictionary so far has procured is that it originated in England.

In conclusion, we call attention to some of the most interesting facts which are contained in the preface to this completed volume. They will perhaps furnish to most a fuller idea than any description possibly can of the scale upon which this work is carried on, and of the results that have already been accomplished. The first volume, containing the letters A and B, embraces words to the number of 31,254. This includes what are called the main words, the variant forms, and the compounds that have a distinct meaning. If, however, the self-explaining compounds, which find a place in it, be included, the number will exceed 40,000. This would imply under the first estimate of over 31,000 that in the completed work there will be about 270,000 words recorded. But as during the period of its progress new accessions will be constantly received, it is safe to assume that the latter part of the alphabet will be proportionately fuller than the earlier, and that in the completed work the number will probably exceed 300,000.

It gives, moreover, a vivid conception of the riches of the English tongue and of the preservative power of its literature to learn that, of the more than 22,000 main words recorded here, those reckoned as obsolete are less than 6,000. Many of these latter have in truth never had any real life. They are found in the books of scholars, but they never passed into the speech of any class of educated men. There are probably scores of words contained in this volume that have never been used save by the man who originally created them. They will always be interesting as tentative efforts to express certain ideas, and no one need grudge them the space that is given here, for it is of the first importance that the dictionary should register all the terms to which English literature in its earlier stages has given birth. This from its very nature necessitates slow progress, and the work has certainly gone on slowly. But it would be a fatal error to hasten it at any sacrifice of completeness or accuracy. Such a course would be the last to meet with favor from the special body of men who are the most deeply interested in its success. If accuracy and completeness continue to be secured in the future as within reasonable limits they have been secured in the past, no serious complaints about delay will be made by scholars who have at heart the long-neglected interests of English lexicography, and who do not care so much for a work being done as for its being well done.

RECENT WORKS IN PHILOSOPHY.

A Critique of Kant. By Kuno Fischer. Translated from the German by W. S. Hough, Assistant Professor of Philosophy in Michigan University. Pp. 188. London: Swan Sonnenschein, Lowrey & Co. 1888.

Physical Realism. Being an Analytical Philosophy from the Physical Objects of Science to the Physical Data of Sense. By Thomas Case, M.A. 1 vol., 8vo, pp. 387. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

On Truth. A Systematic Inquiry. By St. George Mivart, Ph.D., M.D., F.R.S. 1 vol., 8vo, pp. 580. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1889.

Prof. Hough, in his preface, expresses the hope that his translation may prove helpful to students of Kant, but we cannot avoid believing that he labors under an illusion. Mere translations of Kantian philosophy effect very little for this end. They are well enough appreciated and understood by those who have been fortunate enough, after long study and much patience, to have found their way into the penetralia of that system, but they are to be regarded by others much as savages would regard the Rosetta stone. The reason for this is, that translations are only transliterations, and custom allows them to be nothing more. The diversities of conception and phraseology between English and German are so great that no hope can ever be entertained of making Kant intelligible to the very persons for whom a translation is presumably meant, except by a thorough exposition in vernacular English. The extent of the misunderstanding which is occasioned by translations is well shown in the cases of John Stuart Mill and Herbert Spencer, both of whom knew German philosophy only by this indirect medium. Mill, although holding Kantianism in contempt, by a little insight on his part, or by a little rational exposition on the part of others, might have seen that his "permanent possibility of sensations" was a foundation for a more radical transcendentalism than Kant's, and that the only logical issue of it is identical with Fichte's solipsism. Of Herbert Spencer a recent writer has truthfully remarked, that "he is Hegel upside down"; and certainly a man who affirms that it is indifferent whether we express the ultimate reality in terms of consciousness, or in terms of matter and motion, has little reason to oppose absolute idealism. But the fact is a measure of the evil attributable to translations.

Of the technical work of the translator there is less to criticise; Kuno Fischer is an easy author to reproduce in English. But it would have supplied a greater want had Prof. Hough translated the larger work of the same author on Kant. There is a most decided weakness in the uniform interpretation of *Vorstellung* as the German equivalent of "idea." Had the translator been acquainted with Sir William Hamilton's note on the history of that term, and the interminable confusion produced by it

in philosophy after Locke, he would have been more discriminating.

'Physical Realism' comes from Oxford, and is chiefly of interest because it marks a reaction against the influence of T. H. Green in that university. The whole work betrays the method of psychological analysis and the historical subject-matter peculiar to Green, but the position assumed and the mode of argument are designed directly to counteract the whole scheme of idealism. It is true that the author, in the chapter on Kant's 'Critique,' has scarcely entered the threshold of transcendentalism; but in assuming the position of the physical sciences he is sure of sympathy from that triumphant spirit with which, somehow or other, philosophy has never been able to reckon successfully. This opposition to idealism is all the more significant coming, as it were, from the very ranks of Green's students, so soon after the most earnest of English philosophers had cast off his mantle, because the returning swing of the pendulum may be accompanied by a theory from which the author will have more to fear than from idealism. But the most timely observation is one which needs to be better known, or more honestly admitted, than it is. People have got the impression, which philosophers have been interested in encouraging, that idealism is a vantage ground for religion, and so opposed alike to materialism and atheism. But the author very justly observes:

"A philosopher may hold that God causes physical nature and man apprehends it. He may be theologically an idealist, psychologically a realist. On the other hand, he may suppose that all sensible data are psychical facts, and yet doubt the existence of God. He may be psychologically an idealist, theologically an atheist. The founders of natural theology had no thought of making psychical facts the beginnings of human knowledge. The followers of Hume hardly consider themselves supporters of the doctrine that God created the world. These distinctions are of importance, because there is a crude notion in our times that idealism in mental philosophy is necessary to theology."

Mr. Case, however, is not a sceptic. On the contrary, he is an orthodox dualist, as well as a "physical realist"; and as the only argument for dualism he gravely quotes the language of Jesus to his doubting disciples after his resurrection. If this is to be the consummation of the matter, we should be tempted to accept idealism out of sheer despair. Otherwise, the work has critical merit of a high order.

St. George Mivart, in five chapters, also opposes idealism upon the grounds of physical science; but he has the misfortune of not understanding the theory, since he identifies it with the denial of an external world. This is the common fault of the scientific mind. Mivart has been one of the ablest of Darwin's critics, and so is a specialist in the problems of evolution, although a work some years ago on 'Nature,' as well as the present one, shows considerable ability in metaphysics. But this on 'Truth' is a kind of summary of the author's views on psychology, physiology, geology, and theology, and may be interesting to those who care to see what a specialist knows about everything. The work is not without merits of its kind, but it is mainly an attempt to defend theism against the supposed atheistic tendency of Darwinian evolution. We would venture to ask the author, what is to be gained by setting up deity behind the process of evolution, when that process is presented to us only as an exhibition of power? The conception of God is a complex one, including the notion of a creative first cause and the idea of moral perfection. The phenomena of nature in demanding a first cause to explain them may present no traces of such moral action and order as would make it necessary or valuable to use the name of God in connection with them. There is no necessary connection between power and virtue, or between physical causes and moral ideals. Hence, in attempting to vindicate theological beliefs about the relation of God to nature, we may forget the surreptitious reasoning involved in supposing that the use of this conception to satisfy the demands of causal explanation will carry along with it any implication of moral qualities. We can at best be but cultivating an agreeable illusion, much as the saint who counts his beads with a belief in their spiritual efficiency. The author does not seem to be conscious that his first problem is to prove that "the survival of the fittest" is compatible with the moral ideal which the conception of God contains. Until he does this, he is only defending phrases for the sake of their associations.

A White Umbrella in Mexico. By F. Hopkinson Smith. With illustrations by the Author. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. Pp. 227.

THIS dainty book tempts the critic to superlatives of praise; it is such a breath of spring after the wintry wastes through which other writers of books on Mexico have compelled him to toil, it is so thoroughly successful in the single line the author proposes to himself to follow, and so faithfully reproduces the most unique savor of Mexican life. The writer knows nothing of Mexican trade or politics or statistics—let the reader thank heaven for that, and take courage. Mexican archæology and history he puts firmly to one side; would that many of his predecessors had done the same! He is content, as he himself says, to

"revel in an Italian sun lighting up a semi-tropical land; to look up to white-capped peaks towering into the blue; to look down upon wind-swept plains encircled by ragged chains of mountains; to catch the sparkle of miniature cities jewelled here and there in oases of olive and orange; and to realize that to-day, in its varied scenery, costumes, architecture, street life, canals crowded with flower-laden boats, market plazas thronged with gayly dressed natives, faded church interiors, and abandoned convents, Mexico is the most marvellously picturesque country under the sun. A tropical Venice! a semi-barbarous Spain! a new Holy Land!"

In a word, Mr. Smith gives us in this book what has never before been worked out so fully and so delightfully—the immense charm which Mexico has for a Bohemian saunterer, with a keen eye for the artistic, and a decided preference for the society of beggars and idlers and sacristans. Others have hinted at all this often enough; he is the first to give himself and his book wholly up to it. We must let him state the matter again, writing this time of Zacatécas:

"No such scene exists in any quarter of the globe where I have wandered: a brilliant sky, blue as a china plate; blinding sunlight; throngs of people in red, orange, or blue; women in rebozos and scarlet sashes; men wearing vermilion zarapes about their shoulders, with wide hats trimmed with silver, and breeches of pink buckskin held together down the sides by silver buttons; donkeys piled high with great sacks of silver ore; cavaliers on horseback, with murderous rowels in the heels of their riding boots, their Mexican saddles festooned with lassos and lariats; soldiers, carrying carbines and mounted on spirited horses, guarding gangs of convicts, each one of whom staggers under a basket of sand held to his back by a strap across his forehead; great flocks of sheep blocking up the narrow streets, driven by shepherds on horseback, changing their pasture from one hillside to another—the whole completes a picture as strange as it is unique."

Mr. Smith appreciates as highly as many of his predecessors the architectural and artistic treasures to be found in so many Mexican churches. We do not remember that any one, however, has so roundly denounced the madness of those restorers and renovators who have already gone fearful lengths of hideousness, and whose career seems yet to be far from a close. He gives expression to a fear, in one case, which many others must have felt in many cases:

"Some day they will take up a collection, or an old Don will die and leave a pot of money, 'to restore and beautify the most holy and sacred, the church of Santa Clara,' and the fiends will enter in and close the church, and pull down the old pictures and throw away the lamps, chairs, and candlesticks, and whitewash the walls, regild the huge frame of the sacristy door, and make dust-rags of the pomegranate silk. Then they will hang a green and purple raw silk terror, bordered with silver braid, in its place, panel the whitewashed walls in red stripes, bracket pressed-glass kerosene lamps on the columns, open the edifice to the public, and sing Te Deums for a month in honor of the donor."

The publishers have done their best to give Mr. Smith a proper setting-out, and the book's heavy paper and wide margins and cover of white and gold and gray make up a very pleasing total. For the illustrations one ought to be profoundly thankful if only because they are new; the deplorable old plates which have so long gone the rounds can easily be spared. But Mr. Smith's sketches have more than this negative merit; they seem to us to be on too small a scale, as a rule, to yield the best effects, but they are most thoroughly worked out, are usually characteristic bits, and somehow fit in better with the good-natured and ostentatiously lazy air of the book than would more ambitious work. A few slips in Spanish, and an occasional failure to hit off usage, help to reëstablish the critic in his belief in the fallibility of mortals.

Sigurd Slembe: A Dramatic Trilogy. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Translated from the Norwegian by William Morton Payne. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THIS poem is presented by the translator as the finest work of Björnson, and it is clear that great care has been devoted to the English of the version, but it has not been rendered so successfully as to make it an English poem. The story is a long one. It is divided into three parts, corresponding to three periods in the life of the hero. Sigurd was an illegitimate son of Magnus Barfod of Norway, and, on learning the secret of his birth, makes it the aim of his life to obtain his rightful place as a sharer in the crown to which he is heir. He determines to go on crusade first, and by accident comes to Scotland, where he remains in the service of the King, and is attracted to a feud going on in the Orkneys, which he feels called upon to settle. He obtains power there, but fails to use it, and at last deserts the place, notwithstanding he has won the love of a maiden with whom it is "death" to part. He then goes on crusade for several years, returns to Norway, claims his place peacefully, and is refused his right: his mind is embittered by seeing the state of affairs, and after a while he gathers an army and fights for his crown, but is beaten and dies.

The poem, not being a drama, is not dependent on these events for its interest. It is, in fact, what it is now the fashion to call the history of a soul; and it does not avoid the danger of such a poem—it falls between two stools. It is neither dramatic nor psychological, neither action nor thought; but one phase is continually interfering with the other, to the blur

and confusion of both. One fails to see why Sigurd, who is eminently a man of action, is unable to take wise and definite resolutions at the proper moment; and as to the other characters, they strike a foreigner as very primitive types. A scene may be laid in the childhood of nations, but the hero of a psychological drama must be more than a Fortinbras; and the most real part of this poem is its blood and savagery, not its introspection. The incapacity of the characters even for practical thought is amazing; none of them—except *Koll*, who is a kind of oracular owl—behaves with sense in the circumstances; indeed, when *Harald*, an exceedingly childish imitation of *Hamlet*, and the King, who is no more nor less than an imbecile, are included, the whole poem offers a mélange of mental incompetency which it would be hard to rival. There seems to be a Christian lesson at the bottom of it all, but it is difficult to make out anything more than that a heavenly inheritance is better than the Norwegian crown; and Sigurd had spiritual experiences, but they are not defined or motived so as to be made necessary parts of his life.

Altogether, the poem seems to us a "sport," such as native literatures show examples of not infrequently in their early development, owing to unreconciled elements in the culture and the material of the poet—neither pagan nor Christian, neither action nor reflection, neither idyl nor real life, but a mixture of all these. Yet it is to be remembered that in the Scandinavian and Teutonic imagination there is often a *simplesse* which is a stumbling-block to the taste and interest of the foreigner. It is needless to say that in passages independent of the action there is often poetical feeling, especially where landscape is used as a background; and there are also interesting expressions of political ideas bearing on the general lot of man and the character of aristocracies. But this is a modern note wholly out of keeping. In Norway the poem is highly regarded, and consequently it must fall in with national feeling and ideas, by a harmony the secret of which is unknown to us.

John Lee of Agawam (Ipswich), Massachusetts, 1634-1671, and his Descendants of the name of Lee. With genealogical notes and biographical sketches of all his descendants, so far as can be obtained, including notes on collateral branches. Compiled by William Lee. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. 1888. 8vo, pp.

THE name Lee (or Leigh) is quite common in England, especially in Cheshire, and several distinct and unconnected stocks have been planted in the New World. The book under notice traces the Ipswich family, descended from a John whom a dubious tradition states to have been born at London. This branch has prospered and increased, and has found a very careful and diligent historian. We cannot commend the rather diffuse style of printing adopted, but that is our only criticism, and we doubt not the book will be warmly received by the family, while it secures an honorable place on the shelves of the collector.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams—Cunningham. The Swiss Confederation. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Bastin, Prof. E. S. College Botany, including Organography, Vegetable Histology, Vegetable Physiology, and Vegetable Taxonomy. Illustrated. Chicago: G. P. Engiehard & Co. $3.
Boardman, Rev. G. D. The Ten Commandments: A Course of Lectures delivered before the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vols. XI. and XII. Macmillan & Co. $1.50 each.
Callendar, H. L. A Manual of Cursive Shorthand. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Church, Rev. A. J. Henry the Fifth. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Deighton, K. The Winter's Tale; with an Introduction and Notes. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Eliot, Annie. An Hour's Promise. Cassell & Co.
Fitzgerald, Caroline. Venetia Victrix. Macmillan & & Co. $1.25.
Fox, W. F. Regimental Losses in the American Civil War. 1861—1865. Albany Publishing Co.
Franklin, Rev. B. Marriage and Divorce in Physical, Psychical, Moral and Social Relations; according to the Law Natural and Revealed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
Hall, Rev. J. G. Shakespeare versus Ingersoll. Cleveland, O.: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Hardy, A. H. The Maid of Bethany: A Study of the Christ. Springfield, Mass.: Author's Edition.
Harper—Burgess. An Inductive Latin Method. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Hamilton, Prof. D. J. A Text-Book of Pathology, Systematic and Practical. Macmillan & Co. $6.25.
Hauff, W. The Caravan, and the Sheik of Alexandria. Translated by S. Mendel. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Hubbard, J. M. Catalogue of the Works of William Shakespeare, Original and Translated, together with the Shakespeariana embraced in the Barton Collection of the Boston Public Library. Boston.
Hughes, T. English Men of Action: David Livingstone. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Jackson, A. W. The Immanent God, and Other Sermons. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co. $1.
Jerram, C. S. Græce Reddenda: or, Miscellaneous Exercises for Practice in Greek Prose Composition. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Judas Iscariot: An Old Type in a New Form. Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 180. January—March, 1889. Boston: Littell & Co.
Living Voices of Living Men: Practical Sermons by Bishops and Clergy of the Church. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Lossing, B. J. Hours with the Living Men and Women of the Revolution: A Pilgrimage. Illustrated. Funk & Wagnalls.
Macknight, J. A. Hagar. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Macmillan, Prof. M. Scott's Rokeby. With Introduction and Notes. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Moody, Martha L. Alan Thorne. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
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Steel, C. F. Is there Any Resemblance between Shakespeare and Bacon? London: Field & Tuer.
Symons, A. Days and Nights. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

THE present exhibition of the National Academy of Design is not the best it has held, yet it contains many more good works than one would at first imagine. The hanging has not been judicious, and the general effect of the galleries is disturbing and disagreeable, and the good work must be patiently looked for before it is found. Much of it is almost out of sight on the top row, and the rest of it is apt to lose from ill-chosen surroundings. Nearly all of the portraits have, by a singular whim, been placed together in the small east room, and the rows of life-sized figures thus seen together in a restrained space have an unpleasant effect. At the same time, their absence from the other galleries, where they would have been available, from size alone if from no other quality, as centring masses around which to gather the smaller canvases, gives these rooms a meagre and scattered appearance. Another result of the gathering together of some sixty portraits in one small room is that many of them must be sacrificed in the hanging, and it is, therefore, not astonishing to find that some of the best of them are "skied."

There is no better portrait in the exhibition than that, by Mr. Vinton, of William Simes, No. 245, which is so placed. It is good, clean, vigorous work, with a strong feeling of vitality and character about it—not a lovely canvas, but it represents a *man*. Mr. Vinton's other portrait, No. 303, which is on the line, is also a workmanlike piece of painting, but is not equal to the first in interest. Another of the good things is Mr. W. M. J. Rice's portrait of a lady seated at the piano, No. 257, which, though a trifle dry and hard, is a grave and serious effort, good in drawing and character, and deserves a better place than it has found. Other portraits which, while not as good as these two, yet seem to us to be too good for the lofty positions they occupy, are Mr. Denman's portrait, No. 307, and a pleasantly conceived and executed three-quarter length, No. 262, "Sister Lillie," by Edmond E. Tarbell. Mr. Wyatt Eaton is also among those who hold the top of the wall, but his picture this year is singularly infelicitous, and does not recall the painter of so many fine and sober works.

When we come down from these heights, and look at the portraits which are nearer the eye, we find, very naturally, that Mr. Chase first demands our attention. His "Lady in Pink," No. 251, is a delightful bit of color and of skilful handling, but the sitter is perhaps a little sacrificed to the gown, and the head is less satisfactorily solid and human than in some other of the artist's works. If, however, it is too much a picture of a gown, the gown itself is superbly painted. Mr. Eastman Johnson is represented by a sound and satisfactory "Portrait of a Gentleman," No. 260, and a less satisfactory portrait of a boy; Mr. Blashfield, by a handsome and vigorous, but somewhat too academic portrait of a lady; Mr. Millet, by a delicately painted "Portrait of Miss W.," No. 279; Mr. Frank Fowler, by a clever head entitled "Jeanne" and a portrait; and Mr. R. G. Hardie, by a workmanlike portrait of Mr. Horace White. Mr. Dewing has a small bust-portrait of a lady here, No. 304, and a small full length of a "Girl in Black," No. 386, in the South Gallery, which possess the unmistakable distinction that marks his work, but which seem to us less fully successful than the "Lady in Yellow" of last year, or the even more beautiful portrait exhibited at the Society of American Artists two years ago. They are delicately and beautifully drawn, but the "Girl in Black" is certainly too tall, and both pictures seem a trifle artificial in color. Nevertheless they are among the best things in the exhibition. Mr. Beckwith's little head called "Monsieur est servi," No. 247, is in his best vein of direct and free painting, and is cooler and better in color than some of his efforts have been.

The place of honor in the South Gallery has been most properly given to Mr. Hovenden's large canvas, "In the Hands of the Enemy (after Gettysburg)," No. 360, which is by odds the most important piece of genre in the exhibition. The story told is a serious one, which is as well if we are to have stories in paint, and it is well and dramatically told, without suspicion of melodrama or exaggeration, but with right moderation and reserve. The abstinence from blood is especially noteworthy. While without any special charm or brilliancy of technique, it is thoroughly and soberly painted; and in one part, the group to the left lit by the window with its drawn curtain, the painting is nearly beautiful. The only serious fault of the picture is the slip in the drawing of the head of the girl who stands behind the wounded Confederate's chair, and the smallness of her hand, which give a slightly petty air to the composition. Take it for all in all, it is a most meritorious performance, and is certainly the best thing that Mr. Hovenden has yet done.

Two other genre pictures that will probably come in for consideration when the prizes are given (Mr. Hovenden being an Academician, and therefore ineligible) are Mr. Blum's "Two Idlers," No. 132, and Mr. Wiles's "Sonata," No. 234. Mr. Blum's picture is astonishingly clever and able, and contains delightful bits of painting which for technical quality could not be surpassed by Boldini himself, but he has either not cared for or not succeeded in preserving truth of value, and some of the tones

in the foreground are much lighter than they should be in relation to the sunlight beyond. Mr. Wiles's canvas is of evener merit, and while it has nothing quite so charming in it as some bits of the other, it is free from the faults of the other also. Both pictures are so good that the Clarke prize would be well bestowed upon either.

Two good bits of work by young Americans residing abroad, which deserve better places than have been given them, are Mr. Simmons's "Old Man and Child," No. 429, and Mr. Theodore Earl Butler's "A Widow," No. 421. Mr. Butler is a very young man, who has been studying in Paris for a few years, and this is, we believe, the first picture he has sent back. It is a grave and serious piece of work, and gives decided promise for the future. Mr. Simmons's work is already well known, and this piece of it is well up to his standard. Another piece of solid and quiet painting, possibly a little dry and lacking in atmosphere, but careful and realistic, is Mr. Ward's "Block Maker," No. 354. A large picture, which we hardly know whether to class as genre or historical painting, is Mr. C. S. Pearce's "Saint Genevieve," No. 494. It contains much good drawing and clean, respectable painting, but is painfully hard and airless.

Mr. H. Siddons Mowbray falls something below his best standard in the present exhibition. His "Arcadia" and "The Calendars," Nos. 513 and 317, contain, as a matter of course, much skilful and charming painting, but the latter is confused in perspective, and neither seems as careful and thorough in drawing as his work is wont to be. Mr. F. C. Jones is also less well represented than we could wish. Mr. R. V. V. Sewell and Mrs. Amanda Brewster Sewell send pictures showing careful observation and conscientious painting of figures in the open air, but their work is most interesting from its remarkable similarity. Another lady, Miss Frances Hunt Throop, sends a half-length figure of a little girl in a black dress, entitled "Spring Carnations," No. 182, which shows painter-like qualities, as does Mr. C. R. Grant's "The Morning News," No. 380.

Mr. Theodore Robinson, who has just returned from France, where he has been strongly influenced by Claude Monet and the Impressionists, sends a curious little canvas entitled "A King's Daughter," No. 471, in which a naïve classicism in subject is combined with extreme impressionism in handling. It is full of light and air, and the upper part of it is beautiful in form as well as in color, but the artist seems to have tired of his work before he had completed it, and the lower portion is less happy. As the picture stands, however, it is refreshingly airy and sunny, and makes the pictures about it seem heavy and painty by comparison. From the treatment of the nude Mr. Brush's naked Indian "Potter," No. 527, stands halfway between genre and the classic in art. Mr. Brush's severe, minute, and somewhat hard manner is well known and is well exemplified in the present work. The man's body is strongly drawn and modelled, and the painting of the leopard-skin and other accessories is wonderful in its way; but he has apparently found no model having the desired type of features, and has painted the head from memory or imagination, with some loss of solidity and construction.

Of the strictly classic there is very little in the Academy, the chief exceptions being Mr. Low's "Purple and Gold," No. 445, with its powerful and somewhat acid color scheme; Mr. Henry O. Walker's pleasing "St. John," No. 514; Mr. G. R. Barse's "Polyxena," No. 152, which shows knowledge and draughtsmanship, but is somewhat heavy and unpleasant in color; Mr. Frank W. Benson's cleverly but slightly painted "Orpheus," No. 483; and Mr. Maynard's "The Scroll," No. 394. Mrs. Rosina Emmett Sherwood ought to have a very good chance for the Dodge prize with her little pastel called "A Nymph of Hymen," which is a very graceful production.

We now come to the landscapes of the exhibition, and from its size, as well as from the leading position among our landscape painters occupied by its author, Mr. Inness's "Coming Storm," No. 325, falls first to be considered. The picture is somewhat crude in color, and less harmonious and complete in treatment than most of Mr. Inness's later work, but has a grand dramatic power which makes one willing to forgive its shortcomings. It is not seen to so good advantage here as it was in his own studio, and needs a few moments of attention before its merit is appreciated, but after these few moments its force makes itself felt, and it inevitably produces a profound impression. Very different is Mr. Wyant's "Landscape," No. 347, with its delicate, pearly tonality and quiet charm. Mr. Thomas Moran has two pictures, of which the smaller, a "Venice," No. 183, though exceedingly clever, shows somewhat too strongly the influence of J. M. W. Turner. The larger, "A Pastoral," No. 383, possesses an undeniable scenic grandeur which would make one wish to see it as a back-drop in a production of "As You Like It." Its only fault as a composition is that it is a little too perfect, so that one feels that its trees and ponds have displayed considerable ingenuity in placing themselves so admirably. Mr. Homer D. Martin has two pictures, of which the smaller, called "Incoming Tide," No. 11, which is relegated to the corridor, is the better, and is a handsome piece of gray color.

Among the younger landscape painters, Mr. H. Bolton Jones, with an "Autumn," No. 328, in his familiar vein, Mr. Tryon, with a delicate piece of blue, called "Evening," No. 457, and Mr. Edward Gay, with his "Happy Summer Fields," No. 388, hold the first rank. Mr. J. Alden Weir is not as happy as he usually is in his "Rugged New England," No. 57, which is over-cold in color and over-pasty in handling to be altogether pleasant. Three very good landscapes which have been very badly placed are Mr. Eichelberger's "Harlem River," No. 430, Mr. Birge Harrison's "October in France," No. 537, and Mr. Charles H. Davis's "April," No. 547, while the worst treated picture in the whole exhibition, its merit considered, is Mr. W. A. Coffin's study of "The Rain," No. 34, a remarkably vigorous and truthful transcript of a difficult effect.

Mr. Horatio Walker, who may be classed as a landscape painter for the nonce, has a picture of some calves in a green field, No. 459, which he calls "Spring," and which has much of his usual refinement and charm. Mr. F. De Haven has an "Evening," No. 188, and Mr. W. Forsyth a "March," No. 215—handsome if sombre canvases both—and Messrs. Murphy, Palmer, Shurtleff, Bruce Crane, and Van Boskerck are fairly represented.

There is, as usual, but little sculpture, and what little there is is less fine than last year. Neither of Mr. Warner's contributions is as good as his fine bust of J. Alden Weir, nor is Mr. St. Gaudens's medallion of Robert Louis Stevenson, interesting as it is, equal to the best that he has done in this line. Mr. F. Edwin Elwell has a couple of clever sketchy busts in the picturesque manner that seems to be growing upon the sculptors of to-day, and Mr. French has a well-modelled bust of a boy.

As we have had some fault to find with the hanging of this collection, let us, in conclusion, do the Hanging Committee the justice to say that they have been very moderate in the amount of line-space appropriated for their own works.

It is to be regretted that the catalogue was not more thoroughly revised, as misprints, which must be annoying to the artists, are far from uncommon.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 18, 1889.

The Week.

THE Secretary of the Treasury on the 13th inst. broke the monotony of the recent calls of bond purchases by accepting a round amount of 4 per cents, for which he paid 129. For a long time past, the Department seems to have tabooed the 4 per cents, confining its purchases to the 4½s, and paying 108 for that issue. At the beginning of April, there are but $155,000,000 of the 4½s outstanding, against $681,000,000 of the fours; so that the area of purchase is very largely increased by the addition of the latter class. The purchase may be taken as an indication that Secretary Windom has now got down to business, and the time is therefore suitable for some remarks as to the policy of the Treasury towards the banks and the money-market. And first, it deserves to be recorded that Mr. Fairchild was the first Secretary of the Treasury to develop the system of Government deposits with the national banks as a mode of regular and permanent relief to the money market, in mitigation of the constant injury inflicted upon all trade and industry by the preposterous hoards of the Treasury. No Secretary is likely hereafter to undo this work, but Mr. Windom has an opportunity to improve it, and in two ways. He can rule, in accordance with the uniform practice before the decision of the late Comptroller of the Currency, that Government deposits require no reserve in lawful money; the pledge of United States bonds being ample, and so considered in the statute. And he can make his deposits at once more business-like and more favorable to the Treasury by requiring a small rate of interest upon them, say 2 per cent., if, upon consideration, such a course shall be found to be lawful. With $45,000,000 of bonds held as security for such deposits, and some $50,000,000 of available surplus, the requirement of interest would tend to facilitate bond purchases, and ample notice should be given of the intended change.

With regard to the bond purchases, it must be remembered that the 4½ per cents fall within the control of the Treasury in the autumn of 1891, and Mr. Windom will doubtless be inclined to repeat with this issue the success which he had in his former incumbency of his present office. Whatever amount of the 4½ per cents remains alive at the date of their maturity in 1891 can be extended on call at the pleasure of the Government, and probably at as low a rate as 2½ per cent. It seems desirable, therefore, that the 4 per cent. bonds should be the bulk of the Treasury purchases until that time; provided, of course, that they are not held too high. The question of interest on the Treasury deposits has a direct relation to this.

Three other New York editors are now added to the list of those who are in search of office. Prof. Charles E. Fitch of the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle* aspires to be made a Collector of Internal Revenue; Col. W. J. Morgan of the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser* hopes to be made Collector of the Port of Buffalo; and the Hon. John M. Francis of the Troy *Times* is so eager to get almost any kind of office that he has been to Washington in person in search of it. The number of Republican editors who have been subsidized by office, and the number who are said to be hoping for subsidy, now make a formidable list, as will be seen by the following enumeration:

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Whitelaw Reid, editor New York *Tribune*, Mission to France.

Allen Thorndike Rice, editor *North American Review*, Mission to Russia.

Murat Halstead, editor Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, Mission to Germany.

John A. Enander, editor Chicago *Hemlandet*, Mission to Denmark.

J. S. Clarkson, editor *Iowa State Register*, First-Assistant Postmaster-General.

John Hicks, editor Oshkosh *Northwestern*, Mission to Peru.

John C. New, editor Indianapolis *Journal*, Consul-General at London.

Ellis H. Roberts, editor Utica *Herald*, Assistant United States Treasurer at New York.

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Elliott F. Shepard, editor *Mail and Express.*

John M. Francis, editor Troy *Times.*

Charles E. Fitch, editor Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle.*

W. J. Morgan, editor Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser.*

The effect of the subsidy is perceptible in many ways, but especially in the treatment by the subsidized journals of the appointment of Van Cott as Postmaster of New York. Every one of them defends and approves it. It is a fact, also, that the newspapers which were boldest in inventing in advance lying excuses for Mr. Pearson's removal, were the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle* and the *Troy Times.*

Gen. Joseph C. Jackson of the Union League Club has, according to the *Commercial Advertiser*,

"been put forward as a candidate for United States District Attorney of this District, and his appointment has been asked for by a justice of the United States Supreme Court and by prominent journalists, lawyers, and business men, including Democrats as well as Republicans."

He ought not to get the place, however, unless he subscribed more handsomely to the campaign fund than we think he did—that is, at least as handsomely as Mr. Allen Thorndike Rice, whose contribution, which we thought was only $10,000, was, it appears, $15,000. The United States District Attorneyship at this point is worth more to a lawyer than the Russian mission to an editor, and ought to be down in the tariff at least at $15,000. We would not, were we in President Harrison's place, let Gen. Jackson have it for a cent less. If he has not paid the money already, he can send it to Quay *nunc pro tunc.*

The statements attributed to Secretary Noble in a recent interview as to his intention to make a clean sweep of the Democrats in the Interior Department as rapidly as possible, and fill the places thus made vacant with Republicans, were so extraordinary that we refused at first to accept them. But the Secretary has declined to avail himself of an opportunity to set himself right if he was misreported, and the correspondent of the Hartford *Times* quotes him as standing by what he was originally reported as saying. Corporal Tanner, the new Commissioner of Pensions, had tried to remove Gen. James B. Coit, a brave Connecticut soldier, who was a Democrat, and Mr. Noble had overruled him. The correspondent of the *Times* asked him what this action signified, and the Secretary replied: "My order to the Pension Commissioner was only intended to prevent the removal of such a man as Gen. Coit. I am not willing to see a man that fought all through the war, as did Coit, and who carries a lot of lead in his body as a memento, asked to step down and out, even though he may be a Democrat. But I am willing and anxious to see the Democrats turned out and their places filled by good Republicans. Tanner is no more of a partisan than I am. There are about 150 Democratic special examiners who can be put out and who will make room for Republicans. That's plain enough, isn't it? I am no Mugwump nor civil-service devotee. I believe in giving the places to Republicans, whenever opportunity offers without injury to the service."

It is very likely now that the seventh State to enact a ballot-reform law will be Minnesota. The lower house of the Legislature has passed, by a practically unanimous vote, the measure known as the Keyes bill, which is a complete application of the Australian system, and very similar to the laws of Massachusetts, Indiana, and other States. There is a chance that Connecticut may be the eighth State to fall into line, but the hostility of the politicians of both parties in the Legislature is causing delay, in spite of the strong pressure of public sentiment in favor of the reform. In New York State it is amusing to observe the efforts of the Hill organs to create sentiment in support of his expected veto of the Saxton bill by printing in full Mr. Sheehan's absurd speech, in which he denounced the Australian system, and favored an American system as more worthy the confidence of the American people. The great argument in favor of the Australian system is that it is not an experimental one. It has been in successful operation for thirty years, and one of its most salutary effects has been the suppression of "dealing" at the polls, an American institution which Mr. Sheehan and his friend the Governor are most anxious not to see disturbed.

The American Federation of Labor has issued, or is about to issue, an address in favor of the eight-hour movement. The address states that there are 1,000,000 men, who would be glad to work, unemployed in the United States. These people, it says, must be supported, and "it would be much cheaper to keep them employed than to keep them in idleness." This is the doctrine we have always held in respect to the inmates of our State prisons. Whether the American Federation of Labor holds that it is cheaper to keep criminals in idleness than to keep them employed, although the contrary rule is sound as to everybody else, we do not know; but we observe that every member of the Legislature who so holds, pretends to speak in the interest and with the authority of Labor. Would it not be a happy solution of the labor problem to enlarge the penitentiaries and make them comfortable and call them asylums or retreats, and then send all the unemployed with their families there, provided they were willing to go? Of course the idea of disgrace would not attach to a person who goes to prison voluntarily and as a means of relieving the labor market. But if it is advisable on purely economical grounds to support 50,000 men in idleness in State prisons and county jails, would it not be wise to support a million in the same way? Does the mere fact that a man has committed a crime make his support at the public expense desirable in the interest of Labor, while if he had remained honest it would not be desirable?

Our correspondent from South Carolina, on another page, makes out a strong case for his State in answer to our article on "Negro Convicts"; but, in spite of his explanations, we are not yet convinced. An examination of the Governors' reports on Pardons for 1885, 1886, and 1887 shows such an apparent recklessness in dealing with human liberty on the part of all connected with the courts, that much explanation will be necessary to remove the imputation these reports cast upon the State. It is true, we do not have before us all the papers in the cases, but we are certainly justified in assuming that the Governor is satisfied of the substantial accuracy of the statements upon which he bases his pardons, and that while they may not be wholly right, they are, in the main, correct. In any case, it ought not to be possible in any community for a man to be sent to prison for life without any evidence being heard against him, especially where it is alleged that he was induced to plead guilty while in liquor; nor should a person be sent to prison for even five years for stealing ten pounds of flour or a suit of clothes. Can our correspondent point to the case of any white man receiving such a punishment? It is probably true that the reasons on which the pardon is based are not known in all cases to the juries at the trial, but it can hardly be said that justice is dispensed in a court where, as in one case in 1886, the prosecuting attorney states that he was satisfied at the trial that material evidence had been withheld. In a Northern State, a prosecuting attorney would *nol. pros.* at once such a case as that of Prince Williams; but his case is matched by that of Frank Peters, convicted of the same offence in 1887. He had lived with a woman nearly twenty years "after the custom of slavery," and, becoming alarmed at the number of prosecutions for adultery, was formally married on the advice of white friends. Nevertheless, as a woman with whom he lived as a slave was alive, he was convicted, although this woman gave testimony in his favor. Of course, this case may be susceptible of explanation, but it ought never to have been tried unless a salutary effect on the colored race was expected of it.

Our correspondent says that the statute of 1883 was passed for the special benefit of negroes, but it seems at least curious that the discretion was given to the jury and not to the judge, as in Northern States; and it is to be noted that there is no case in the report where, so far as can be seen, a jury has recommended a negro to mercy under this act, and there are cases where the failure of the jury to make such a recommendation is urged as a reason for a pardon. It may be that crime has gradually diminished among the negroes since 1876, but it is strange to find 843 negro convicts in 1888 as against 575 in 1878, and that 76 persons under twenty years of age were received at the Penitentiary in 1878 and 196 in 1887. We would do no injustice to South Carolina, but our correspondent will agree that the matter deserves further investigation. We will add that we owe to the abolition of slavery the wholesome amenability of the South to outside criticism of a disinterested and friendly kind, which is one of the most potent forces for the regeneration of that section. Since our article was written, Gov. Richardson of South Carolina, in more or less conscious deference to this opinion, has given full and free pardon to two negroes, the first persons who had ever been convicted of murder by lynching. Their victim was a white man who had fatally outraged a colored girl. We gladly record this instance of a wise clemency, which the Governor takes care shall not be misunderstood.

The British finances show a surplus of £2,586,000 during the last fiscal year. This is due principally to an improvement in the foreign trade, which shows an increase of about 5 per cent., while that of England's Continental rivals shows a decrease. The two systems of free trade and protection are thus brought into sharp contrast. England's most persevering rival is Germany, and it was thought a few years ago that the latter was making gains at the expense of the former. But the reverse has proved to be true, and there is every reason to anticipate that England's gain will be in proportion to Germany's efforts to "protect home industry." The drunkard's remedy of more drink for a failing constitution is always and everywhere demanded by the protected classes. Movements are already on foot in Germany to increase the duties on cereals, to check the increased importation of food. In France the duty on rye, the chief article of food of the peasantry, has lately been doubled, and a differential duty has been added on top of this increase in order to favor French shipping. That is, the duty on rye, formerly 15 francs per ton, is now raised to 30 francs, with 30 francs additional if the rye is grown in any country out of Europe and imported from any country in Europe. This is considered a great triumph of Protection. Everywhere except in England the forces of Government are applied with increasing rigor to the task of piling taxes on consumption, which are always taxes on the poor and mostly for the benefit of the rich. The policy of republican France is in this respect curiously like that of the old monarchy anterior to the Revolution. Restrictions upon trade and industry were the prime cause of the misery which led to that great upheaval. The Government was a corporation of rich and titled men who made laws for their own benefit. The Government of to-day is a corporation of rich and untitled men who are making laws to the same purpose. We would not affirm, however, that we are any better than France in this respect, or that our laws are preferable to hers as to restrictions on trade or means taken by Congress to tax the many for the benefit of the few.

England's Treasury surplus is to be spent in increased naval strength, and the like use and disposition will be made of any other surpluses she may have during the next five years. There will probably be borrowing in one form or another before the intended expenditure of £20,000,000 for new war ships shall have been carried out. Mr. Goschen, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, has proposed an additional tax of 1 per cent. on inheritances, and a small increase of the beer tax, but these will hardly cover the outlay within the time set for the completion of the work, unless British trade shall show a very large gain in the coming five years. The *Economist* thinks that not more than £400,000 to £500,000 increase can be looked for from this source, while it is possible that there may be none at all. Nevertheless, the intention to put the British navy on a footing of equality with the combined force of any two of the Continental Powers will be carried into effect. It is only a question of money, and England has the money, or can easily get it. And thus the surplus of this world's goods and comforts which free trade brings goes, after all, into ships, guns, and bombs. But in the present stage of civilization there seems to be no option. We have not advanced so far beyond the savage state as outward appearances would indicate. The meaning of this great expenditure for the paraphernalia of death and destruction is, that if England does not have it, some other nation may rob her, just as the ancient Vandals, Goths, and Huns robbed each other.

The English Ministry are in nearly as bad a logical plight over the convention they have concluded with the sugar-bounty gov-

ernments of the Continent as our high-tariff men in the last canvass. France, Germany, Austria, Belgium, and Holland have been paying bounties to their own sugar-producers amounting to about $45,000,000 a year. The result of this has been that the English market was constantly supplied with extraordinarily cheap sugar from abroad, to the great delight of the sugar-consumers, but to the great chagrin of the sugar-refiners. The cheap sugar, part of the cost of which was thus paid by foreigners, not only carried comfort into the households of the poor, but has developed a confectionery business which now employs nearly double the number of hands engaged in refining. But the refiners have been able to get the Government to enter into an agreement with some of the above-mentioned Powers under which England, in consideration of their stopping the bounties, undertakes to exclude sugar coming from countries which persist in paying them—that is, from France, the United States, and Brazil. Sir Thomas Farrer, the Permanent Secretary of the Board of Trade, whose attacks on this convention have been admirable specimens of economical dialectics, points out that it will deprive the British public of the benefit of the bounties —that is, raise the price of sugar to the consumer. But Baron de Worms maintains that it will not raise the price to the consumer, because the bounty, he says, went into the pockets of the producers. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach made a declaration to the same effect in the House of Commons the other day, having previously stated that one effect of the convention would be to bring into England largely increased quantities of colonial sugar. On this Mr. Gladstone took him up, and asked him how could this be if the convention would not raise the price in the English market. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach made answer that "this appeared to him to be a matter of argument in debate," which was received with "great laughter and derisive cheers." Senator Hoar and some other high-tariff orators were between the horns of just the same dilemma during our last canvass. They had to maintain, in the same breath, to the workingmen, that prices had to be kept up by the tariff in order to enable manufacturers to pay high wages, and that prices were not raised by the tariff, and therefore did not increase the cost of living; but we do not think they ever saw the joke of their argument.

There was a curious debate in the British House of Commons a week ago on the condition of the poor in the great towns. It was brought on by Mr. Broadhurst, the workingman member of the House, and all he had to say was that there was a great and regrettable drift of population into the cities, and that the poor in these places were badly lodged and fed, and that the Government should do something about it. This something was, however, simply the provision of better lodgings and the furnishing of a free lunch to the children at the public schools. There is no doubt that there is in all the English large cities a large and increasing mass of poverty, although the number of paupers in proportion to population is not nearly as great as it was forty years ago. The same complaint is made in nearly every civilized country. In the United States as well as in Europe poor people flock into the cities in regrettable numbers. But the remedy proposed by philanthropists like Mr. Broadhurst and a great many others must strike thoughtful people as little short of irrational. It is neither more nor less than to make cities more attractive to the poor—to supply better lodgings for less money to the fathers and mothers, and give the children free meals as well as free schooling, to say nothing of parks, gardens, cheap fares, and Saturday music. To offer these things to the poor and then cry out because the poor crowd into the towns is surely very absurd. The truth is, that if even half the Radical programme for the government of cities were carried out, we should very soon reach the "panem et circenses" of the Roman Empire, without having conquered provinces to draw on for the cost. To make any scheme for permanently improving the condition of the urban poor a success, it should be accompanied by some plan of keeping down the urban population. Of course this is impossible. All Socialistic schemes ignore studiously the question of population, although it lies at the root of the labor problem. They act on the street-car conductor's assumption that there is always room for a few more. The answer to the question they are constantly asking, why machinery has not done more to improve the condition of the working class, is simply that the working class pursues the machines with so many children that they cannot get very far ahead with their production.

The rules of procedure under which the French Senate is acting as a court of impeachment of Boulanger and some of his supporters, have intrusted the preparation of the indictment, or "instruction préparatoire," to a commission of nine, and they conduct the case as "managers," to use our term, at the trial. The trial is public, and is a great opportunity for the display of a kind of oratory in which Frenchmen of all classes delight. As to the mode of finding a verdict, there was considerable discussion, many being desirous of following the practice of the old Chamber of Peers under the Restoration, in which in all trials of this sort each Peer first cast a provisional or tentative vote, accompanied with a few remarks, and the final and irrevocable vote was taken subsequently. This plan was, however, rejected. There will be but one ballot, and it will be final and open—that is, in secret session, but by public utterance. What the penalty may be we do not learn, but probably anything the Senate pleases, from the guillotine to simple exile.

German politics are somewhat convulsed over a new press law which is now under consideration by a special committee of the Federal Council, and will shortly be, if it has not been already, submitted to the Reichstag. The proposed bill, by way of shutting up the Socialists, forbids all hostile discussion in the press of the "fundamental bases" of society — that is, religion, the family, and property — and all articles calculated to excite "hatred or contempt of the Government," this last provision being copied almost textually from some of Louis Napoleon's legislation after 1851. The German editors of nearly every shade of opinion are violently excited over it. They ask whether it might not be held that the mere recital of certain facts, without any comment on them, was calculated to "excite hatred and contempt of the Government"; and whether a discussion of the principle of religion, property, and family from the scientific point of view, such as Kant and Fichte indulged in, might not be construed as attacks on them. The penalties attached to the bill are very serious, the second offence rendering the journal liable to suppression, or, in other words, to the confiscation, it might be, of a valuable property. The main reliance of the press is on the National Liberals in the Reichstag, who will probably insist on some modification in the interest of scientific discussion, if of nothing else. Fancy Murat Halstead in such an atmosphere, full of double-leaded articles about not only the fundamental bases of society, but the whole structure, from garret to cellar.

The message of President Diaz to the Mexican Congress at the opening of its present session, April 1, devotes a good deal of space to the financial situation of the country. He dwells with satisfaction on the improving credit of Mexico in Europe, announces that the German syndicate are about to take the remaining $17,000,000 of the loan negotiated last year, and predicts the complete refunding of the debts of 1851 and 1886 within a short time. He does not conceal the fact that Mexico's income still keeps up its chronic habit of falling behind the expenses, and says that the national finances cannot yet be exactly called prosperous. A most encouraging proposal is that which he declares is to be carried out, viz., to cut down the army and reduce the military budget for the coming financial year by at least a million. With the cost of the army eating up more than a third of the national revenue, as it has done for years, the only wonder is that it has not known the shears long before this; though it is also a testimony to the solidification of Diaz's power, and the settled condition of the country, that he now dares to do what has not been attempted for half a generation. The President gives the customary review of domestic and foreign affairs, the story being one in general of domestic tranquillity and progress and foreign peace and friendship. The Argentine Republic is about to send a Minister to Mexico, for the first time. Japan has agreed to a treaty of commerce and friendship. A postal arrangement is to be made with Great Britain whereby small packages of merchandise can be sent through the mails; this will put English exporters on a par with our own again,

OUR NATIONAL LOTTERY.

Sixty or seventy years ago, State lotteries were thought a perfectly legitimate mode of raising money for the Government, and gambling was looked on as a harmless amusement. Within that period, however, a great change has come over the public mind. Lotteries have been prohibited in England, France, and Belgium, and in most of the States of the Union, and gambling-houses are put in nearly every civilized State in the same category with brothels, and are exposed to the full rigors of police suppression. In all the churches and in all moral and religious circles in this country and in England, the gambler shares the fate of the drunkard and debauchee as an object of social reprobation. He is treated as an unfit companion for men, and as an unfit husband for a woman, and as a man of doubtful credit and an unsafe business partner.

Now, why is this? Why do the leading Christian governments refuse any longer to raise money by lotteries, or to permit anybody else to raise it within their jurisdiction? Why have all the great public gambling establishments in Europe, except Monte Carlo, been suppressed? Why does the English statute prohibit lotteries, as "a common nuisance by which children, servants, and other unwary persons are ruined"? Why is the keeper of a gambling-house treated as a criminal of a very bad type? Why is Anthony Comstock permitted in this State to pursue the vendors of lottery tickets just as he pursues the vendors of obscene books and engravings? The reason is, that experience has shown that in the vast majority of cases the man who gambles is on the road to ruin; that, to use the illustration of J. B. Say, the French economist, the legislator who sanctions a lottery "votes a certain number of thefts and suicides"; that, as another French economist, M. Lavollée, says, "a lottery is a business based on chance, in which wealth, when acquired, is not the fruit of any labor, but is acquired only by another's ruin, and is incapable of producing anything"; that any one who wins money in gambling is apt to become incapable afterwards of close attention to any regular industry, and discards prudence, in the belief that he will be able to extricate himself from any scrape by a stroke of luck.

In saying all this, we are going over ground that is very familiar to every lawyer and moralist in the United States. No arguments on any question of public policy are more trite than the arguments against gambling. We recall them to-day simply for the purpose of asking the pastors and teachers of the country, and especially President Harrison's pastor in Indianapolis, who took leave of him the other day in church with many prayers and good wishes, to consider for a moment what difference there is, in the effect on public and private morals, between a Government lottery and that quadrennial scramble for office which the President has been superintending — has, indeed, encouraged and even invited—during the past month at Washington, and from which he is now seeking refuge in a short and undeserved vacation. A lottery fills the minds of large numbers of people with confident expectations of sudden wealth to be acquired without work. The quadrennial scramble fills probably half a million of people with the expectation of salaries to be obtained suddenly also, not by fitness for the places, but by favor, or intrigue, or luck, and makes their regular calling at their own homes, to which they were bred, and in which they are capable, seem mean and dull and distasteful. A lottery induces large numbers of people to steal, or borrow, or use their savings in a venture of uncertain issue, and pending the issue fills their lives with suspense and anxiety, and fills those dependent upon them with foreboding. The quadrennial scramble causes many thousands of persons to steal, borrow, or use their savings in going to Washington and living at hotels, in an agony of mingled hope and fear, for whole weeks, until their resources are exhausted or until the President, who has encouraged them to come there, shuts the door in their faces, and goes off to recover from the effects of their importunity. Behind them at home are tens of thousands more, who cannot afford the journey, but go through all the gambler's tortures in their own dwellings, while bombarding their Congressmen with letters and petitions. During this interval the idea becomes more and more firmly rooted in their minds that their own Government, for which so many hundred thousand men have died, is a huge gambling establishment such as Homburg used to be, in which any man by trying his luck may draw "a plum." About the effect of their operations on the efficiency of the Administration, or on the general welfare of the country, they no more concern themselves than a Monte Carlo gambler about the effects of his winnings on the resources of the bank.

It is objected to lotteries, as well as to all forms of gambling, that they harden the heart and dry up the fountains of human pity by making some people rich at the cost of others' ruin. The quadrennial scramble does just the same thing. It makes every man engaged in it as selfish and remorseless as a brigand. There is hardly one of them who is not seeking to have some other man's bread taken from him, without the smallest regard to his necessities or his feelings. In fact, the winners generally openly make merry over the misfortunes of the defeated—an indecency in which ordinary gamblers usually do not indulge. We know of a case at this moment where a man enjoying a large income from a prosperous business has been spending a month in Washington, "working" to secure the dismissal of an able, efficient officer who has been long in the service, and who is dependent on his salary, in order that he himself may get the place. His motive is and must be exactly that of a gambler—the satisfaction of winning in a game of chance something which he does not need—and he has no more pity for the faithful veteran whom he seeks to displace than "the bank" has for the youth who goes out to shoot himself after losing his all at rouge-et-noir. The gambler's passion extinguishes human sympathy as nothing else does, not even the anger of armed combat.

In fact, it is hardly extravagant to say of our national lottery what John Wesley said of slavery, that "it is the sum of all villanies." At all events it may certainly be said of it, that there is hardly any villany which it does not illustrate or exemplify. It treats us to some of the worst horrors of war in the midst of profound peace—its treachery, its deceit, its brutal selfishness, its indifference to everything but victory. We hear every week that the clergy of the United States are looking about for topics of the day which they can safely discuss in the pulpit. They ransack the newspapers and the reviews for some great social or political evil to analyze or attack. Well, here is one which seems to be peculiarly suited to their weapons, because all the church-goers in the country are more or less responsible for its existence; because hundreds of thousands of professing Christians, beginning with the President, connive at or practise it, and because it is perhaps the most debauching custom for the youth of the country which any peaceful commercial community has ever either adopted or permitted. It exists solely through the deadness of the national conscience.

MANNING AND FAIRCHILD.

The Washington correspondent of the *Times* said on Monday week:

"No decision has yet been reached by Secretary of the Treasury Windom as to how he will act upon the request of the woollen-goods manufacturers, that worsted goods may be so classified that they shall pay as high customs duties as woollen fabrics. It is quite possible that no formal decision will be made at all. None ever has been made by the Treasury Department on that point, *the present classification having been originally made by one of the collectors of customs.* It is within the power of a collector to make just such a classification of worsteds as the woollen-manufacturers are seeking; and after the new Administration has got into working order, at the New York Custom-house for example, Collector Erhardt might change the present classification when the opportunity offered."

The decision that worsteds are, in trade and commerce, unlike woollens, was of course first made by a collector of customs recognizing the nomenclature of dealers which a tariff law is supposed to use. The correctness of that decision, made more than fifty years ago by a collector, was protested against, but upheld by the Treasury in 1834, put in suit, carried to the Supreme Court, elaborately argued for the Treasury by Attorney-General Butler, decided against the Treasury in 1836, and reported in 1837 in Elliott vs. Swartwout (10 Peters Reports, 137). The question came up, under the tariff law of 1832, on *worsted* shawls. The Collector levied 50 per cent., classifying them as "manufactures of *wool*," but the importer insisted that the shawls were only liable to 10 per cent. under the phrase, "*worsted*-stuff goods, shawls," etc. The Court put its decision against the Treasury on the ground that the shawls were not a manufacture of *wool*, but of a distinct article, which was *worsted*.

If anything can be established by a judi-

cial decision, it is that worsted is not woollen. Congress can say that the two shall each pay the same tax, but it has not done so. The fundamental difference between woollen and worsted rests on the crossing and interlacing of the fibres in preparing the former, while in the latter the fibres are treated by processes bringing them into smooth parallel relationship to each other. Naturally, the Court will stand by its former decision, and will assume that Congress legislated in knowledge of it. An executive increase of rates on worsted cloths will create an enormous Custom-house refund, bearing six per cent. interest. Now let us consider what this "refund" means.

In the report of the First Auditor of the Treasury for 1888, there are six items of expenditure by the Treasury which deserve examination by taxation-reformers, tariff-reformers, surplus-reducers, reform clubs, voters of every sort, and especially Democratic voters. They are these:

Expenses of collecting customs revenue	$7,291,463 02
Detection and prevention of revenue frauds	24,021 72
Excess of deposits	4,623,674 68
Debentures and drawbacks	5,268,635 15
Duties refunded	37,917 93
Judgments satisfied	932,620 41
	$18,183,332 91

The last two items, of nearly a million of dollars, are covered by *a permanent* standing appropriation, in section 3687 of the Revised Statutes, for "duties or other money paid under protest." The appropriation is unlimited in quantity, and stands year after year. If a collector has exacted money as duties on imports, and the importer has protested and appealed against the exaction, the Secretary of the Treasury can order the money repaid out of that appropriation. That is a great and a dangerous power. There is no restraint on its exercise. The Treasury can confirm the collector's exaction, and thereby similar exactions will continue at the custom-houses till the sum is large in amount. Then it can by the Treasury be ordered to be paid back, all the money going to the importer, and none to the consumers who really paid it. If the legality of the exaction is tried in court and judgments are entered against the collectors, then the Treasury pays the principal of those judgments out of the same appropriation, and the interest out of another appropriation. The Federal laws authorize interest to be computed at the rate allowed by the State law, and to be included in the judgment, but for that an annual appropriation is needed which is hidden in the first of the above items.

The third item comes of a custom-house rule requiring an importer to deposit a sum, calculated on the face of his entry, which is held to await the final liquidation, when the excess is returned to him by a check to his order.

The fourth item explains itself.

When Secretary Manning came to the Treasury, he found some 2,300 suits pending in the Federal Court in this city for money illegally exacted, on protectionist theories, as customs taxes. He accomplished the creation of a new Federal Judge who (he intended) should do nothing else than try those suits. The sum involved therein is many millions. He continued the rates of duty which had been fixed by his predecessors, and suits went on against such exaction; but, as new questions were presented, he ordered the *lowest* rate to be levied, as became a tariff-reformer, and thereon no new suits were begun. When he died, the Treasury relapsed into its old habit, begun in protection days, of grabbing all it could clutch. During the last year nearly a million was refunded, chiefly on judgments, which shows that the illegal exactions by Maynard are in suit and undecided. Refunds thereon will come later, and are likely to come in abundance. The protectionists got what they wished when he ordered the increased taxes levied.

It is plain to see that the question presented by a custom-house protest and appeal is chiefly a *law* question, to be decided by the Department of Justice, and not by Maynard, for its true decision depends on what the Supreme Court will probably say. Maynard's opinion could be of little worth in regard to that. If the Supreme Court is likely to condemn the exaction, it should not be made. Every decision by the courts against the Treasury is evidence of bad administration and an injustice to consumers of imported articles. The Treasury loses nothing by a refund, because it only releases what it should not have exacted; but the consumer loses all, while the importer, with his claim-agent, pockets all.

Mr. Fairchild and Mr. Maynard, failing to see that as smugglers are the regulators of customs taxes, so claim-agents are the best regulators of Treasury decisions inflicting rates in doubtful cases, have, during their brief term, denounced to Congress custom-house lawyers in much the same terms as smugglers. But every one sees that had it not been for the power to bring suits, there would have been no check whatever to be exercised by the judicial power on the decisions of Fairchild and Maynard. Naval-Officer Burt, we are surprised to see by his recent letter to the *Evening Post*, advocates legislation by Congress which will in effect make the interpretation of taxing laws solely an executive question, from the decision of which the courts will be practically excluded if the protectionists have their way. What chance of justice will taxpayers have if Harrison shall appoint (as he probably would) such executive officers in the interest of protection? It is bad enough to have protectionist legislation, but even worse to have protectionist interpretation such as there has been by Maynard.

The existing system is defective, we concede, but chiefly so because customs and Treasury officers will not heed the mandate of the courts, which permits only the lowest rate of taxation in cases of ambiguity. That was Manning's rule. A disregard of the judicial mandate creates the suits, supports the Custom-house lawyers, and makes the scandal and trouble. It gives rise to the increase of taxes which has recently flourished under executive orders, to be condemned in the end by the courts, and followed, soon or late, by vast refunds, benefiting manufacturers and importers alike, but injuring consumers and taxpayers alike. Reform is needed in that branch of the customs service, and in the direction begun by Manning, Cleveland's wise and great finance minister. He clearly saw that the place in which to begin tariff reform and revenue reform was in the Treasury, and by putting a stop to the interpretation of ambiguous customs laws in the interest of protectionists. Four years of that reform would have given great relief to the country! It seems, on first sight, a contradiction to say that the interests coincide of Wanamaker the importer (if he can get a refund) and the domestic manufacturers of silk trimmings; but, nevertheless, they do coincide. What the protectionists seek is a levy of the highest rate in order to keep out foreign goods! What the Wanamakers seek is a refund!

THE USES OF A NAVY.

THE *Century Magazine* for April contains a note of warning in its editorial department against the upbuilding of "Jingoism" in this country as a consequence of increased armament. "There are," it says, "in every country, our own being no exception, newspapers and public men who are always ready to float on the crest of a wave of popular passion, no matter whither it may be driving, or on what inhospitable shore it is to break in tumultuous surf at last. The case will bring its peculiar temptations for the United States, for the navy is just that branch of the service for which our people have a traditional weakness, and on which they will spend the public money with least complaint." The *Century* does not take the absurd position, that we ought to expose ourselves to attack merely because the possession of an adequate naval force might lead us into wars which would otherwise be avoided. It points out both the dangers of too little and of too much armament, and expresses the hope that proper provision for defence may not be made "the means for transferring the once great neutral republic to the list of quasi-belligerents, who now give an added stigma to the term civilization by their system of permanent armament."

The question is a serious one indeed. It would seem to be capable of solution in part by directing our efforts first and chiefly to means for making ourselves secure at home, rather than to steps for making ourselves formidable abroad. It is doubtful if we could within twenty years put ourselves in a position to cope with the foremost naval Powers of Europe. But we could put our chief harbors in a state of defence, with the aid of a small but thoroughly modern navy, in much less time. We could not attack other nations with our fortifications, but we could ward off their attacks. The chance of our being attacked is very small in any case, and the chance of our being attacked by second or third-rate Powers, which are most commonly employed as bugbears to urge us on to large naval expendi-

ture, is almost nothing. Nevertheless, we must be prepared for emergencies, but in such manner (if such a thing be possible) as not to stimulate an aggressive spirit which may finally put us in the company of the great war Powers of the globe, whose populations are ground between the upper and the nether millstones of war taxes and personal military service.

The Chicago *Tribune* finds a reason for a large navy in the fact that we have no foreign commerce to speak of. It has been commonly held and believed that merchant ships and foreign trade precede and, in some sense, necessitate the building of war ships. The view of our Chicago contemporary is the opposite of this:

"It is the control of the seas," it says, "which gives the control of the commerce of the world. The fact that it was Carthaginian or Roman or English war ships that ruled the ocean, settled the question who stood at the head of commercial nations. It is the power to protect the merchantman which determines in the long run who shall have the most merchantmen. The United States has at present no ships with which to protect and no vessels to be protected. Therefore, the foreign policy of the present Administration is, first, war ships."

It may be true in a semi-barbarous age, when might makes right, and when commerce is in large part spoliation and piracy, that a naval force is a prerequisite of successful foreign trade. But it is not true in the present age of the world. If we had under our flag to-day the combined navies of England and France, we should not have one ton more of foreign commerce than we now have. No American ship is prevented from getting a cargo because of a lack of ironclads to guard her. No builder is prevented from constructing ships, no merchant is prevented from executing orders for goods for the uttermost parts of the earth by reason of a shortage of naval force. No convoys of merchant fleets are ever heard of nowadays. Nobody thinks of battering open foreign markets with cannon. Little Norway and little Holland find no drawbacks to their commerce in the want of a naval force. Nor does Italy or Russia find new or better markets in the augmentation of its navy. If the Chicago *Tribune's* theory were correct, France ought to have gained largely upon England in the race for commercial supremacy in recent years, because she has gained largely in naval strength. But the very reverse has been true. In spite of naval expenditure and of heavy subsidies, French commerce has declined, while English commerce shows the same relative gain that it had in former years. The reason is not far to seek. Naval expenditure and subsidies have to be paid for by taxation which bears upon all the national industries, commerce included. Moreover, hostile tariffs which impose unnecessary burdens on imports are in effect burdens on exports, diminishing the amount of pay that a nation gets for the goods she sells to foreigners. France burdens herself heavily in this way, as we do also. To suppose that we can offset this loss by spending a lot of money for a navy is a very odd conceit, and one which we should not expect to win popularity in districts a thousand miles from the seaboard.

GOVERNMENTAL LAWLESSNESS.

One passage in Mr. Bryce's book has attracted a good deal of attention from political philosophers abroad, though comparatively little from Americans, and yet it touches one of the most important problems in our political situation. He is inquiring how the machinery of State government is made to work when the legislators are indifferent to their public obligations, and have not enough private reputation to make them sensible to shame—that is to say, how is a State Constitution to be carried out if the Governor and Legislature do not choose to obey it? This is, of course, a question which has not greatly troubled publicists hitherto, because in all political discussions the willingness of political communities to obey their organic law has been taken for granted. The successful working of the Federal Constitution, for instance, depends on the willingness of the States to elect Senators and Representatives, and on the willingness of the Senators and Representatives to meet, and debate, and pass laws, and vote appropriations, and confirm nominations. What would happen if there were a refusal in any of these cases, nobody knows, and nobody has seriously considered. The contingency seems too remote and improbable for discussion. If you mention it to anybody, he dismisses it as an academical question, or says: "Oh, that would be revolution; I will not consider what I would do in case of revolution, until I am compelled. Life is too short for such speculations."

This very thing, however, happens in some of the States, and when Mr. Bryce asks for the remedy, nobody is able to tell him. When he reads the Constitution of this State, for instance, directing the Legislature to enact certain laws, and learns that the Legislature totally disregards these directions, or that, if it passes the required laws, the Governor vetoes them, and inquires what we do in such cases to make the organic law respected, nobody can answer him. On this he remarks:

"What the legislatures of the worst States show is not merely the need for the existence of a sound public opinion—for such a public opinion exists—but the need for methods by which it can be brought into efficient action upon representatives who, if they are left to themselves, and are not individually persons with a sense of honor and a character to lose, will be at least as bad in public life as they are in private."

To come down to concrete illustrations. The term of certain State officers is fixed by law. The Constitution says that, when there is a vacancy in certain offices, it shall be filled by the Governor's nominating and the Senate's confirming a candidate for the place. The Governor has nominated persons to fill such vacancies in this State, but the Senate has steadily refused to confirm any of his nominations, in order that the actual incumbent might hold over indefinitely. Under this revolutionary proceeding, "Tom" Platt held over as Quarantine Commissioner five years, and the present Health Officer, Dr. William M. Smith, was appointed for a term of two years, in 1880, and has held over until now, and is actually in office because the Senate refused to do its constitutional duty by confirming the Governor's nominations.

The Constitution provides that in 1866, and every twenty years thereafter, the question, "Shall there be a convention to revise the Constitution and amend the same?" shall be submitted to the people; and that, if the vote be favorable to a convention, "the Legislature at its next session shall provide by law for the election of delegates." The question was submitted in 1886; was answered in the affirmative. In 1887 the Legislature passed an act providing for a Convention, but the Governor vetoed it, on the ground that the act was not, in his opinion, the kind of act the people wanted. Consequently, the direction of the Constitution remains unexecuted and the demand of the people unsatisfied.

The Constitution provides "that an enumeration of the inhabitants of the State shall be taken in 1855, and at the end of every ten years thereafter." The Legislature passed an act for this purpose in 1885, which was copied literally, except as to dates, from previous census bills which former Democratic Governors had signed. Gov. Hill vetoed it, because it was not the kind of bill he liked, and called an extra session of the Legislature to pass a bill of his own; but the Legislature refused to pass it, because it was not the kind of bill they liked. Consequently, the census which ought to have been made four years ago has not been made yet.

Has any one been punished for this neglect of duty? No one. No member of the Legislature who was successful in getting a party nomination has been defeated or discredited for helping officials to hold over, and Gov. Hill has been reëlected in spite of his vetoes. In fact, nobody has been in any manner called to account for disregarding the Constitution and following his own whims.

What, then, is to be done about it, we do not know. We know that the public is too busy to be much interested in the matter, and has gradually lost the habit of agitation. The old "indignation meeting," which used to play so prominent and useful a part in American politics, is now hardly ever held. The old lecturer who used to keep people stirred up about current questions is dead, or old, or silent. The pamphleteer never gets outside colleges and learned societies. The business of looking after Legislatures and Governors has been wholly absorbed by the daily press, and the daily press not only shrinks more and more from the discussion of serious topics, but stands by its party, right or wrong. We have no solution to offer. We are simply describing the situation. But this we do know, that the tendency to regard the distribution of spoils as the chief business of men high in office, and everything else subordinate, subsidiary, and comparatively insignificant, grows apace, and that whenever a remedy begins to be sought for, it will probably be found in that direction.

MICHEL EUGÈNE CHEVREUL.

The death of Chevreul, at the age of nearly one hundred and three years, is the first instance of a man so well known in the intellectual field attaining so great an age. Notwith-

standing the frequency of reports of deaths at much greater ages than this, it may be questioned whether we have well-authenticated evidence that any man has ever lived much longer than Chevreul. In very few of the reported cases of much greater longevity is the fact well enough established to convince the sceptic; and the stories of Jenkins and Parr are now, by consent of those best able to judge, regarded as entirely wanting in proof. In comparing Chevreul with other well-known centenarians, we recall Fontenelle, who died one month before completing his century, Montefiore, and Holyoke, who did not add one year to the others, and Canon Beadon, who fell six months short of completing his one hundred and second year. The years of Chevreul's working activity are even more phenomenal than those of his life. His first published investigation dates from 1806; his last contribution to the Academy of Sciences was made on May 22, 1888. Eighty-two years of work after reaching maturity is something for which no precedent probably exists. The honor of foreign membership of the Royal Society of London generally comes to a scientific investigator only after the meridian of life, as the reward of long and distinguished labors. Yet Chevreul has enjoyed it since John Quincy Adams was President of the United States. His work on the harmony of colors will be remembered by old men as a book familiar to them in youth, whose author they have long regarded as belonging to a former generation. We do not know that he exhibited any marked precocity; yet the publication of an important work at the age of twenty, and the attainment of foreign membership of the Royal Society at the age of forty, show that neither slow development nor leisurely habits could have been characteristic of his earlier years.

The case of Chevreul strengthens the general conclusion drawn from other instances of the kind, that great longevity is not associated with anything unusual in constitution or habits of life, unless it be good health. The writer of this notice first made the French chemist's acquaintance in 1871, when he was in his eighty-fifth year. Though what we call "well preserved," he showed no marks of an unusually vigorous constitution. His stature was slightly above the average, and his temperament, if it deviated at all from neutrality, was what Cullen and his predecessors would have called the sanguineous, tending to the development of fat rather than of bone or muscle. It needed only a glance to show that he had not recently been a hard walker or a hard rider. At that time Canon Beadon could still hunt, though nine years older than Chevreul. Yet the latter was not physically inactive. He almost never missed a meeting of the Academy of Sciences up to the age of a hundred, unless of late years, when kept at home by bad weather. Considering his nationality, his most noteworthy characteristic was total abstention from wine—not on the score of health or temperance, but simply because he never liked it.

The most interesting question suggested by such a life is not how long a man can live, but how long he can retain his faculties sufficiently to make life worth living. We have already cited evidence that Chevreul followed the discussions in the Academy with keen interest past his hundredth year. So far as we know, his sight and hearing remained unimpaired to the last. A medical examination at the age of ninety-six showed him to be still free from any disorder. Naturally his mind lost its flexibility in his later years, and the reader may draw his own conclusions from an incident occurring when he was eighty-four. About the beginning of 1871, he published a solemn statement of the bombardment of the Jardin des Plantes by the forces of King William and Chancellor Bismarck, and three months later the writer found him still in a state of intense indignation at the act. Being pressed for the reason why a Power which undoubtedly appreciated scientific institutions should be guilty of such vandalism, he naïvely replied that the authorities had used the Jardin as a safe place to store some explosives they did not want exposed to shells, and he supposed the Prussians had found it out. In his declining years his mind did not revert to its earliest work, as one might suppose, but to that of his middle age. The contrast of colors seemed to be the principal subject of his lucubrations, and it was treated in a way that showed a loss of mental grasp. Possibly the same thing might be said of certain philosophic views upon the progress of the sciences and kindred subjects, did we not know that an apparent lack of clear thinking in such a case may arise from a failure on the part of the reader to apprehend exactly the meaning of the writer. But whatever the decay to which his productive and thinking powers may have been subject, it did not detract either from his own enjoyment of life or from the interest which all who knew him felt in the society of so genial a man.

His scientific work is so familiar to all interested in it that little need be said of it. His field might be called industrial and animal chemistry, and it was by his work as a pioneer in this field that he won his great reputation. His researches in animal fats formed the basis of what has since become one of the great industries of our time. Called to the superintendence of the great manufactory of tapestry of the Gobelins, he applied himself to the thorough study of the art of dyeing and of the theory of the harmony and contrast of colors. He devised the "chromatic scale" in which the colors of the spectrum are arranged in a circle, the violet of the upper end of the spectrum merging into the red of the lower end. His prominent characteristics seem to have been the industry and sagacity with which he set about the investigation of whatever fell in his way, and his thoroughness in going to the bottom of it, rather than in the creative genius of a master mind.

CANOVA.

BASSANO, September 18, 1888.

FOR a place only three hours from Venice by railway, and only eleven from Trent by diligence or carriage through the picturesque Canale di Brenta and the Val Sugana, Bassano seems much neglected by the summer traveller. Yet there is an excellent inn of the old quiet kind, clean and well kept, with the rusty coats-of-arms marking the passage of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, the Duke of Parma, the Count of Chambord, and the Prince of Hohenzollern. The squares and streets are full of curious antique houses, covered in parts with remnants of ancient frescoes. The art of etching and engraving once thrived there, and good examples of master works are still to be picked up. In the sacristy of St. John the Baptist there may be seen a very beautiful and equally interesting high-relief in terracotta, ascribed to Luca della Robbia, but as different from any of the works of that school as it is from the colored terracotta groups of Begarelli and others at Modena. It represents the baptism of Christ, with four life-sized figures and five small angels in attendance. The modelling and expression are admirable, and the figures, colored in subdued tones, stand out from a painted background representing such a landscape as may be seen all about Bassano. The Museum has an excellent series of pictures of the Da Ponte family and others; engravings, autographs, casts and models of the works of Canova, and a large collection of his letters, besides the remarkable herbaria of Montini, Brocchi, and Parolini. The splendid garden of Parolini, with its magnificent cedars of Lebanon and groups of pines from Mount Ida, named, after him, *Pinus Parolinii*, is still kept in excellent order by his descendants.

After all, the great charm of Bassano is its situation. George Sand, writing in the spring of 1834, said:

"I recommend to you the Café della Fosse as one of the best fortunes that can fall to the lot of the traveller tired of the classic masterpieces of Italy. . . . The country was not yet in all its splendor, the meadows being of a languishing green tending towards yellow, and the leaves had only begun to bud on the trees. But the almond and peach trees in bloom were mingling here and there their pink and white garlands with the sombre masses of the cypresses. In the midst of this immense garden the Brenta ran rapidly and silently over its sandy bed between those two wide banks that it tears from the bosom of the Alps, and with which it strews the plain in its days of wrath. A semicircle of fertile hills, covered with those long branches of knotty vine which hang from all the trees of Venetia, made a first frame to the picture, and the snowy mountains sparkling in the first rays of the sun formed a second border further on, which stood out like a silver silhouette against the solid blue of the air."

The café, which occupies the site of an old loggia in the walls, built for the sake of the view in 1504, still exists, but the mouldering red-brown walls and turrets, covered with creepers reaching to the moat below, have on one side been torn down to make room for an unfinished, treeless promenade, and the lover of landscape would do better to see the same view—although somewhat more restricted—from the balcony of the Canonica.

From Bassano one may make a pleasant day's excursion by driving along the hills to Possagno, the birthplace of Canova, then down a wooded valley to Asolo, which is still proud of its memories of Catherine Cornaro, Queen of Cyprus, and of Bembo, and perhaps go further on to Maser, the celebrated villa of the Barbaro family, built by Palladio and decorated by Paul Veronese. The landscape is such as one sees in so many old Venetian pictures—blue, rounded, bossy hills, sometimes covered with green meadow, and sometimes wooded, with abundance of pools and sparkling streams, and in the distance the high, bare, ragged, and often snow-covered mountains. When you have gone scarcely three miles from Bassano, you come to the splendid Villa Corner, now Mocenigo, which, in its many vicissitudes, has seen this landscape in much less peaceful times, for here in 1796 were the headquarters of Prince Hohenzollern, and four regiments of Neapolitan cavalry were encamped in the neighboring meadows. These were occupied again in 1866 by the division of General Medici. A little further on is a group of round hills with hamlets scattered among them, described by Dante, though not mentioned by name:

> "Within that region of the land depraved
> Of Italy, that lies between Rialto
> And fountain-heads of Brenta and Piava,
> Rises a hill and mounts not very high,
> Wherefrom descended formerly a torch
> That made upon that region great assault."

This is Romano, the birthplace of the tyrant Ezzolino, to whose cruelty and prowess the monuments of Bassano, Padua, and other towns still bear witness. At Crespano, a little further on, there is to be found one of those good li-

braries which are not uncommon in small Italian towns. The Latinist Pietro Canal, a professor at Padua, was a native of Crespano, and left to his birthplace his fine collection of books and manuscripts. To store these his brother has erected a suitable building open to the public. The amiable abbé who is the librarian, showed me with pride the whole library: a large number of early and later very rare printed books; a rich collection of Greek and Latin classics; a large library of Italian literature which originally belonged to Luigi Carrer, and had been continued by Canal, including an excellent Dante collection; and one of the richest existing collections of what is the specialty of Italian libraries, the *Testa della lingua*, or books cited by the Academia della Crusca as specimens of pure Italian. Here there are only about twenty works lacking; but there are duplicates of some of the rarer books and even earlier editions than those cited by the Academy. The very large musical library is in some respects richer in manuscripts than those of Venice. Naturally there is a large hall devoted to engravings of the works of Canova, copies of some of his statues, and objects which belonged to him, including table services given him by Napoleon, the Countess of Albany, and others; for Crespano was the birthplace of Canova's mother, and she went back there to live after her second marriage.

The small village of Possagno, straggling along the gentle slope of the hills, is dominated by the immense rotunda of the church, or *tempio*, to the construction of which Canova devoted the later years of his life and much of his fortune. It was not finished until eight years after his death, and he had been unable to execute the sculptures with which he intended to decorate it. His half-brother, the Bishop Sartori-Canova, thinking that sufficient had already been spent on the building, put, in place of the projected statues, gigantic frescoes of the Apostles which are horrible and grotesque. Otherwise there are several good pictures, and one which is interesting as being the work of Canova himself — representing the body of Christ after being taken from the cross—of which it may be said that it is not so bad as might have been expected. It was one of Canova's weaknesses to imagine that he was as clever with his brush as with his chisel. On the left of the church, opposite the group of the Pietà, is the simple but elegant monument (designed by Canova himself for another man) that contains the bodies of Canova and his brother, placed there in 1830 when the church was finished. The tombs at Rome and Venice are merely cenotaphs. On his first resting-place in the old church was the simple inscription, "Hic Canova"; but on this the Bishop put: "John B. Episcopus Myndensis Ant. Canovæ Fratri dulcissimo et sibi vivens p. c." Coming out into the Doric portico, one looks southward over the splendid prospect to the hills of Asolo. At times one seems to see the shimmer of the Venetian lagoons, which are perfectly visible from the hills behind and from the top of the church. In front, at the end of the straight hot road, is Canova's birthplace; and next to it stands the museum founded by the family, which contains plaster casts of nearly all his works, and very many of the original models used by the workmen and Canova himself for cutting the marble statues. Some of these still bear the pencil dots and black-headed tacks for the guidance of the workmen—a process which, it is claimed, was invented by Canova himself.

The effect produced—on me at least—by seeing in one building these 194 different pieces of sculpture, added to what I had already seen at Venice and elsewhere, was distinctly to raise and enhance my opinion of Canova's genius and talent. The Thorwaldsen Museum at Copenhagen did not give me a similar feeling. George Sand seemed to think that he had taken all his models from the lovely youth of Possagno; but on the morning when she wrote she had seen some one who particularly pleased her. Hawthorne lays some stress on a rash statement of Hiram Powers that Canova modelled every face after his own; but an artistic judgment of Powers is of course hardly worth mentioning, especially when transmitted by Hawthorne. Neither of these statements is true. In looking, not so much at the statues of Canova as at his drawings and studies—of which over 1,700 are preserved in the museum at Bassano—it is noticeable that his great delight was in the nude figure, and that the head is sometimes omitted and generally drawn in only feebly and conventionally, with slight attempt at indicating expression. So far as is known, Canova never drew or modelled from more than a single nude figure at Possagno—and that with the greatest difficulty, and with much severe criticism from the rustic population.

The most hasty observer cannot but be struck with the constant evidences of Canova's application and perseverance. He devoted his whole lifetime to the study of art, and not merely to perfecting himself in his own art, though all his studies helped to that end. Neither his eyes nor his hands were ever idle. When a boy in Venice, when a youth in Rome, when travelling abroad in later life, he not only made careful studies of bas-reliefs and statues, but in his pocket note-book was constantly sketching the people whom he met, noting any little peculiarity of movement or grace of attitude, as well as bits of architecture which were in any way suggestive to his mind. For some of his larger monuments there are many sketches of different grouping and on different scales. Canova was not a sculptor simply because he had the knack of modelling in clay, like so many nowadays. Quatremère de Quincy urged him one day to take a greater number of workmen and students, and to content himself with modelling, leaving his work to be put into bronze or marble by other hands; telling him that he could thus make much more money. Canova replied that he wished to be a sculptor and not a manufacturer of statues, and that he preferred to leave fewer works provided they were better. When in Rome he rarely went to bed without visiting his studio with a small lamp, which he placed in various positions near the statue he would then be at work at; without carefully observing the outlines and contours by this illumination (so different from that of day) and giving a little touch of the file wherever it seemed necessary. Even the disease which caused his death was originally produced by too hard and prolonged work on the monuments of Clements XIII. and XIV. in St. Peter's. His pressing the borer against his chest for so many hours at a time brought about cancerous affection of the liver.

It was well that Canova should follow the excellent customs of study and work practised by the great artists of the Renaissance, for never since that age has a sculptor had the same opportunity for the world to admire, or at least to purchase, his productions. Living at a time when the world cared for the arts as well as for display, a period traversed by the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Empire, he had unusual facilities for making the personal acquaintance of the rulers of the world. A protégé of the Popes, he was favored and admired by Napoleon, and yet his position was none the worse on the return of Pius VII. to Rome. Besides this, the charm of his character and manner was such, his innate goodness was so plainly visible, that he made friends—and good, prudent, and powerful ones—wherever he went.

When quite young, Canova had been intimate in Rome with the engraver Volpato (almost a countryman, for he had been born at Bassano), and had been persuaded to become engaged to one of his daughters; she, however, jilted him for a young Pole, and subsequently married the engraver Raphael Morghen. After that, Canova had no more time for love or marriage, and his simple life was for many years regulated by his nurse and housekeeper, Luigia Giuli, an interesting bust of whom, by Canova's comrade and lifelong friend, Antonio d'Este, is to be seen in the museum at Ravenna. Canova's affections were henceforth given to his friends, and his leisure to serving the interests of art, whether as Director of the Vatican Museum, President of the Academy of St. Luke, commissioner to restore to Italy the works of art carried away by the French, or simply by his efforts, his purse, and his influence in favor of young artists who were in any way unfortunate. Not a shadow of jealousy or envy ever seems to have crossed his heart; and among particular acts may be mentioned what he did to relieve and to release the young Spanish artists imprisoned by General Miollis in the Castle of St. Angelo, among whom was Madrazo (the father), and to prevent the expulsion from Rome of the German artists, including Rauch, and Thorwaldsen, who was classed with them.

The episode in Canova's life which is probably the most interesting to the general public is his share in restoring to Italy the works of art carried off by Napoleon. For this he was naturally marked out. Yet it was not with pleasure that he received the orders of Cardinal Consalvi, for he had to leave Rome, to quit his simple life, and be subjected—as he anticipated, and as proved to be the case—to a thousand annoyances. After the first Treaty of Paris in 1814, the Allies had respected the Louvre and the French provincial museums, and had asked only for those works of art belonging to their respective countries which were simply kept in the storehouses. After the Hundred Days and the necessity of renewed military exertions, they insisted on punishing France, not only by military contributions, but by depriving her of the spoil of the war. The most bitter were England and Prussia; and some French writers are absurd enough to suppose that the inspiring cause of the English effort to restore the works of art came from dislike to having their own museums rivalled and surpassed, and the hope of buying up the pictures and statues at a cheap rate when France had been deprived of them. One proof of this, in French eyes, was that the Parthenon had been despoiled to procure the Elgin marbles which went to the British Museum. The Emperor Alexander sympathized with the French, for no objects of art had come from Russia, and he found it beautiful and convenient that all the artistic treasures of the world should be collected in one great museum. Unquestionably the Louvre must have been splendid in those days; but unfortunately it was so magnificent that no traveller or diarist of the time has given us an adequate description of it, and we are left to the study of catalogues and monographs to form for ourselves the idea of what it must have been. It is easy to appreciate the feelings of those who regretted the breaking up of such a magnificent collection;

but lovers of art felt then, as now, that it was unfair to the various countries of Europe that they should be deprived of art treasures which had been their pride for centuries. They felt, also, that it was unsafe to collect all the treasures of the world under a single roof; and for these fears the dangers to which the Louvre has been since exposed are a sufficient justification.

The French offered a passive resistance—if they had dared, they would have offered active opposition—to what they called the "spoliation of France." Louis XVIII. was indignant but powerless. Denon, the Director of the Louvre, who had been the chief agent of Napoleon in collecting the museum, resisted sufficiently to compel a show of force. Had it not been for what the French call the "brutality" of the Prussian soldiers, who offered to break down the doors, and for the smoother but equally persistent efforts of Sir William Hamilton, the French would perhaps have kept the gallery. Canova was the agent only of the Papal Government, but he was also commissioned to pursue the claims of the Albani, Braschi, and other families whose collections had been pillaged; and he gave his influence in aid of the agents of the other Italian States. He was met at the outset by the French claim that most of these works of art had been freely ceded by the Pope in the Treaty of Tolentino; but he fortunately found that this treaty had been denounced by the French themselves. Although he felt obliged to yield to King Louis XVIII. most of the pictures and sculptures which were kept in his private apartments, and although many things could not be found, having strayed into private hands, he was able to restore to Italy the greater part of what had been taken from her. Owing to his want of funds, the English Government on two occasions advanced the sum of 100,000 francs each, to pay the expenses of packing and transport. Only one of the great Italian pictures still remains in the Louvre—the "Marriage at Cana," by Paul Veronese—as it was thought it would have to be cut to pieces and irremediably injured in the transport to Venice.

One can appreciate still more the feelings of Denon and his subordinates at the Louvre when it came to the turn of the provincial museums to disgorge. In order to fill the gaps in the galleries at Paris, it was necessary to recall some of the presents made at various times from the overflowing collections. The provincial museums not only objected to this, but protested and complained. Their pictures had sometimes to be taken almost by force, and they demanded compensation.

Canova had at one time a commission to make a colossal statue of Napoleon, which is a really splendid work of art. But the original had never been publicly set up in Paris, as, on account of its nudity, the Emperor feared the jests that would be levelled against him. In the distribution of spoils this was given to the Duke of Wellington, and still exists in the possession of his descendants. The replica of it in bronze stands in the court of the Brera gallery at Milan, and a cast of it in the Palazzo Bonaparte at Rome. The reception at Venice of the objects taken thence is told in the recently published letters of Cicognara. Canova had proposed that the bronze horses, brought originally from Constantinople, should be placed on each side of the ducal palace, looking towards San Giorgio, but it was decided to restore them to their former position above the porch of San Marco. It was a great festa, with music, cannon, and bells, when, in the presence of the Austrian Emperor and his court, the horses were once more hoisted into their place. The mechanical arrangement was so perfect that the operation lasted but a very short time, after the fleet of gondolas had towed to the landing-place the raft containing the group, which had been temporarily deposited at San Giorgio.

The part played by Canova in all this business was for a long time not forgotten in France. When, after Canova's death, Cicognara undertook to get up an international subscription for his monument, the banking-house of Delessert refused to accept subscriptions; and even Louis Philippe—then Duc d'Orléans—wrote that he would have been most happy to subscribe, "but it is notorious that in 1815 Canova quitted his chisel in order to come to Paris to take charge in the devastation of that museum the loss of which France deplores, and the dispersion of which friends of the fine arts in all countries must regret. This sad page of his history prevents any Frenchman from adding his name to the list of those who are erecting this monument."

It may not be generally remembered that, at a time when the different countries of Europe were in rivalry for possession of works by Canova, one of his statues was brought to the United States. It was a seated statue of Washington ordered by the State of North Carolina. Canova interested himself greatly in the work; as a republican born he admired the character of Washington, and he endeavored to increase and enlighten these feelings by reading what lives of Washington were available, and the whole of Botta's history of the American Revolution. The model was executed in 1818. The statue was finished soon afterwards, and was unveiled with some pomp and ceremonial in the State-house at Raleigh. Unfortunately, it perished in the fire which destroyed that building in 1831. The statue represented Washington seated in the armor of a Roman general, with his helmet and sword on the ground by his side, engaged in writing on a tablet what was apparently his Farewell Address, or the resignation of his commission. The likeness was, of course, made up from copies of portraits, and the statue cannot be called one of Canova's most successful works; but it is on the whole more interesting than that of Houdon and than several made since. Various engravings of it are to be found in the different editions of Canova's complete works, and the original model of it—with nail-heads, pencil marks, and all—still exists in the museum at Possagno. The correspondence on the subject is in the library at Bassano, but there has been no time to examine it.

Nothing will be easier, in one sense, than to obtain a replica of this statue of Washington almost as perfect as that finished by Canova's own hands; and it will be well worth reproducing, even if only as an historical souvenir—either by the order of the State of North Carolina, or by some wealthy Northerner in gratitude for the restoration of his health by the charming climate of Asheville. It has been ascertained on inquiry that the statue could be reproduced by any of the best sculptors of Venice, and set up at Raleigh for a sum which would not exceed six or seven thousand dollars. It would be necessary, however, to intrust the work to an Italian—and better, a Venetian—sculptor: partly because there might be difficulties in obtaining permission to use the model, and partly because it might be necessary to do the work at Possagno itself. Besides this, it is to be feared that some of the so-called American sculptors in Italy would charge three or four times as much, to have the work done by Italians without touching it with one finger themselves, and then pocket the difference of price.

E. S.

Correspondence.

NEGRO CONVICTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial of the 4th inst., entitled "Negro Convicts in South Carolina," you bring one of the severest indictments against that unfortunate State that I remember ever to have read. Had this article appeared in one of those strongly partisan newspapers utterly blinded by sectional prejudice, it would have received very little attention. But the *Nation* has been so uniformly just towards the South, and preserves so judicial a tone on all subjects, that the charge which you make in the editorial referred to is doubly damaging. If facts are as you describe them, then indeed ours is "a state of things hardly credible in a civilized community." But you are well aware that South Carolina *is* a civilized community, and such knowledge ought to have put you on your guard against the mistakes into which you have fallen. As I feel sure that you meant no injustice, and that you desire to get at the truth, permit me to call your attention to the facts in the case.

"It is sufficiently startling," you remark, "to be told that of the 894 convicts in the South Carolina penitentiary 843 are colored, and it savors a bit of slavery to find that of the 70 negroes who were subjects of executive clemency during the year, 25 were serving life sentences and 13 others terms of imprisonment of ten or more years."

It should not be a startling fact that, in every community, the great majority of criminals come from the ranks of the poor and ignorant and thriftless. This is as true of New York as it is of South Carolina. Let it never be forgotten that for eleven years (1865–1876) the negroes of South Carolina had a thorough education in crime. During that period bad white men—the great majority of them emissaries from the North—encouraged the negroes in every form of incendiarism and theft. They were taught that it was not wrong to steal from their former masters—that it was, in reality, not stealing, but taking what properly belonged to them. For the ignorance and the low moral tone of the negro, doubtless slavery is largely responsible; and we of the South are willing to bear our share of responsibility for this state of things; but it is certain that the complete demoralization of the negro during the carpet-bag reign was due to the pernicious teaching of these adventurers from the North.

You can now understand why it was absolutely necessary for the Democrats, immediately on coming into power, to pass severe laws against burglary and arson. These were the crimes that were ruining the State. They struck at the very foundation of the social fabric. Industry was paralyzed when its fruits might at any time be consumed by the flames or be borne away by the burglar. It was necessary, too, that these laws should be enforced not only against adults, but against youths of both sexes, sent out on the mission of destruction just because it was presumed that the punishment inflicted on them would be slight.

This discipline, severe but indispensable, had its desired effect. After 1876 crime gradually diminished in the State. By 1883 there was such a moral improvement in the negro race that in that year the law was considerably relaxed, and the punishments were made much

lighter. It is to this relaxation that you refer when you say:

"The method by which the administration of the law is kept impartial to all, white and black alike, is ingenious. The statute punishing burglary, for instance, prescribes punishment for life as a penalty, but with an important proviso that if the jury recommend the prisoner to mercy, the punishment shall be reduced to imprisonment for not less than five years. This allows juries to recommend white offenders to mercy, while the negroes suffer the full penalty of the law."

On the contrary, I am assured by the present Governor of the State that the statute was passed for the special benefit of the negroes. The seven years (1876-1883) of discipline under the severer laws had so reduced the crimes of burglary and arson, that it was felt that there might safely be a relaxation of the law and a mitigation of the punishment. The statute which you suggest as made to shield white offenders, must, like most other statutes, be studied historically to be understood; and when so studied, it will be found to bear no such interpretation as you put upon it.

Another general remark needs to be made. You mention cases of persons sentenced to long terms of imprisonment when the articles stolen by the burglar were few and of small worth. But this is not a fair presentation of the case. If a burglar breaks into a house with the view of stealing valuable property, and perhaps of committing murder, if necessary to his purpose—if such a burglar escapes with not a dollar's worth of property, he is just as guilty as if he had taken all he intended to take. In a state of things in which the laws must be severe and rigidly enforced, it will no doubt sometimes happen that the punishment will be too severe; but in all the cases mentioned, I venture to say it will be found that it was the character of the crime, not the amount of property stolen, that determined the nature and amount of the punishment inflicted.

I cannot take up all the cases you have adduced; you would hardly allow me the space for this. It will be better to give such a full statement of two or three of them as will show their real character.

The case of Prince Williams is an interesting one. Your statement of it is as follows:

"Prince Williams, while a slave, had a wife, although no slave marriage was recognized by the law, and this wife seems to have disappeared, *perhaps sold into slavery*. At any rate, Prince married again in 1878, and, after living with his wife for ten years, was prosecuted for bigamy, slave marriages having been validated by the Legislature. Immediately on his conviction the prosecuting attorney had the grace to recommend his pardon, stating that the main object of the prosecution was to vindicate the law on account of the salutary effect upon the people of that race."

The expression, "perhaps sold into slavery," which I have italicised, insignificant as it may appear, really gives a false turn to the whole statement. It implies that a negro whose wife had been sold into slavery before or during the war, and who, after waiting in vain for many years for the reappearance of his wife, marries again, is prosecuted and convicted as a criminal; and this, too, although his former marriage was not a legal marriage. If the laws of South Carolina permitted a prosecution and conviction under such circumstances, they would indeed betray "a state of things hardly credible in a civilized community." Here is the statement of the case made by an attorney acquainted with all the facts, in response to the Governor's request for information:

"Prince Williams, an old colored man, was convicted at the February term of our court of bigamy. It appeared from the evidence that Prince married Louisa during slavery and lived with her up to 1873, when Prince was told that his slave marriage was not legal, whereupon he asked his wife, Louisa, to marry him according to law, and validate what he supposed to be an illegal marriage. Louisa refused, and said that she did not wish to bind herself to Prince. A separation took place, and Prince took another wife in 1878. Wife number one lived within a few hundred yards of Prince and wife number two for the past ten years, and not until recently thought of charging him with bigamy; and I am satisfied that the prosecution was brought to revenge herself of an injury in another matter before the Trial Justice Court. Everybody who heard the case thought Prince should be discharged, the evidence showing that he had acted in ignorance of the law, and had done everything in his power to live with wife number one before he left and took wife number two. The judge, solicitor, and jurors join me in asking a pardon for Prince, and I trust the same may be granted by your Excellency. Judge Aldrich directed the sheriff not to send Prince to the penitentiary until you could be heard from. Your early attention will be very acceptable to Prince and your friend, M. P. Howell."

I may add that the law validating slave marriages was passed in 1872, and that it applied only to cases in which the parties were living together at that date. A certain class of parsons, to get a marriage fee, persuaded the more ignorant negroes that their marriages were illegal, and hence Prince's trouble and Louisa's rebellion.

Here is the Solicitor's account of the case of Dick Ellerbe, endorsed on the petition for executive clemency:

"This party belonged to the 'Spring Hill Gang of Robbers' who infested that country several years ago. One was killed while resisting arrest and after having killed one of the posse. Some escaped. Jake Jennings and Dick Ellerbe were caught. Dick Ellerbe pleaded guilty, and at that time the judge had no discretion, but had to sentence him for life. Jake Jennings was convicted. and, I think, sentenced to five years in the penitentiary. It may be well enough to commute Dick's sentence to an equality with that of Jake, but I know of no mitigating circumstances. Jake's sentence was reduced to five years because of the recommendation to mercy by the jury, etc."

You will observe the operation in this case of the statute referred to above. Jake Jennings, the negro, does not "suffer the full penalty of the law," but is recommended to mercy, and Dick Ellerbe, though confessing his crime, also obtains mercy. It is, no doubt, a touching fact that this negro has eight helpless children, whose mother and grandmother have died while the father was in prison. But what has this to do with the justice of his punishment? Will any one say that a man who belongs to a "gang of robbers that have infested a community for several years," and who kill one of a posse sent to arrest them, should go unpunished because he has a houseful of helpless children?

The next case on the docket is that of Eli Moore. You say:

"He was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment for manslaughter. Eight of the jurors who tried the case ask for his pardon on the ground 'that there is reason to believe that Moore did not do the shooting, and that it was done by a white man who left the State immediately after the shooting and did not return until after the trial.' It apparently did not seem worth while to trouble this white man by ascertaining the truth of the matter, which was adjusted by a commutation of Moore's sentence from ten years to five."

The reader would naturally infer from the above statement that Eli Moore would not be guilty at all should it be proved that the white man did the shooting. But even were this proved, Eli Moore would still be guilty and deserve the punishment he is receiving. He and others, including, probably, this white man, constituted a gang that murdered a colored man named Mitchell Godbold. Which one of the party actually fired the shot that killed Godbold, will probably never be known. Only two of the party were caught—Haines Graham and Eli Moore. The evidence at the time of the trial was that Moore did the shooting, and so his punishment was made greater than that of Graham. Will any one deny that these men should have been punished? Will any one affirm their punishment was too great? And does the petition, signed by white men, that Moore's punishment should be mitigated, since there is a probability that he did not do the actual shooting, look as if "the State is quite willing to dispense with the formality of the actual commission of a crime by a negro in order to secure his services as a convict"? But why was the suspected *white man* never arrested? I have not the information requisite to answer this question; but it is no uncommon thing for a man to be strongly suspected of a crime, and yet for the evidence to be too slight to warrant his arrest. At any rate, you may be sure that a white man that joins a band of negroes to commit murder, will hardly be regarded with any special affection by the whites.

I close with the case of Capers Allen; and I select it, partly because it is the saddest and most damaging of all, and partly because, though bad in itself, it is unintentionally made to appear much worse than it really is, by the mode of stating it. Your statement is:

"In 1887, Capers Allen, also colored, was accused of murder. His employer at once came forward and testified that the prisoner, who was quite young, was four miles away when the murder was committed. Subsequently, the boy was rearrested without his employer's knowledge, tried, and sentenced to be hanged, the sentence being commuted by Gov. Hampton to imprisonment for life. The employer has made repeated efforts to secure his release, but not until eleven years have gone by is he finally successful."

Your statement is a fair presentation of the case as it is recorded in the Governor's Statement; but that statement, from its very brevity, has to omit much matter that is necessary to the understanding of the case. Gen. Bonham, Capers Allen's attorney, assures me that the facts are these: When Clayton Allen was killed, several negroes were arrested on suspicion, among them Capers Allen, then in the employ of P. B. Allen. P. B. Allen at once informed the party that held these negroes in arrest that Capers Allen was with him, four miles away, late in the evening of the night that Clayton Allen was killed; and that he felt quite sure Capers could not have been among the murderers. Whereupon Capers was released. Some time afterwards, the evidence against Capers being very strong, he was rearrested, tried, and convicted. P. B. Allen, his former employer, living, at the time of Capers's arrest, in a different county, knew nothing for a long time of Capers's conviction. As soon as he heard of it he took steps to secure his release, and was successful, Gen. Bonham being the attorney. Why it was that the testimony of P. B. Allen to an *alibi* that was adduced when Capers was first arrested, and which led to his release at that time, was not brought forward when he was tried and convicted, is not known. Capers's attorney (a lawyer, appointed by the judge at the time of the trial) knew nothing of such testimony. Here was the great and fatal mistake that consigned an innocent man to imprisonment for eleven years. But as soon as the mistake was detected it was corrected.

The petition makes a different impression. It declares that P. B. Allen had *all along* testified to Capers's absence from the scene of the murder; and the impression is made that Capers was kept in confinement for eleven

years, during all which time P. B. Allen was urging his release, and testifying to an *alibi* in his favor. Gen. Bonham assures me that this was not the case; that as soon as P. B. Allen's testimony was produced it was acted on, and Capers was pardoned.

It is necessary to say a word about these petitions in general, and about the Governor's Statement. The petitions always present the most favorable side of the case. They assume as known all the unfavorable features, and urge only those matters favorable to the prisoner; and they are so apt to strain facts in the prisoner's favor that the Governor feels obliged to write to men of high character in possession of the facts, in order to be well informed before acting on the petition. But the Governor cannot embody all these facts in his Statement. The purpose of the Statement is to inform the public as to whom he has pardoned, and, in the briefest possible way, of the ground of his action. He naturally mentions only the mitigating circumstances. The impression, therefore, is apt to be made that these persons were unjustly punished in the first instance. But if one will only take the trouble to investigate, he will find that there is quite another side to the picture than that presented in petitions. The papers containing the facts in the cases of all who have applied for pardon or commutation are carefully preserved by the Governor, and he will take pleasure in supplying such papers to all responsible persons who seriously desire to inquire into the facts.

The administration of justice in South Carolina is not perfect. But we claim that our laws are impartial and our judges incorruptible. As long as human nature is weak, and juries are made of men many of whom are ignorant and prejudiced, and some corruptible (and this is true of juries everywhere in this country), the innocent will sometimes be punished, and the guilty will sometimes go unpunished. The good people of South Carolina deplore the evils that exist among them far more deeply than it is possible for any one at a distance to do. But we have not yet reached that condition of things described in your article. With all our faults, we are still a civilized community.

W. J. Alexander.

University of South Carolina, April 12, 1889.

EAST AND WEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It would be bad enough to be advertised as applying the term "effete East" to our busy and exaggeratedly living Eastern centres of thought and commerce, if one had really committed such a solecism; but imagine yourself to have given an address, Mr. Editor, where the very opposite idea was advanced, and where the Eastern States were pictured as the source and inspiration of all Western thought and advancement, and then try and realize your feelings when you saw yourself described to the world as speaking of the "effete East." Surely an author so unfortunate deserves at least the privilege and opportunity of explanation; and though the matter is a very small one to the great East maligned as "effete," the Westerner involved in the case feels very much in the mood for reprisals, at least to the extent of an explanation.

The address in question was upon "The Relations of the East and the West"; and in speaking of the possibilities of future development in our great country, the author alluded to the difference between inland and coast civilizations. The fact was adverted to that coast civilizations—or periods of flower in culture—are usually most brilliant, but short-lived, like the era of Athenian splendor or the Italian Renaissance. Inland civilizations, on the contrary, are of slower growth and longer duration, but are in danger of fossilizing, as did Egypt, for instance. The author then drew attention to the great inland region comprising our so-called Western States, and spoke of the possibility open to them of developing a unique civilization individual in type. The fact was emphasized that the Eastern or coast States had been the original guides and inspirers of the West, and that they would always remain the high seats of a culture peculiarly their own, as their location upon the coast made them sensitive to the thought pulsations of the world. This position would enable them to transmit to the inland region of the West constantly fresh incentives and impulses, which, having done their destined work of rousing, would return to their originators with a new and characteristic flavor.

The idea was, that this constant repulsation would enable the East and the West to maintain each its own type of culture and keep both from stagnating; but the fact was insisted upon that, in order to develop and maintain an individual culture, the West must have her own libraries and universities, and only send her young men and women East after their powers have been ripened and matured in purely Western fashion. It was the elaboration of this last conclusion which probably left upon the mind of the weary listener the idea that the author considered the East "effete," and the mistake is only worth correcting because it voices a feeling in regard to Eastern culture too prevalent in the far West, and which Eastern people are too ready to attribute to the West as a whole.

Mary H. Ford.

Kansas City, Mo., April 10, 1889.

AMERICAN WOOD-ENGRAVING IN DANGER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "An English Estimate of American Wood-Engraving," and the criticism of it in your issue of April 11, cannot help striking an American observer humorously. After the American school of wood-engravers not only has, in the quietest way, won the general admiration of the other part of the civilized world, but is really studied and imitated from Paris to St. Petersburg, and from Stockholm to Rome, while the English conservatives have for the last twenty years never turned their faces forward, for the simple reason that they had once discovered something by looking backward; and now that they try to imitate the Americans—we are to blame for it all. But, as the writer in the above-mentioned article says, "There are shortcomings in regard to book-illustrations." We admit this even if we accept the present method of magazine illustration as good in general. It is certainly the only method possible at present to interest the public.

The making up of a magazine is not practically identical with the art of bookmaking, nor criticism of a magazine with criticism on bookmaking. Nevertheless, the illustrations (wood-engravings) in our magazines have greatly fallen off in interest to our public for some time, if we may judge from the meagre notices of the daily press for the last two years. In particular there were the long war articles and physical and geographical articles in the *Century*, which left little space for artistic efforts either for artists or engravers; and we find there also, in other work which could be more broadly and artistically treated, a tendency to bring out details without regard to the harmony of the whole—a kind of amateur work, with little blacks and lights all over it very discouraging to the friends of the art. On the other hand, we find in *Harper's Magazine* a tendency to over-fineness and overcrowded pages, the result of reducing large original drawings and pictures to a small size. This deplorable mistake of our magazines generally has been noticed and criticised in Europe. It leads the public from a healthy pictorial study into a kind of map-examination. We may constantly observe that if any one opens a magazine, he will read for a while, keeping the book at the proper distance till he turns a page, when up goes the book, three or four inches nearer to his face, to make out one of these fine woodcuts, filled like a storehouse—the little light which was left by the engraver having vanished by filling up in the printing, thus leaving often a very dark, indistinct picture. So the dailies, as well as the public, are not much to blame for the falling off in interest in our fine wood-engravings.

Yet there is another feature even worse than this: the magazines have more or less, for the last two years, tried to get tone "process" reproductions instead of wood-engravings, and these have even appeared as frontispieces. The general public, not knowing about the manufacture of these things, have necessarily taken them for superior wood-engravings, since they are not mentioned as tone process anywhere. They must also frequently have felt the necessity of drawing the book still nearer, with a sensation of black sand flying in front of their eyes, owing to their blurred and foggy appearance. This is the latest improvement in American illustrations. Another kind of tone process is made on a lined plate; it appears more clean and distinct, but also more mechanical, flat, and artistically uninteresting.

As to the reproductive qualities of this process, we cannot understand how artists of renown, who are constantly preaching about distinct tones and values, can bear to see themselves represented in such a style. We need only point to Mr. Chase's pictures in *Harper's* March number—a contradiction of their own teachings. We sometimes hear artists prefer these blurred performances because they come nearer a facsimile of the artist; we know of many instances in which such a facsimile was kept, but the picture was lost. Still, we cannot quarrel with the artists if they choose this line, but to the combination of "process" with type in a book we have a right to object. There is nothing more artistic than harmony; in fact, it is the first law of all art. But the sharp-cut letterpress characters and the blurred impressions of "process" side by side are anything but agreeable to our eyes, and almost revolting.

It is much the same with the ornamental drawings of pen-and-ink process. This scratchy work may be all very artistic in itself, but can never join with the letterpress like a clear woodcut. There is a warmth in the line of the latter and a solidity which harmonize perfectly with good letterpress, and therefore the old method (especially that of the sixteenth century) is more agreeable, more impressive, and therefore more artistic, but not exactly cheaper.

We think we have pointed out the main evils at present visible in the way of good bookmaking with illustrations, and that it is only proper to inform the public, that they may be enabled to understand the difference between "process" and wood-engraving. To this end, the magazines ought to state, either on the page or in the table of contents, which is which. Meantime, with hearty good wishes to the craft of wood-engravers, we bid them see to it that

the interest of the public in this highly cultivating art be kept alive, since every art must decline which does not find a public to appreciate it. AMEN.

AN ITEM IN BALLOT REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A bill has been introduced in the Minnesota Legislature, and is now before the Judiciary Committee, to adopt the Rhines vote-recording machine in all general and special elections in the State.

This machine is the invention of Mr. J. W. Rhines of St. Paul. It seems to combine all the virtues of the Australian system with a number of other good points. The ordinary paging machine of the printer suggested the main idea to Mr. Rhines. The principle involved is that of the counting-machine, as in the odometer. It is old, time-tried, and absolutely accurate.

The practical machine is an oblong brass box about 10x14 inches, six inches deep, with a hinged cover. This box is placed on a small stand in the rear of the polling-room, and in plain sight of the judges and clerks of election. The voter is identified by the judges, and passes into the stall where the machine is. On raising the lid of the box, a screen is drawn up before the stall, shutting both voter and machine from view. The lid when raised discloses a number of keys not unlike organ stops. There are as many rows of keys as there are tickets in the field, and as many keys in a row as there are offices to be filled. The printed name of each candidate and the office to which he aspires are placed in the top of these keys.

The elector in voting presses down the key bearing the name of the candidate he wishes to support. The key remains down. In being depressed it has locked all the keys of other candidates to the same office, thus making it impossible for an elector to vote for more than one candidate to the same office; at the same time this key has imprinted indelibly, on a slip of paper beneath, a number—which is the total vote cast for that candidate at that time. The elector votes for each of the other offices in turn, in the same way, shuts down the lid of the box, thus ringing an alarm bell and dropping the screen in front, exposing machine and voter to the view of the judges. The box lid on being closed liberates all the keys, and the machine is ready for the next voter.

When the last elector has voted, the count is already made and recorded for each candidate. The turnstile at the judges' desk has recorded the total number of voters. The slip of paper bearing the record of the vote can be most easily preserved.

This system assures absolute secrecy of ballot and absolute accuracy of count. It requires a sort of an educational qualification, in that the keys must be read; and yet there is an ingenious scheme already proposed, that all Republican keys be colored red, all Democratic keys white, etc., so that an elector could vote any straight ticket he chose, and be relieved from all intellectual exertion further than distinguishing between two colors! It saves the expense of printing ballots, and, better than this, it does away with the tedious and inaccurate counting of paper ballots; as a consequence of this, contested elections will be a thing of the past.

Absolute secrecy being assured, bribery at elections will be dealt a most telling blow, for the briber can no longer be sure of his purchase. J. PAUL GOODE.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, April 8, 1889.

BY AND BY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer of Murray's 'New English Dictionary,' in the *Nation* of April 4, cites the expression *by and by* as a case in which the Dictionary falls short of perfection. This phrase, he says, "is used by Chaucer in the sense of nearness in space as well as of nearness in time." And he goes on to refer to a line in the Knight's Tale as one of the examples which "have not been given because they have not been received." Now the very first meaning given under the heading *by and by* is the following: "Of a succession of (persons or things): One by one, one after another, in order: a. in place." This is supported by four illustrations, all as apposite as the one mentioned by your reviewer. Indeed, the line from the Knight's Tale,

"Two yongë knightës lying by and by,"

could hardly be more exactly paralleled, for lexical purposes, than by the expression of much earlier date quoted from Robert of Brunne, in which, referring to the heads of the slain, we are told that "he laid them by and by."

In speaking of this colossal dictionary would it not be well for reviewers to imitate the caution of the scientist, who will not say "There are no ghosts in nature," but rather, "That part of the book of nature which I have read is silent touching the phenomena known as ghosts"? M. B. A.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, April 6, 1889.

[There are not many persons, presumably, who suppose that the expression "one after another" conveys necessarily the idea of nearness in space, and is therefore equivalent to "close together, side by side"; at least if they do, they are not usually employed in defining words for dictionaries. It was to exclude the idea of succession, which may or may not involve the idea of nearness, that the line was cited from the Knight's Tale, to which the idea of nearness was essential. In a similar way in the Reeve's Tale the Miller's daughter is said to have had a bed to herself "in the same chamber by and by." The cautious scientist may fancy that she had a bed "in succession," whatever that may mean; the ordinary reader will suppose that she simply had one "close by," on account of the smallness of the room.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO. have in press Prof. Carl Justi's 'Diego Velasquez and his Times,' translated by Prof. A. H. Keane, and liberally illustrated; Pierre Paris's 'Manual of Ancient Sculpture,' edited and augmented by Jane E. Harrison; 'Half Hours with Humorous Authors,' by Charles Morris; 'Eight Hundred Miles in an Ambulance,' by Laura Winthrop Johnson; and 'Francis Bacon (Part II),' by John Nichol.

A collection of the verse of Mrs. Graham R. Janson, under the title, 'The Bird Bride: a Volume of Ballads and Sonnets,' is announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out in the fall as a subscription work a 'History of the Nineteenth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. Richard B. Irwin. It will be accompanied by new maps of the campaigns and by portraits of commanders.

White & Allen have collected for publication in a popular volume Mrs. Martha J. Lamb's papers on the 'Inauguration of Washington in 1789.'

"Balaustion's Adventure," "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau," and "Fifine at the Fair" compose the eleventh volume of Browning's Poetical Works, published in this country by Macmillan & Co. "Red Cotton Night-Cap Country" and "The Inn Album" fill out the twelfth volume. The generous print of this edition adds to its acceptability as the author's edition with his latest, and perhaps final, revision.

There are a few bright passages, descriptive of life and scenery in the diamond mines, in 'An I.D.B. in South Africa' (John W. Lovell Co.), by Louise Vescelius-Sheldon, which remind one of that pleasant book of travels by the same author, 'Yankee Girls in Zulu Land.' These are set in a crude story with a childish plot, turning upon the detection of an "illicit diamond-buyer," as those dealers are called who buy stones secreted by the Kafir miners. Numerous illustrations, the best being by C. E. Graves, give to the book a very taking appearance which its contents, we regret to say, fail to justify.

'Home Gymnastics' (without apparatus) is a handsome and attractive book translated from the German of Angerstein and Eckler, the original having reached an eighth edition (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is adapted both for the well and the sick, and exhibits the several exercises by means of cuts based upon photographs. Anything which promotes a steady regard for health by way of counteracting sedentary habits, senseless costume, or discreditable ignorance of physiology and hygiene, is to be commended, and this work, though not the first of its kind, deserves to have its vogue, and is certain to do good. A happy thought has led to the grouping on one folded sheet that can be put upon the wall, of all the cuts scattered through the text.

All great cities are interested in the endeavors of any one of them to cope with the sewage problem. In Massachusetts, the State Board of Health has had the duty laid upon it of determining how to dispose of the sewage in the Mystic and Charles River valleys; these two streams emptying into Boston Harbor, and their united territory being really a part of the metropolitan district. The Board's Report (Senate document, No. 2, 1889) will repay reading. It has a number of excellent maps.

Curious for its maps and colored plates, as well as for its discussion, is the preliminary report on "Peach Yellows," by Erwin F. Smith, special agent of the Department of Agriculture. The peach flourishes or may be cultivated from the northeastern corner of Massachusetts as far west as the 100th meridian, though from the south end of Lake Michigan the line dips southerly till it reaches the 39th parallel. The southern confine extends from the southeastern corner of Virginia, parallel with the coast and well removed from the lowlands, almost to the Rio Grande. The peach reasserts itself throughout the Pacific Coast States.

We have received the first annual report of the Marine Biological Laboratory situated at Wood's Holl, Mass. It relates the history of the institution, an outgrowth of the seaside laboratory maintained for six years at Annisquam by the Boston Woman's Education Association and the Boston Society of Natural History, and records the achievements of the past year, which went little beyond the erection of a building and its equipment in an unsurpassed degree. The end in view is "the establishment of an ideal biological station,

organized on a basis broad enough to represent all important features of the several types of laboratories hitherto known in Europe and America," instruction and investigation going hand-in-hand together—and both sexes, we will add, taking part in the management and in the studies: two "Lucretia Crocker Scholarships" are being raised. The laboratory for investigators will be open from June 3 to August 31; that for students, on July 10 for seven weeks, for regular courses in marine zoölogy and microscopical technique. The secretary is Miss A. D. Phillips, 23 Marlborough Street, Boston.

Part 3, vol. v., of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass., appeals by its contents to a great variety of tastes. The obituaries are noticeable, and of the late Sydney Howard Gay it is related that, his family homestead at Hingham, Mass., having been burned, and the ground incorporated in the cemetery, his remains lie in the very spot occupied by the dwelling-house—a rare occurrence, surely. Mr. Edward Everett Hale has a paper on the naval history of the Revolution, a neglected topic; Prof. A. P. Peabody defines and illustrates "Hopkinsianism," with the aid of some hitherto unpublished correspondence between Roger Sherman and Samuel Hopkins; and Mr. Andrew McFarlane Davis discusses the site of the first college building at Cambridge, Mass., and fixes it near that of the Wadsworth House. The Librarian, Mr. Barton, brings to light from an old file of papers "Rules for the Society of Negroes, 1693," endorsed in the handwriting of Judge Sewall, March 23, 1713–14. These "Miserable Children of *Adam*, and of *Noah*," among many good moral resolutions, pledged themselves one to another (no doubt with a mental reservation) to afford no shelter to runaways; "but we will do what in us lies, that they may be discovered, and punished."

To the April number of the *Library* Mr. Blades contributes an interesting and valuable paper on "Signatures in Old Books." After describing some of the different methods of signing the sheets of manuscripts, in use from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, he traces briefly the transition from manuscript to printed signatures, and illustrates the various steps in signature development by references to a number of early printed books. Thus he gives several examples of the use of manuscript signatures in addition to the well-known case of the Mazarin Bible, notes the occurrence of manuscript and printed signatures in the same volume, instancing the British Museum copy of Horace (Milan, 1474), in which the signatures as far as D are all inserted by the pen, while after that printed signatures are used. Then came signatures stamped in by hand with separate types, followed by signatures printed at the same time as the text, but placed at the extreme lower margin of the sheet; and finally some early examples are given of what he calls the normal signature, printed in the line just beneath the text, a method which seems to have been first used at Cologne.

An exceedingly suggestive paper on the "Depopulation of the Rural Districts" was recently (March 19) read before the Royal Statistical Society by Dr. Wm. Ogle. In it he showed that, so far as England was concerned, the country was not being depopulated in the proper sense of the term. During the thirty years between the censuses of 1851 and 1881, the aggregate rural population of the fifteen distinctively agricultural counties had not perceptibly decreased, a slight loss in the eastern counties being nearly balanced by a positive gain in the others. The character of the occupations of the people had changed in their relative proportions, there having been a decline in the number of farmers and farm-laborers, persons engaged in various handicrafts, as brickmakers, blacksmiths, etc., and liquor-dealers, while shopkeepers, house-servants, gardeners, and teachers had greatly increased. In one sense, however, it was strictly true that the towns were gaining at the expense of the country. The most energetic and vigorous members of the rural communities are constantly migrating into the manufacturing districts, where the higher mortality is resulting in a "gradual deterioration in the physique of the whole population." There can be no doubt that this is equally the case in this country, though not to so great an extent, and, accordingly, this fact gives the greater importance to every effort, in the older States especially, to make village and country life more attractive to the young. A well-sustained free library, for instance, may exert a powerful influence over the village boy in strengthening his natural affection for his birthplace, and making it harder for him to leave it when manhood comes.

— An event of more than ordinary interest to collectors is announced by the appearance of a catalogue of ninety-one manuscripts on vellum, illuminated by English, Byzantine, French, Flemish, Dutch, Italian, and Spanish artists of the seventh to the seventeenth century, chiefly from the famous Hamilton collection, and till lately in the possession of the Royal Museum in Berlin, accompanied by twelve plates of facsimiles. This remarkable collection is to be sold, under the auspices of Karl J. Trübner, Strassburg, at auction (unless previously disposed of by private contract) in London, on May 23, by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, and the circumstances of the sale seem to demand a word of explanation. In 1882, the whole Hamilton Palace collection of manuscripts was secured by the Royal Museum in Berlin, and it is understood that the price agreed upon was £74,000; the Prussian Government, however, granted only about £50,000 for the purchase of the collection. The Museum authorities hoped to obtain a supplemental grant which would enable them to keep the collection intact, but in this they have been disappointed, and are therefore forced to dispose of a portion of it. They retain, of course, the Botticelli Dante, and a number of other manuscripts, chiefly Italian, French, and Oriental.

— Of the ninety-one included in the catalogue, sixty are from the original Hamilton collection, and among them are some of its choicest treasures. Chief of these is the beautiful seventh-century manuscript of the Gospels, on purple vellum in letters of gold, which there is every reason to believe is the one written for Wilfrid of York by Anglo-Saxon scribes between 670 and 680, and which, after various wanderings, was presented to Henry the Eighth by Leo the Tenth. This manuscript has recently been carefully examined by Wattenbach, who supports this view of its origin, which is also confirmed by the investigations of De Rossi. For this manuscript alone it is said that £5,000 has been offered by an English dealer. Another manuscript of great artistic and literary value is a *Bestiarius*, the work of an English scribe about 1175, containing one hundred miniatures beautifully drawn, and colored in the style of that period. The Carolingian age is represented by a manuscript of the ninth century, considered upon internal evidence as probably written by an Irish scribe at St. Gall. Of Byzantine art at its best there are two specimens, a Greek Evangelistarium of the eleventh century, containing thirteen miniatures, and one of the twelfth century, also beautifully illuminated. Among the many interesting French manuscripts which deserve notice only one or two can be mentioned. Of the first half of the thirteenth century is a Josephus, with many finely executed miniatures in the earliest Gothic style; while the art of the fourteenth century is richly represented by a manuscript of the 'Roman de la Rose,' containing one hundred miniatures in grisaille, a volume of *Chansons* with twelve miniature portraits, a 'Généalogie de la sainte Vierge,' illustrated by a Norman artist, and several others. Among the many beautiful fifteenth century works 'Les illustres Malheureux' of Boccaccio, with eighty exquisite miniatures, and a French translation of Diodorus Siculus, illuminated by the celebrated Geofroy Tory for Francis the First, must not be omitted. The Italian school is represented by a fourteenth-century Bible with miniatures and illuminations, a splendid *Antiphonale* richly illustrated, and a manuscript of Columella, among others of the fifteenth century. Of German and Flemish art there are some fine examples of various dates, but we can mention only the French translation of St. Augustine's 'City of God' in two volumes, illustrated by Flemish artists of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and considered one of the finest specimens of miniature art in existence. Books of hours, breviaries, and missals are well represented, and many of the manuscripts possess not only great beauty, but interesting historical associations. Even this imperfect sketch of the catalogue must make it evident that an opportunity, not likely to occur again, is here offered to secure for a public institution a collection which would furnish in itself an epitome of miniature art such as few European museums can surpass, or even equal. To the New York Metropolitan Museum it would be an invaluable acquisition, and it is to be hoped that an effort may be made to obtain it.

—We have received the first part of the catalogue of the historical library so generously bestowed on Cornell University by ex-President White. This portion is devoted to "The Protestant Reformation and its Forerunners," and if the task is completed in the same careful and elaborate manner, the catalogue will be worthy of the extensive and valuable collection which it so minutely describes. Mr. Burr, the compiler, has condensed in it a treasure of bibliographical information which will render it valuable as a work of reference to many students besides those who have access to the library itself. In looking over it, indeed, our only regret is that such a mass of rare historical material should not be situated in some centre of population where it would be more accessible to scholars in general. In many respects we presume that the collection is unique in this country. There is a MS. life of Savonarola, which Mr. Burr conjectures may be the original source of those of Pico and Burlamacchi. There is a copy of the commentaries on the Catechism by Archbishop Carranza, which was rigorously suppressed, and which gave to the Spanish Inquisition its most illustrious victim. There is a 1500 edition of the 'Taxes of the Penitentiary,' which ultra-Catholics are fond of assuming to be a post-Reformation forgery. It is in contemporary editions of the early German Reformers, however, that the collection is the richest, and the titles Erasmus, Von Hutten, Luther, Melanchthon, and others bear ample testimony to the enlightened industry of the collector and the bibliographical skill of the compiler.

—There are some items, nevertheless, that surprise us by their absence. Under Flacius Illyricus we do not find the 'Catalogus Testium Veritatis,' nor under Théodore de Bèze his 'Histoire Ecclésiastique.' We cannot imagine the collection to be wanting in them, nor any reasonable limitation that should exclude them from this section of the catalogue. Of the 'Institutes' of Calvin there seems to be no copy of the original, but only a modern English version. Lefèvre d'Étaples is conspicuous by his absence, and so are the Spanish reformers. Of Juan de Valdés there is only Betts's translation of the 'Considerations,' and no copy of the 'Dos Diálogos' of Juan and his brother Alfonso—a book quite as significant in its way as the 'Colloquies' of Erasmus or the 'Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum.' Juan Perez, Cipriano de Valera, and Francisco de Enzinas are likewise absent—in fact, all the writers reprinted with such pious care by Usóz y Rio in his "Reformistas Antiguos Españoles." We miss even so common a book as Adolfo de Castro's 'Protestantes Españoles,' in both its Spanish and English dress. If these remarks were offered as criticism, they would be manifestly unfair; but where a collection is so large and valuable as this, one cannot resist the temptation of pointing out the deficiencies which its custodians can readily fill. To satisfy our critical conscience, we will indicate a single trifling lapse—under Jerome Barlowe (p. 4) there ought to be a direct reference to Arber's Reprints.

—Who was Washington's schoolmaster? Aside from allusions to Hobby and Williams, this question is not answered in the standard biographies. Nor does it seem to have attracted the attention of antiquarians who, in this centennial year of his inauguration, hold every Washingtonian item, however trivial, worth its weight in gold. There is the more reason to trace out Washington's principal teacher because he was probably a convict. A statement to this effect appeared a dozen years ago in the London *Notes and Queries* (s. 5, vol. v, p. 501). The words are these:

"Mr. Washington was the second of five sons of parents distinguished neither for their rank nor fortune. . . . George—who, like most people thereabouts at that time, had no other education than reading, writing, and accounts, *which he was taught by a convict servant whom his father bought for a schoolmaster*—first set out in the world as surveyor of Orange County," etc.

—This extract is from the autobiography of the Rev. Jonathan Boucher, who, from 1760 till the Revolution, was a teacher and preacher in Washington's neighborhood, and who even became the tutor of Washington's stepson, Parke Custis. This connection, Boucher claims, "laid the foundation of a very particular intimacy and friendship" with the stepfather. The truth regarding Washington's tutor must have been known to Boucher, nor was he likely to write untruth in a private journal which he had no thought of publishing, and which, aside from fragments in *Notes and Queries*, still remains in manuscript. The testimony of Boucher was probably unknown to Sparks and Irving. If known to them and believed, they would doubtless have ignored it as beneath the dignity of history. Nowadays we are less squeamish. How gladly would we welcome such a description of Washington's tutor as was given of a contemporary pedagogue in that quarter by the following advertisement: "Ran away from Rev. D. Magill, Upper-Marlborough, Maryland, a servant, clothed with damask breeches and vest, black broadcloth coat, broadcloth cloak of copper colour, lined and trimmed with black, and wearing black stockings." So complete are the Old Bailey chronicles of transports shipped to the American plantations that the extraction of Washington's tutor would seem to be ascertainable.

—The increasing philological and theological interest in the Greek translations of the Old Testament is illustrated by Dr. Edwin Hatch's 'Essays in Biblical Greek' (Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), the substance of lectures delivered by him during his terms of office as Grinfield Lecturer on the Septuagint. His topics are: the value and use of the Septuagint; short studies of the meanings of words in Biblical Greek; psychological terms in Biblical Greek; early quotations from the Septuagint; composite quotations from the Septuagint; Origen's revision of the Lxx text of Job; the text of Ecclesiasticus. The most interesting critical question raised by the author relates to the possibility of going behind the three Septuagint recensions of Jerome's time, and reconstructing the text or texts from which these were formed. The solution of this question must be sought in the examination of quotations from the Septuagint in writings of the first two centuries of our era; and by way of applying this method, Dr. Hatch selects the citations from Psalms and Isaiah in Philo, Clement of Rome, Barnabas, and Justin Martyr, with some interesting results. The importance of the Septuagint for fixing the meaning of New Testament terms is becoming more and more apparent, and such work as Dr. Hatch has done will help to guard New Testament exegesis against a good deal of the looseness that still prevails; we may instance his sections on *arete* (as "glory, praise"), *deisidaimonia* ("superstition"), *diatheke* (always "covenant"), *dikaiosune* and *eleemosune* as interchangeable, and *musterion*. He has collected a large mass of material, which he treats with scholarly discrimination and breadth. The difficulties which he and others encounter in the examination of the Septuagint, force on our attention the necessity for a new edition of its text, a thoroughly critical handling of manuscripts, versions and quotations. If the time is not completely ripe for such an attempt, a beginning at least should be made, and the completion of the Cambridge edition will be hailed with warm satisfaction.

BALL'S HISTORY OF MATHEMATICS.

A Short Account of the History of Mathematics. By William W. Rouse Ball, Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge, and of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Macmillan & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 464.

Of all the departments of knowledge in which exact results are attainable either by reflection or experience, mathematics and astronomy seem to be the ones which—to borrow a term from the law—mankind first endeavored to codify. Astronomical speculations can be traced back, and finally fade away, into the mists of antiquity. But astronomy as a science has always depended upon mathematics, and we are justified in asserting that mathematics is the oldest of the sciences. We should not, perhaps, speak too strongly if we asserted that the history of mathematics is the history of the development of the human intellect. To treat in a satisfactory manner a subject so vast evidently requires a man not only of great learning, but of great intellectual power. The smaller the compass within which he is obliged to confine himself, the harder does the task become. To write anything worthy of the name of a history of mathematics in one volume would be more difficult than to write it in ten. He should, among other qualifications, be acquainted not only with the works of those mathematicians who have discovered new theorems and new methods, but also with the works of those who have written on the philosophy of mathematics; who, by coördinating, and giving symmetry and consistency to what is already known, have smoothed the way to further progress.

In broad general views Mr. Ball seems to be greatly lacking, and equally lacking in his knowledge of those writers who have taken such views. We will give a single example. Auguste Comte and his works have passed into history. It is considerably more than half a century since the publication of the first volume of his 'Philosophie Positive.' Its special title is 'Les Préliminaires Généraux et la Philosophie Mathématique.' It has been widely read by the mathematicians of Europe and America. It was translated into English by Professor Gillespie of Union College, himself a pupil of Comte and a graduate of the Polytechnique at Paris when Comte was regarded as the most brilliant professor in that most illustrious of mathematical schools. The influence of Comte's work on the history of mathematics has been very great. It can be traced alike in the ordinary text-books and in the profoundest treatises. Comte added no specific inventions or discoveries to mathematical science, not so much from inability as because he worked with different purposes and for different ends. He grasped almost all the mathematical knowledge of the ages which had preceded him, condensed it, pointed out the interdependence of its parts, gave it symmetry and coherency, and left a work which will always be regarded as one of the greatest intellectual achievements of the nineteenth century. Yet Mr. Ball does not even mention his name. Were his 'History of Mathematics' our only source of information, we should not know that the great teacher of teachers had ever lived. The general impression of Mr. Ball's book is that of a small boy trying to carry too large an armful of wood. He drops a stick here and a stick there, but comforts himself with the belief that he will get home with enough to build a fire.

Passing over the lack of broad and comprehensive views, let us look a little at the author's accuracy. On page 151 he attempts to give the origin and meaning of the word *Algebra*. He is treating of the life and works of the Arabian mathematician Alkarismi, who wrote a treatise on Algebra about A.D. 830. Of this treatise he says:

"The work is termed *Al-gebr we'l mukabala*; al-gebr, from which the word algebra is derived, means that any the same magnitude may be added to or subtracted from both sides of an equation; *al mukabala* means combination of like terms into a single term."

Of the words *al gebr*, the first is merely the article *the;* the noun *gebr* is the significant part. Arabic is a very rich and a very expressive language, but when Mr. Ball gets out of a single word all he has stated above as its meaning, not only does he get a great deal more than there is in it, but what he gets is not in it at all. The noun *gebr* is derived from the verb *gabara* (*g* pronounced in all cases like English *j* in jam), which means *to bind fast*, to *bind up*. From this comes the secondary meaning to bind together that which has been broken, to *restore* to its integrity that which has been separated. The noun *gebr* is a *nomen actionis* derived from the first form, or what in English grammar we call the active voice of the verb, and denotes the act of binding together the parts of a thing which has been broken or

fractured. The best single word by which it can be translated into English is *restoration*. By the Arabian mathematicians it was used to denote the *restoration* of the term which is necessary to complete the square of a quadratic equation. At the time Alkarismi wrote, the solution of quadratic equations was the highest point that Arabic algebra had attained. Such an equation, before the completion of the square, was regarded as broken or out of joint, and the completion of the square *restored* it to its normal form. Of course this process implies the truth of the axiom that if equals be added to equals, the sums will be equal. But this was not the meaning of the word *gebr;* that word meant the *restoration* of the integrity of the equation. We have no room to discuss either the form or the meaning of the word *mukabala*, as Mr. Ball transliterates it, further than to say that it referred, not so much to the "reduction of like terms into a single term," as Mr. Ball has it, as to the reduction of the equation by the extraction of the square root. The best translation, in the fewest words, of the whole phrase, is *restoration and reduction*. In a footnote on page 98 of his 'Trigonometry and Double Algebra,' De Morgan has explained this phrase in the same manner, though not so fully. We presume De Morgan had never studied Arabic, at least not to any extent, and his transliteration of the Arabic words is very bad. But he understood all the circumstances of the case, and he was wonderfully acute in seeing just what the meaning must be, even if he did not know exactly how it got there.

Of course Mr. Ball gives an account of the celebrated controversy between Newton and Leibnitz and their respective partisans as to the invention of the calculus. We have no doubt that he means to be fair and impartial. But we have as little doubt that his patriotic prejudices have so warped his judgment that his account is worthless. His worship of Newton is a sort of idolatry. The great ability of Leibnitz he admits, but he leaves on the mind of the reader the impression that it was the ability of the charlatan. Mr. Ball's chapter on the "Life and Works of Newton" occupies fifty-seven pages, a little more than one-eighth of his whole book exclusive of the index, and he speaks of him or his works in more than fifty other places to which he refers in the index. To Leibnitz he gives six pages, mostly occupied in belittling the man and his works. He mentions him in about twenty other places, but most of these are in connection with the controversy with Newton. The most Mr. Ball can bring himself to admit is that "possibly" Leibnitz may have invented the calculus independently of Newton. Even this admission is given grudgingly in a parenthesis. In stating the divisions under which he will treat the history of modern mathematics, he says: "In the second place, we have the invention of the fluxional or differential calculus about 1666 (and possibly an independent invention of it in 1674)" (p. 232). Although Mr. Ball mentions no names, yet every one will at once recognize, what he afterwards in his more detailed account expressly states, that Newton and Leibnitz are alluded to. Of course it is not possible in a review to enter into the merits of a controversy which occupies so prominent a place in the history of mathematics. We only wish to show the spirit in which Mr. Ball writes. We will also remark that the almost unanimous opinion of all mathematicians of the present day, who are acquainted with the history of mathematics during the seventeenth century, is that Newton invented the essential features of the method of fluxions eight or nine years before Leibnitz invented the differential calculus; that Leibnitz's invention was made in entire independence of Newton's, and was far superior to Newton's in form, as is proved by its complete supersedure of Newton's method even in England. Fluxions are matters of history, differentials are taught in our schools. That the differential calculus was published nine years before any account of the fluxional method was put in type, is stated by Mr. Ball and is disputed by nobody. It is generally admitted that Newton invented the method of fluxions in 1665 or 1666, but he kept it to himself until 1669. He then began to communicate it to his friends, orally or in manuscript. In 1692 he explained it in two letters to Wallis, the Savillian professor of geometry at Oxford, and Wallis published it in the second volume of his works in 1693. This was the first printed publication of the method. The first formal publication of the method by Newton himself was in 1704, when it appeared as an appendix to his work on optics.

Leibnitz claimed to have invented the calculus in 1674 in entire independence of Newton. During the present century Leibnitz's note-books have been discovered, and from them it is certain that he was using the differential calculus in 1675. He published a full account of it in 1684, nine years before any publication of Newton's method; and during those nine years it spread over all continental Europe wherever mathematics was cultivated, became firmly established, and led to many brilliant discoveries. At the present day the priority of Newton's discovery is not denied. The only question of interest now is, Did Leibnitz invent it independently, or did he manage in some way to get hold of Newton's unpublished method, and, after changing its form, publish it as his own? As we have stated above, the almost unanimous opinion of those competent to judge is, that he was an independent inventor. Mr. Ball thinks differently, and his theory of the matter is curious and original. In January, 1673, Leibnitz visited London. He left London and went to Paris in March. While in London he became acquainted with several of Newton's friends, among others with Collins and Oldenburg. He corresponded with them after he left London. The great controversy commenced in 1708, and Newton himself took it up in 1711. From that time until 1716, the year of Leibnitz's death, it was carried on with a ferocity which to men of the present time is almost incomprehensible. In fact, for half a century after Leibnitz's death, the mention of his name affected the English mathematicians much as the red flag of the *toreador* affects the bull.

Now for Mr. Ball's theory; we have italicized two words in our extract in order to show its full force:

"For myself, I think that in this correspondence from 1709 to 1716 Leibnitz did honestly believe he had invented the subject independently of Newton; but he was writing from memory of what had happened nearly forty years before, and I *suspect* that the manuscripts of Newton, which he privately admitted that he saw in 1676, *may* have been seen in 1673, and were far more important than he recollected later."

In other words, in 1709, Leibnitz had forgotten that in 1673 he stole the calculus from Collins or Oldenburg or some other friend to whom Newton had communicated it; and all the rancor and bitterness of the dispute, all the rummaging of old documents, all the representations of facts on both sides in every conceivable form of distortion that intervenes between downright lying and sober truthfulness, failed to jog his memory. But it is impossible to convict Leibnitz in 1673 and acquit him in 1709 in this way. In 1699, Nicolas Fatio de Duillers, a Swiss mathematician residing in London, had communicated to the Royal Society a paper on a celebrated mathematical problem, and in it had insinuated that Leibnitz might have borrowed from Newton, but preferred to leave the decision of the matter to those better acquainted with the facts than himself. To this Leibnitz replied, calmly but emphatically asserting his independent invention of the calculus. Whether this arose from dishonesty or failure of memory, Mr. Ball does not inform us. But he gives us data by which we can go back much further. On page 333, after denouncing Leibnitz's "duplicity" and various forms of dishonesty, he says: "Lastly, the letter to Newton in 1677 shows that Leibnitz was then in possession of the differential method, and apparently in as complete a form as that in which he published it in 1684."

This letter was written by Leibnitz to Oldenburg, to be communicated to Newton. Oldenburg was one of the men who, as Mr. Ball suspects, may have shown manuscripts of Newton to Leibnitz in 1673. Neither Oldenburg nor Newton on receiving this letter made any charge of plagiarism. Ten years afterwards, in a celebrated passage of the 'Principia' (published in 1687), Newton referred to this letter, but did not hint a suspicion that either in form or substance it had been borrowed from himself. If Leibnitz stole the calculus in 1673, he could hardly have forgotten the fact in 1677, four years (not forty) after the theft, and every one must be amazed at his audacity in exhibiting the stolen goods to the lawful owner.

There is a tone of disparagement running through almost everything that Mr. Ball says about Leibnitz. His summing up is (p. 344): "On the whole, I think his mathematical work is overrated." Every professional mathematician must have noticed how many of the methods which have been so wonderfully developed and so brilliantly applied during the present century, are traced back by those most profoundly versed in them to suggestions of Leibnitz, and they are cited as proofs of his genius. Mr. Ball "confesses and avoids" by saying: "But when a writer of manifold interests like Leibnitz throws out innumerable suggestions, some of them are likely to turn out valuable." Mr. Ball to the contrary notwithstanding, we think the mathematical reputation of Leibnitz more likely to increase than diminish as time goes on.

Every student of the differential calculus is aware of the fact that one of its principal instruments is a formula known as "Maclaurin's theorem." It is only a special case of "Taylor's theorem," and so obviously deducible from the latter that it hardly deserves a special name, though that may sometimes be convenient. In his account of Maclaurin Mr. Ball says (p. 361): "The *Treatise of Fluxions* published in 1742 was the first systematic exposition of this method. To the pure calculus he added the theorem, etc." He then gives the formula known as "Maclaurin's theorem," and his manner of obtaining it, which may be found in any text-book of the calculus (see Newcomb's Cal., p. 100). Now, Maclaurin did not discover the theorem, if so obvious a deduction from Taylor's theorem can be called a discovery, did not first use it, did not first "add it to the pure calculus," whatever that may mean, and did not first publish it to the world. That Mr. Ball knew this perfectly well, we think can be shown beyond any reasonable doubt. Maclaurin is one of his heroes, and the author of the "first systematic exposition" of the method of his great hero Newton. His admiration of his

heroes must have effaced from his memory facts which he should have stated in his 'History,' and which he has met with over and over again in the course of his studies. He has evidently read many of De Morgan's works; what English mathematician of any pretence to learning has not? He says that De Morgan "was perhaps more deeply read in the philosophy and history of mathematics than any of his contemporaries," and he speaks especially of "his great treatise on the differential calculus published in 1842, which is a work of the highest ability." On page 74 of that work De Morgan speaks of Maclaurin's theorem, "which," he says, "should be called Stirling's theorem." In a foot-note he gives all the references necessary to vindicate the priority of Stirling, who published the theorem in his 'Methodus Differentialis' in 1730, twelve years before the publication of Maclaurin's 'Treatise of Fluxions.' At the beginning of the note, De Morgan says that Maclaurin "was the first who wrote a logical treatise on fluxions." Compare this with Mr. Ball's expression quoted above, and it is difficult to avoid the inference that he had read De Morgan's note. Further, the French mathematicians very generally say that the theorem belongs to Stirling.

Again, such a well-known text-book as Todhunter's 'Differential Calculus,' perhaps more widely used in England than any other, states (p. 74) that the theorem is usually called Maclaurin's, "though, as it had been given a few years previously by Stirling, it sometimes bears the name of the latter." Once more: Mr. J. Edwards, in his text-book of the Differential Calculus published in 1886 by the same firm that publishes Mr. Ball's work, says (p. 95): "In 1717 Stirling pointed out another form of Taylor's theorem, viz.;" he then gives the formula known as "Maclaurin's theorem," with explanations, and adds the remark: "It is generally known as *Maclaurin's Theorem*, though its publication by Maclaurin was not made until twenty-five years after its first discovery by Stirling." Mr. Edwards, of course, had in his mind Stirling's 'Lineæ tertii ordinis Newtonianæ,' published in the year he mentions, 1717. That work is not accessible to us, so that we are unable to verify his statement. But as all the other authorities within our reach agree in regarding the publication in Stirling's 'Methodus Differentialis' in 1730, twelve years before its publication by Maclaurin, as the first, we think it possible that Mr. Edwards, by a slip of memory, has confounded Stirling's two works. Mr. Ball, in his brief account of Stirling (p. 323), mentions both his works, but says nothing of his discovery of the theorem. Neither can Mr. Ball's omission to state the facts, and his unconditional claim of the theorem for Maclaurin, be excused on the ground that perhaps Maclaurin discovered the theorem independently of Stirling, and, as his influence on the history of mathematics was much greater than Stirling's, he deserves the credit. Such independent discoveries form a part, and a very interesting part, of the history of mathematics. It is, however, in the highest degree improbable that Maclaurin was unacquainted with the works of his compatriot.

On the whole, we should hesitate to make any statement of importance in regard to the history of mathematics based solely on Mr. Ball's authority. As a guide to the sources of information, however, his work is of great value, and, notwithstanding the errors, the omissions, the prejudices of this 'History,' it is still one of the most interesting books we have ever read. Nearly the whole of it will be intelligible to one whose scientific education has included only so much as is required to enter the freshman class of any American college. The greater part of it can be understood by those to whom the ordinary language of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, astronomy, and physics is comprehensible.

Mr. Ball's general plan is this: he divides the history into certain chronological periods. At the beginning of each period he gives a general account of it, and then follows a series of biographical sketches of the mathematicians who lived during the period and an account of their works. Some of these notices extend to only a few lines, others cover several pages; the biography of Newton, as we have before said, occupies one-eighth of the whole work. These biographies are by no means confined to the mathematical aspects of the lives of their subjects. There are numberless stories and anecdotes relating to their morals, their pecuniary successes and failures, their domestic life. Some of these stories have a bearing on their mathematical achievements, some are sad, some are humorous, all are interesting. The general impression produced upon the reader's mind is, that mathematicians, like men engaged in any other department of human activity, present every variety of character and fortune. At one extreme are men like Archimedes, every moment of whose long life was absorbed in thinking and writing, in inventing and constructing. At the other extremity we have the Italian Cardan, an illegitimate son of a lawyer, yet educated in the highest manner known to the sixteenth century. His life was one long intellectual and moral riot. One of the greatest of mathematicians, the most brilliant professor in the oldest and at that time perhaps the most illustrious university of Europe—Bologna—his income and his influence with the nobility and the Pope were based on his fame as an astrologer. At one time absorbed in laying the foundations of the theory of equations, at another, in a mad fit of rage, he was cutting off the ears of his own child. The Pope shielded him because he believed in his astrological skill. Finally, when seventy-five years old, having predicted that he should die on a certain day, when it arrived he committed suicide.

We have room for only a few specimens of Mr. Ball's anecdotes, and those we must condense. Most of our readers have heard the story of the interview between Laplace and Napoleon I. Napoleon said: "M. Laplace, they tell me you have written this large book on the system of the universe, and have never even mentioned its Creator." Laplace replied: "I had no need of that hypothesis." But perhaps Mr. Ball's appendix to the story is not so well known. Napoleon told the story to Lagrange (who, we will say, by way of parenthesis, was a greater mathematician than Laplace), and he answered: "That is a fine hypothesis; it explains a great many things." This from the life of Kepler is both serious and comic. Kepler was poor, but married a rich and beautiful widow. He found too late that "he had purchased pecuniary ease at the expense of domestic happiness." Finally, his wife went mad and died. Then he picked out "eleven girls whose merits and demerits he carefully analyzed in a paper which is still extant; he finally selected a wrong one." She led him a worse life than the widow.

Besides personal anecdotes, Mr. Ball gives a large number, scattered through his book, of curious problems and mathematical puzzles. One of these, a very simple one, derives its interest from the fact that it is attributed to Euclid and is probably more than two thousand years old: "A mule and a donkey were going to market laden with wheat. The mule said, 'If you gave me one measure I should carry twice as much as you; but if I gave you one we should bear equal burdens.' Tell me, learned geometrician, what were their burdens?"

Mr. Ball refers to Tartaglia, a mathematician of the sixteenth century, as authority for the statement that in his time "it was not uncommon at dessert to propose arithmetical questions to the company by way of amusement." To this Mr. Ball, after mentioning in general terms certain classes of problems which "may perhaps pass muster as amusing," appends the remark, "but it certainly seems a curious way of entertaining a pretty woman to insist on an answer to so absurd a question as what would 10 be if 4 were 6, a problem on which he [Tartaglia] evidently prided himself." We would suggest that there may be possibly a difference between proposing a question to a company generally, as Tartaglia states, and "insisting on an answer" from some individual "pretty woman." Neither do we understand how Mr. Ball finds the question "so absurd." Many of our older readers may perhaps recollect that the arithmetics of the early part of the present century often contained problems stated in rhyme. One of these which we happen to recollect ran thus:

"If the third of 6 be 3,
What will the fourth of 20 be?"

Both questions are simply problems in the "rule of three." The answer to the last is 7½, and the answer to Tartaglia's is 15. We fail to see where the absurdity comes in. Mr. Ball gives several examples of these "mathematical recreations." The following is another rather grim specimen:

"A ship, on board of which there are fifteen Turks and fifteen Christians, encounters a storm, and the pilot declares that in order to save the ship, one-half of the passengers must be thrown into the sea; the men are placed in a circle, and it is agreed that every ninth man must be cast overboard, reckoning from a certain point. In what manner must the men be arranged, so that the lot may fall exclusively upon the Turks?"

As a book of reference for the names, the dates, the general character of the works, and interesting facts in the lives of most of the eminent mathematicians of past times, and to some extent of the present time, Mr. Ball's book deserves a place in the library of every professional mathematician.

Mr. Ball says in his preface that he hopes at some future time to issue a second part, a "biographical index, . . . providing as complete a list of mathematicians as is possible. It will give the dates of the birth and death of the writer, a line to say for what he was distinguished, a list of his works, and, where possible, a reference to some authority where they are treated in detail." He has our warmest wishes that he may be able to realize his hopes. Such a work would be of the highest value.

THREE NOVELS.

Cressy. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Nine Men's Morrice. Stories collected and recollected by Walter Herries Pollock. Longmans, Green & Co.

Our Uncle and Our Aunt. By Amarala Martin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE more Western stories we read, the less we are tempted to advise others to read them. Most of the people written about are so irreclaimably vulgar in their language, ideas, and manners as to make association with them in literature as disagreeable as it would be in real life. Such a sketch as 'Cressy' shows how diffi-

cult it is for even a very clever writer to make sheer vulgarity interesting, for if 'Cressy' is not vulgar, she is nothing. Howells succeeds in doing it, but then he has a genius for this kind of writing, and would by this time have founded a school, except that he is literally inimitable. Bret Harte, in his earlier stories, struck a new Western vein, which, while it lasted, was very rich. Now his literary ventures seem to be of a "prospecting" turn, and the yield of "pay ore" to be less. The facility of narrative, the power of sympathy, the pathos and humor, all are here; but the incidents are improbable, the characters are invented and put together rather than created or drawn from nature, and the result is neither a photograph nor a romance.

Mr. Pollock's volume consists of nine stories, one of which, "Edged Tools," is the joint work of Mr. Pollock and Mr. Brander Matthews. Of these the most ambitious is "Lilith," which is also perhaps the most successful. They all deal more or less with the supernatural, and in this they show the author's naïveté, if not his wisdom. There is no field more tempting than the border-land between the real and the unreal, and none more dangerous, because the world is of a sceptical turn nowadays, and does not readily admit the existence of a personal devil or disembodied spirits, except as a matter of religious dogma. It will do for Sunday and church, but hardly passes muster in fiction, except when managed with skill amounting to genius. It is no reflection on Mr. Pollock to say that he had far better try some other field. He evidently has plenty of ability as a story-teller if he will, let us say, renounce the devil and all his works.

Of all the books that have been written with the purpose of ameliorating the condition of women, there are few that will prove more effective upon the mind of the average voter, with whom the decision of the question finally rests, than 'Our Uncle and Our Aunt.' The dry bones of argument and fact are thrown into the form of a lively tale, in which Uncle Sam and his wife—has he hitherto been supposed to be a bachelor?—play a conspicuous part; and the nearly impossible feat is accomplished of awakening an interest in characters which exist for the purpose of carrying on a discussion. The warmth and fervor of the pleading, and at the same time its restraint and moderation, commend it to every lover of good argument; and the skill with which government is personified in the person of a good-natured, unthinking, tyrannical old fellow, who has no idea that his wife cares for any separate existence of her own, lends that concreteness to the presentation of the case which reasoning must have if it is to produce any effect upon minds unaccustomed to abstractions. The book is said to have been written many years ago, and some of the legal abuses which it dwells upon have been remedied in some States of the Union, but none in all, and some in none. There is no reason to suppose that anything less than universal suffrage will make it lose its effectiveness.

The aunt begins by being a gentle and timid woman, quite incapable of opposing her husband in anything. "Marriage had made that couple one, and that one was my uncle. So fully was his wife's identity lost that she was never individualized by her own name, but simply called Aunt Sam." By degrees she gains courage, and even ends by making a public speech on the subject of women's voting. The following quotations will show the scope of the book:

"'If a woman had the ballot, she would only duplicate her husband's vote.' And if she did, what is the harm? Do not fathers and sons do the same, and is either disqualified on that account? 'A woman would *not* vote as her husband, and thus the home would be broken up.' The last century has established the fact that woman can endure all kinds of political differences and persecutions without leaving her home. Are we to understand, then, that man cannot submit to a fair political expression from woman? Is her nearest friend, protector, and *fair representative* unable to tolerate her honest convictions?"

"'But, honest, now,' said Uncle Sam, in a confidential, half-persuasive manner, 'wouldn't you be happier with a home of your own and your husband and children around you?' 'That, sir, if you'll think, is an impossible combination; for a woman with a husband cannot have a home of her *own*.'"

In a dream of the American heaven the very amusing idea is carried out of finding the women subject to the same disabilities which they enjoy on earth. "The speaker raised a neatly folded pair of wings and soared lightly around me, keeping close to the ground. 'You see the women's wings are always clipped. It is a wise provision of the law, our guardians say, as otherwise we might fly too high for our own good.'" The whole sad tale of woman's wrongs can hardly be put in a more moving form than this.

Pen and Powder. By Frank B. Wilkie. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

THIS book is not history, and does not claim to be. It is a compilation of independent articles forming a clever and entertaining combination of history, biography, and fiction. The author thinks that justice has not been done to the abilities and services of the newspaper correspondents who accompanied the Western armies during the war of the rebellion, and his main purpose is to apply a remedy by giving his own experience, and making the public better acquainted with his brothers of the pen. To that end, he says, he has made an effort to recall a class of events and the labors and personality of men concerning whom history and biography have been silent. Twenty-seven of his brethren are mentioned, the biographical sketches of many being excellent. Excellence, however, cannot be predicated of the sketches of distinguished soldiers. Grant, for example, is described as "a dark, thickset man" having "bright brown eyes," whereas Grant was not dark, not thickset, though compactly built, and had blue eyes. Indeed, neither Grant nor his services were seen aright by the author. Taking all the circumstances into consideration, the march from Fort Henry to Fort Donelson has been regarded, and was in fact, a creditable operation. But the author says of it: "The surrender of Fort Henry took place on February 6; on the 12th, six days later, the army of Gen. Grant had crossed the intervening space of eleven miles and environed Fort Donelson. Few such marches are recorded in history; none that I can recall in which less distance was made in more time. It must be regarded as unrivalled." The author qualified himself for criticising this mud march through snow and sleet by making it on a boat which steamed comfortably down the Tennessee and up the Cumberland. For the troops, however, whose march he says was so slow, the weather was "savage." The companies "had not brought their tents, and there was no protection whatever against the ice, snow, and chill winds that took possession of the region."

Speaking of the attack on Fort Donelson, the author says: "On Friday I had wandered around the line of Federal investment, trying to find Grant, but failing constantly. He was not at his headquarters; he was not apparently anywhere," etc. The trouble was, Grant did not know the correspondent was looking for him. If he had known it, surely he would have been "apparently" somewhere. To tell the whole story, Grant, knowing that a crisis was approaching, was looking for the correspondent, and instinctively galloped down to one of the steamboats to find him. As bad luck would have it, the correspondent had just gone ashore. Learning that, Grant let the battle go on. Fortunately, the troops, busy fighting, were wholly unconscious of the game of cross-purposes between their leader and their follower, and no serious consequences resulted.

The book shows no love for the Union cause or for the Union generals, except, perhaps, for McClellan, Steele, and Sturgis. The author says he assured the rebel prisoners at Fort Donelson that they would be soon exchanged or paroled, but that he was mistaken. "They were," he says, "needed to grace the triumph of a conqueror," and notwithstanding it was "savagely cold, and they were without proper covering, they were sent mainly to Chicago, where they stimulated an apathetic patriotism, and thousands of them left their bones in an indistinguishable grave near the site of Camp Douglas." There is no lack of sympathy in the book for suffering Southerners.

In July, 1862, the author "went to Washington in the interest of the Chicago *Times*." Those who remember the course which the Chicago *Times* took during the war will not be surprised to find this book speaking of Seward's "little bell," of the Washington "bastile," and saying:

"Washington, at the time I went there, was a cesspool into which drained all the iniquity and filth of the nation. It was filled with runaway negroes, contractors, adventurers, office-seekers, gamblers, confidence men, courtesans, uniformed officers shirking duty, and the riff-raff, the offscourings of all creation. Except Whitelaw Reid and Ben Perley Poore, the correspondents stationed there were nobodies. Universal drunkenness prevailed. Drunkenness, gambling, and other debasing habits were the occupation, the amusement of residents and visitors. Seward's little bell was tinkling at brief intervals, and the old Capitol Prison had its due quota of inmates."

Properly enough, the writer for the Chicago *Times* "determined to return to the West, where there was something for a correspondent to do besides playing poker and being smothered by a press of courtesans, filthy contractors, shoulder-strapped military men, and all the other disreputable and disagreeable characters that made the large majority of the population of the capital." Of course the determination to leave this Sodom and go West was brought about by the moral sense of the Chicago *Times's* correspondent, and not by the sound of Seward's little bell.

The author tells with remarkable clearness how Junius Henri Browne, then in St. Louis, wrote and the New York *Tribune* published a full and graphic account of the battle of Pea Ridge, which Browne did not witness, and about which he knew nothing. A large part of Browne's work is quoted "as a specimen of what can be done by a vivid imagination on the slim foundation of one fact and a rumor—the former that Sigel was with the Federals, the latter that there had been a two-days' battle resulting in a defeat of the enemy." With Browne's performance before us, we are told by the author that "it is but justice to the correspondents to admit that, without their aid, the battles of the late war would never have been fully known by the public."

'Pen and Powder' throws many side-lights upon war history. Among other things, it shows that steamboats played an important part in the military operations in the West. Their berths afforded accommodations to cor-

respondents, their cabins presented ample opportunities for observing draw-poker, and their decks were good sites from which to view the foolish manœuvres, the slow marches, and the useless slaughter of the Union troops in the surrounding theatres of war. Certainly a strong case may be made in favor of the functions of war correspondents in general, and of the services rendered by some of our correspondents in the late war; but it can hardly be said that it has been made in 'Pen and Powder,' though the book is entertaining.

Memoir of William Ellis, and an Account of His Conduct-Teaching. By Ethel E. Ellis. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

THE growth of the movement for popular education in England was largely the work of undistinguished practical reformers, who spent less time in agitation than in humble efforts of their own to teach the children whom they could reach. They used the pen also, but rather to make known their methods actually in operation and to explain their ideas than to induce the Government to do an undetermined something which, if it were done, might be a panacea. William Ellis has an honorable place among these men, and his career, bare as it is in ordinary biographical interest, is a lesson in practical charity well worth wide promulgation. He belonged to that class of Englishmen, of which this century has been fruitful, who have done more for the actual improvement of their fellow-men than many whose names are widely known as public men—the class of social reformers. Of French and Italian descent, he was the son of a London merchant, and while still under thirty entered the service of one of the first marine-insurance companies, was given its management when it was near ruin, made it a great financial success, and remained occupied with its business until his death at the age of eighty-one. He married the daughter of Sharon Turner, and lived frugally. "Others," he said, "may keep a carriage; I prefer to keep a conscience." He became rich, and maintained that high standard of commercial integrity which characterized his entrance on his important duties. He it was who, when there was some question raised, on occasion of a fire at the docks, whether marine insurance operated until after a ship had left her moorings, paid the claims and forced other companies to the same course. Once he paid a claim on a lost vessel merely because the owner incidentally stated that the policy had not been renewed by the oversight of a clerk. His conduct towards employees was similarly characterized; and when the company offered him a present of £10,000 a year over his salary, he refused to accept it unless the payment of all the other employees down to the porters was similarly raised.

It is not as a business man, however, that he is remembered. He was one of the group of young men who derived from Bentham. He early knew the Mills, and was a member of the two debating societies founded by the younger Mill, which were schools of political and social thought. At what age he began to be deeply moved by the sight of the poverty of the lower classes is not stated; but he came to the conclusion that it was largely preventable, and that the means to forestall it was the formation of character in the young by means of education in moral duties. Parental improvidence, largely induced by ignorance, was the cause; parental forethought was the cure. For the academical education he had a kind of contempt. His attitude towards it is illustrated by two stories: one of a lady who asked him to recommend a Spanish teacher for her daughter, already mistress of many languages, but no knowledge, and who received the reply, "Don't you think it would be a pity to give her another opportunity of advertising her ignorance?" and the second, of a gentleman consulting him about his son's education, who was sarcastically told that Mr. Ellis supposed that he would send him to some place where he would learn how it took Ulysses ten years to go from Troy to Ithaca with the aid of the gods, and would not learn how the voyage could be made now in twenty-four hours without their assistance. He was, however, not a bigoted reviler of classical and refined education. But he held that education was distinctly lacking in the essential points of inculcating rules of conduct for practical life, and in general in forming character. Conduct-teaching was his fixed idea; without this the rest was of little consequence.

He put his own hand to the work only when he was forty-six years old. He then assisted in opening schools in connection with some of the Moral-Suasion Chartists, principally that at the National Hall, Holborn, and those called the Birkbeck Schools in London, though he also gave aid and counsel to those started in the country. He himself, one of the busiest men of the city, where he spent all day, taught several evenings a week for years; he wrote, also, many text-books, and beyond this he contributed many thousand pounds from his private fortune. These schools included in their system the monitorial idea and object-teaching, and they were entirely secular. He was, moreover, a propagandist. He gave lectures at South Kensington and elsewhere. He at one time taught four of the children of the Prince Consort. At no time did he lose any opportunity of serviceableness or of spreading his projects. The results were highly satisfactory, until the Board Schools of London and the general progress of popular education relieved the necessity for such private efforts. It is to be said, too, that William Ellis kept himself out of public view in these benefactions—possibly because of the prejudice against secular education, proceeding from the ministers and clergy, and consequently directed against him personally as a well-known secularist. The portions of the biography which detail his ideas upon moral teaching—and it was only for this that he cared—and which illustrate the workings of his system of instruction, are of high value to such as are specially interested in this important and difficult element in popular education. Ellis's style is entirely destitute of charm, but his mind was full of clear sense.

It was impossible that a man of his convictions and his thorough knowledge of political economy should not think much of the larger question of the relation of the rich and poor. The sight of the use of riches in England affected him with the same directness as that of the destitution of the poor. His whole mind was bent on the problem of diminishing the sum of poverty, and all that poverty entails, in the world. He did not indulge socialistic ideas; but he found nothing surprising in the rising tide of that discontent which is willing to pull wealth down into the ditch with the poor, even though nothing come of the destruction. His view was, that the wealthy are to be allowed for as the poor are, by considering that their errors are equally the results of ignorance of their duties induced by insufficient moral training in social obligations. His more distinct criticism upon them is as follows: "The prevailing styles of living among the wealthy in the midst of privation cannot be reflected upon with unmixed satisfaction even by themselves. It may be given in to—it may be submitted to—it may be conformed to—it may be revelled in—but it CANNOT BE JUSTIFIED." The waste of riches, however, was in his mind only incidental, like indiscriminate charity. The security of property he regarded as the condition of industrial virtue, the underlying ground of those qualities of honesty, frugality, and application which are most important to well-being in the present age. Reform must proceed, he held, by efforts to prevent in individuals the improvidence to which social evils, in his opinion, were mainly due. He was naturally a Malthusian, but commonly he kept his views upon this subject inconspicuous, the state of popular thought being unfavorable to discussions of this sort. Taken altogether, his thoughts upon social conditions have the weight which belongs to a man acquainted with political economy, interested actively in philanthropy, and bringing to the subject a mind trained in business affairs. It is unfortunate that he did not leave some more adequate literary record of his convictions; but he had not the gift to write. His public service is his only memorial, and to it this biography is confined.

The Cruise of the Marchesa to Kamtchatka and New Guinea. By F. H. H. Guillemard, M.D. New ed. Scribner & Welford. 1889. 8vo, xvi, 455 pp. Maps and illustrations.

THE *Marchesa*, an auxiliary screw schooner yacht of 420 tons, owned and commanded by Mr. C. T. Kettlewell, left England in January, 1882, and proceeded by the Suez Canal route to Ceylon, Singapore, Formosa, the Liu-kiu (better known as Loo Choo) Islands and Japan. Between July and October a visit was made to Kamtchatka. In the spring and summer of 1883 explorations were made among the little known islands of the Sulu Archipelago, and some time was spent in visiting the territory of the North Borneo Company. Later the yacht touched at Sumbawa, Celebes, and other Malaysian islands and at various points in Dutch New Guinea, returning to England in April, 1884.

The objects of the voyage, besides the satisfaction of visiting new and little known parts of the Eastern world, were combined in a judicious mixture of sport and scientific research. Such an opportunity for study, recreation, and adventure would seem to offer the *ne plus ultra* of a naturalist's desires. Several such voyages of British yachtsmen have been recorded in book form during the last few years, and have contributed to the entertainment and instruction of thousands of readers. Lady Brassey's charming journals may be cited as a conspicuous example of this growing department of literature. The present volume is a second edition differing from the original two-volume edition in the omission of an historical chapter on Kamtchatka, of sundry technical appendices, and two colored plates. It practically furnishes the general reader all that the first edition contained of popular interest. It is beautifully printed and the illustrations are of the first quality. The text is admirably written—clear without formality, entertaining without flippancy, amusing, yet free from slang.

It would be, of course, impracticable to attempt any summary of the book as a whole which should do it justice. The voyage, which serves as a thread upon which are strung descriptions of Oriental scenery and people, of the striking features of the flora and fauna, is discreetly kept in the background, yet is sufficiently prominent to give the needed unity to the narrative. Among the most interesting bits of description is the account of the eastern shores of Formosa, which tower seven thou-

sand feet or more above the waves in nearly vertical cliffs. These walls are nearly one-half higher than those of the Yosemite, and rise abruptly from the sea. Here and there at the mouth of some cañon is spread a short beach of boulders where a landing in the dry season may be had. In the wet season these openings discharge a prodigious amount of drainage, and at this time the whole coast is practically inaccessible. Another chapter which will be read with more than common interest is that which tells of the journey in Kamtchatka from Avatcha Bay through the interior and down the Kamtchatka River to the sea. We believe this to be the fullest and best account of the sublime volcanic peaks of the peninsula, where these orographic marvels reach a development varying from twelve to seventeen thousand feet in altitude. Within the same area elsewhere such an assemblage cannot be paralleled either in number, height, or perfection of conical form.

The book is an example of thoroughly good workmanship throughout, and we heartily commend it to our readers.

A Treatise of Elementary Biology. By R. J. Harvey Gibson, M.A., Lecturer on Botany in University College, Liverpool, etc. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

When Huxley and Martin, thirteen years ago, published their 'Practical Biology,' they opened up a method of study in biology, long pursued in Germany, which had not before received much encouragement from the English-speaking student. It was the introduction of exhaustive practical work, limited to a comparatively small number of organic types, in place of the discursive general treatment which, in a short college course, was supposed to cover both the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The biological student of to-day cares but little for old-fashioned zoölogy—indeed, he spurns the acquaintance of species and genera with a vigor only equal to that which was applied towards the acquirement of this knowledge by his predecessors. Morphology, histology, and embryology have all but usurped the place of systematic zoölogy and botany. In this departure from the beaten path of study, which has borne rich fruit, it can be plainly seen that the pupil has outstripped the master. While the latter was content with legitimately combining the new method with the old, the former has largely restricted himself to the one method alone. It is no longer ignorance for a naturalist not to know the name of a plant or an animal, but something in his favor; it is ignorance not to know from which tissue a certain organ originates, or in how far the vertebræ of a bird or reptile are, or are not, "homologous" or "homonomous" with the corresponding vertebræ of a fish or a quadruped. It is ignorance not to know the different phases of embryonic development of a given individual, but a knowledge of habits, of the relation which the individual holds to its surroundings, and of geographical distribution, is not considered absolutely necessary.

It is difficult to estimate the balance of good or bad that has resulted from this method of inquiry. That it has opened up a vast field of research, and of research of the highest order, cannot be questioned; but, at the same time, it is apparent that, at least to a certain extent, it is substituting a microcosm for a macrocosm. It narrows the mind to a contemplation of objects which are largely visible only under the microscope, and hides that which is apparent on the surface. We do not wish to be understood as undervaluing this form of research, for the light it has thrown upon certain phases of life and construction is in the nature of a revelation, but we believe that a too close and exclusive adherence to its methods is harmful, and destructive to the broader philosophic conception of the organic world. We are apt to miss the thread of nature in grappling with particles, and liable to the misconception that the construction of the universe is merely an embodiment of the construction of its entities, and nothing more.

The little volume before us is an exposition of the new school of biologists; it is an addition to literature which has developed from the germ sown by Huxley and Martin. Like all text-books of science which have been prepared with a certain amount of care and under the guidance of a fairly equipped student, it has something to recommend it, and will be found serviceable by a large number of students. But, like a host of other books which, without the aid of a master's mind, have been given to the world with the purpose of "filling a place" seemingly not yet occupied, it has its deficiencies and inaccuracies, and these, in the present instance, suggest the query, For what purpose was this book written? We are informed by the author that his principal motive was to acquaint the biological student with certain facts and conclusions of physics and chemistry which are considered essential to a proper appreciation of biological study, and to point out the dependence of biology on these two branches of physical inquiry. For this purpose we are furnished with preliminary dissertations on "Matter," "Energy," the "Classification of Chemical Compounds," "Laws of Chemical Change," the "Composition of the Atmosphere," etc. Whether the introduction of these features was a sufficient excuse for the publication of a work which has otherwise nothing specially distinctive about it, and which, from a narrowness of preparation, has but little to recommend it as a school-book—for which it is intended—may be a matter of diversity of opinion. To us, even with its added features, the book appears in no way superior to others that have preceded it.

Of what advantage, for instance, can it be to the biological student or any one else, to be told that "matter is divisible, but not infinitely so (save in imagination)"; that "practically, and even theoretically, there are limits to the divisibility of matter"; that "the practical limits of the divisibility of matter are soon reached"; that an atom "is itself indivisible by any means at present in our power"; or that "nearly every molecule is composed of two or more atoms"? What kind of proof, or semblance of proof, can be furnished for these assertions? It certainly seems unnecessary to trouble the biological student with considerations in other departments of science which are wholly of a theoretical character. Objection can also be made to the unnecessarily free use of strictly technical terms, and to the habit, prevalent with many biologists, of coining a new word for almost every process that takes place in nature. The following construction (p. 34) will illustrate the barbaric condition, if we may so term it, into which "elementary" biological language is drifting: "Changes concerned in the building up of protoplasm will therefore constitute *constructive metabolism* or *anabolism*; while the changes which take place in the decomposition of protoplasm may be termed collectively *destructive metabolism* or *katabolism*. The products of anabolism and katabolism will therefore be naturally *anastates* and *katastates* respectively."

For the rest of the book little need be said; it contains the usual good points and bad points that belong to books of its kind. Considerably more than one-half of the systematic portion deals with the anatomy and physiology of plant-life. The types illustrating the animal kingdoms are only Protamœba, Amœba, Obelia, the earth-worm, the lancelet, and the frog. How this limited selection can adapt itself to the requirements either of the college student or of the self-taught, it is difficult to understand. A text-book on biology with two of the more important groups (Crustacea, Mollusca) of the animal kingdom wholly ignored is, in one sense, certainly elementary. The illustrations are numerous and for the most part distinct.

Historic Families of Kentucky. First Series. By Thos. Marshall Green. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1889.

The three families treated of in this volume are the McDowells, the Logans, and the Allens, all three Scotch-Irish, a race which the author (for many years an editor at Maysville, more lately a correspondent for the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*) greatly admires for its stubborn combativeness. The writer of the book yields them nothing in this virtue, and is noted as the best hater in Kentucky. He invited, to his cost, a famous libel suit in 1879, and in 1887 he had a "personal difficulty" with a Democratic politician, which he survived. The book is most unreadable to the public at large, though the Kentuckian who knows many of the more than five hundred men and women named in the three hundred pages, either personally or as the parents and grandparents of his personal friends and acquaintances, will feel a passing interest in turning over the pages, and glancing at the account of well-remembered incidents. There is not enough said about any one man to make him even the hero of the moment, to call forth an interest in him that was not felt by the reader before. Nor is any art shown in giving substance to men who, in themselves, are hardly more than airy nothings. Thus, of Ben. Hardin Helm, son of Gov. John L. Helm, nothing is said but that he was born in 1831, graduated at West Point, studied law, joined the Confederate army in 1861, fought gallantly in it, rose to be general, and was killed at Chickamauga in September, 1863. The author of the book has ever been a strong Union man. Still, he nowhere states in so many words that Ben. Hardin Helm was the brother-in-law of Abraham Lincoln, only allowing it to be inferred from an account of the marriages of Robert S. Todd's daughters. He does not tell us that Helm was about to be nominated in the summer of 1860 for a great State office, in order to bring out and concentrate the Union sentiment of the State against the Breckinridge Democracy; that this near connection with Lincoln, the Republican nominee for the Presidency, made him "unavailable"; that after Lincoln's accession to office, Mr. and Mrs. Helm visited Mr. and Mrs. Lincoln at the White House, spending several days there; that Lincoln offered to appoint his brother-in-law a paymaster, and to send him off to New Mexico, which he declined; that from having been a strong Union man he was gradually drawn to the other side by the influence of his father, who, contrary to the Whig traditions, was intensely hostile to the Union cause.

The book thus lacks the attraction to the general reader which would arise from connecting its dreamy figures with the best known historic names and events—barring the old stories about Aaron Burr, told and heard quite too often already. It also lacks the charm of

light and shade. The frailties of the men of his three great families are kept out of sight. We do not learn how many of them drank themselves to death (the percentage cannot have been small); how many were killed in a brawl growing out of a game of poker, etc. In short, the book is not at all racy. It was probably written, mainly, to be bought by the many living persons whose names occur in it, and by the sons and daughters of others now dead; and, in the memorable words of Mr. Lincoln, "for those who like that sort of a thing, it is just the sort of thing they will like."

How Men Propose. The Fateful Question and its Answers. Love Scenes from Popular Works of Fiction. Collected by Agnes Stevens. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888.

When a woman reads a novel, it is said that she always turns at once to the chapter containing the proposal—that being for her the real centre of interest in any book. The author of 'How Men Propose' has evidently manufactured her book on the theory that, if a woman likes to read one proposal in a book, *à fortiori* she will enjoy reading a hundred. Accordingly, she has selected the proposal scenes out of a hundred well-known, or not so well-known novels, and classified them under various heads—as, "the successful proposal," "the humble proposal," "the resultless proposal," and so on. The result is a very cloying book. It is not true—at least to our taste—that because a proposal is interesting, what a commercial traveller would call a "full line" of proposals is attractive. On the contrary, reading about proposals is altogether too much like eating candy: a surfeit produces indigestion and disgust with life. Moreover, our compiler seems to have overlooked the fact that, disconnected from the story, a proposal is to a great many minds rather uninteresting. It is what leads up to the grand climax—our previous acquaintance with the characters—that gives a zest to their love-making.

Nevertheless, to the student of human nature and lover of his kind, such a collection will suggest a good many curious inquiries. If such a work were exhaustive enough, it would give us a complete natural history of love-making, which might be made a basis of one branch of what Mr. Mallock calls the science of human nature. But then it would have to be very encyclopædic, and would have to embrace all races and tribes, times and countries. Anglo-Saxon courtship is only a small part of the whole field. And it is curious, by the way, to notice—judging from the collection before us—how simple and unsophisticated Anglo-Saxon love-making is, compared, let us say, with that of the French novel. The dread which the English or American lover always has lest he shall abandon himself to his feelings, gives his proceedings an air of reserve which, to a woman of another race, would seem very strange. But then, fortunately, in these matters, the attitude of the woman is adapted to her environment; and no doubt, from the primitive period when a stout club was the most cogent argument in a marriage proposal, women have always reconciled themselves to the facts of their situation.

A Selection of Cases on the Law of Quasi-Contracts. By William A. Keener, Story Professor of Law in Harvard University. 2 vols. Cambridge: Charles W. Sever.

The familiar term "implied contracts" is ambiguous in that it includes contracts implied in fact, which are true contracts, with certain obligations which are enforced by the law as if they were contracts, though they lack essential elements of true contracts. Prof. Keener's adoption of a distinctive name for implied contracts of the latter kind is in the interest of clear thinking and sound reasoning on legal subjects. Those who cling to the ancient ways may be helped to overcome their distaste for innovation by noticing that the Supreme Court sanctions the use of the term *quasi*-contract (Steamship Co. vs. Joliffe, 2 Wall., 450).

The cases here selected, about four hundred in all, are arranged in chapters so as to bring out in sharp relief the legal principles contained in them. The first chapter treats of the nature of the obligation and the differences between it and contract and tort. The second chapter covers failure of consideration in cases of mistake, non-performance of contract by the defendant, and non-performance by the plaintiff of a condition of contract. In the remaining chapters the topics illustrated are benefits conferred without request, benefits conferred at request but not in the creation or performance of a contract, recovery of money paid under compulsion, and waiver of tort. The work ends with a carefully prepared index, in which a simple typographical device distinguishes *dicta* from decisions.

The absence of a summary of the whole matter and of headnotes to the individual cases is a serious hindrance to the use of the book by lawyers in active practice. But the want of headnotes could not be supplied without sacrificing the primary purpose of the author, which was to provide a book that could be used in the Harvard Law School in accordance with the method of instruction which Prof. Langdell brought into vogue. One of the characteristic, and not least valuable, features of that method is, that it requires the student to dig out for himself the questions involved and the reasons of decision in each case, and to state the result of his labors in the class-room, subject to the criticism of his fellow-students and the instructor. A summary of all the cases might, consistently with the limitations of the system of instruction, have been added; but this, we are told in the preface, is reserved for a treatise on the law of Quasi-Contracts. A cursory comparison of these cases with the parts of the standard text-books which purport to cover the same ground, is enough to convince any one that such a treatise is needed. Coming from the hands of a skilled workman, there can be no doubt that it will be of exceeding benefit to lawyers and judges.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Statistician and Economist. 1889. Illustrated. San Francisco: L. P. McCarty. $4.
Balzac, H. de. Bureaucracy; or, The Civil-Service Reformer. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Beaufort, Duke of. Driving. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bennett—Murray. A Handbook of Cryptogamic Botany. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Bourrienne, L. A. F. de. Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte. New and revised ed. Illustrated. 4 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $5.
Brown, C. A New Method of Conversation and Correspondence in the French Language, for Business Men and Schools. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. The Pretty Sister of José. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Callendar, H. L. A System of Phonetic Spelling, adapted to English. Macmillan & Co. 15 cents.
Campbell, Helen. Prisoners of Poverty Abroad. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Chisholm, G. G. Longmans' New Atlas, Political and Physical, for the Use of Schools and Private Persons. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Crawford, F. M. Greifenstein. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Darmesteter, Prof. J. Shakespeare. [Classiques Populaires.] Paris: Lecène & Oudin.
Desdevises du Dezert, Prof. G. Don Carlos d'Aragon, Prince de Viane: Étude sur l'Espagne du Nord au XVe Siècle. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Dobson, A. The Poems and Plays of Oliver Goldsmith. Etchings by John Jellicoe and Herbert Railton. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Draper, L. C. An Essay on the Autographic Collections of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution. Revised and enlarged from the Wisconsin Historical Collections. Burns & Son.
Dupuis, Prof. N. F. Elementary Synthetic Geometry of the Point, Line, and Circle in the Plane. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Graves, J. A. The School Hymnary. Charles E. Merrill.
Harris, Rev. S. S. Select Sermons. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Higginson, T. W. The Afternoon Landscape: Poems and Translations. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Hillard, Katharine. The Banquet (Il Convito) of Dante Alighieri. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
Howard, Blanche Willis. The Open Door. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babli and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature. Part III. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Lang, A. Letters on Literature. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lang, A. Lost Leaders. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Leffmann—Beam. Examination of Water for Sanitary and Technical Purposes. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.25.
Lightner, Adna H. Shadow and Sunshine. George Munro.
Linton, W. J. Poems and Translations. London: John C. Nimmo. 12s. 6d.
Livermore, Mary A. My Story of the War: A Woman's Narrative of Four Years' Personal Experience in the Sanitary Service of the Rebellion. Hartford: A. D. Worthington & Co.
Musset, A. de. Three Novelettes: Margot, The Beauty-Spot, Croisilles. Brentano.
Peacock, E. A Glossary of Words Used in the Wapentakes of Manley and Corringham, Lincolnshire. 2d ed. 2 vols. Trübner & Co. 12s. 6d. each.
Peacock, T. B. Poems of the Plains, and Songs of the Solitudes. 3d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Peard, Frances Mary. The Country Cousin: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Plummer, Dr. A. The Pastoral Epistles. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Proctor, R. A. The Student's Atlas in Twelve Circular Maps. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Robinson, H. P. Pictorial Effect in Photography. The Scovill & Adams Co. $1.50.
Schelle, G. Du Pont de Nemours et l'Ecole Physiocratique. Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.
Smith, R. H. Graphics; or, The Art of Calculation by Drawing Lines, Applied Especiall to Mechanical Engineering. With an Atlas of Diagrams. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Solitarius to his Demon. Three Papers. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
Stearns, G. The Pericosmic Theory of Physical Existence and its Sequel, Preliminary to Cosmology and Philosophy Proper. Hudson, Mass.: The Author. $2.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XVIII. Esdaile—Finam. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
The Amaranth and the Beryl. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
The Man from the West: A Novel. Pollard & Moss. 50 cents.
Twells, Rev. H. Colloquies on Preaching. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Ulbach L. The Confessions of an Abbé. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Ulmann, A. Frederick Struther's Romance. Brentano.
Vincent, Prof. M. R. Word Studies in the New Testament. Vol. II. The Writings of John. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 25, 1889.

The Week.

THE appointment of Robert P. Porter as Superintendent of the Eleventh Census is perhaps the most unfortunate nomination yet made by President Harrison. Mr. Porter is a renegade Englishman, a renegade free-trader, a renegade member of the Tariff Commission of 1882-3, and a man of indifferent repute in other respects. The contrast between him and Gen. Francis A. Walker, the Superintendent of the Tenth Census, is so glaring in every way that the two would never be mentioned in the same breath by any person of scientific training or possessing technical knowledge of the work that the census involves. It is not because Mr. Porter is a protectionist that he is objectionable as Superintendent of this great decennial work. Everybody knew that a protectionist would be appointed. Everybody, we might say, was agreed to that. But Mr. Porter is a protectionist for revenue only. He has shown very clearly that he has no convictions. He has doubled on his own track twice, and he has slandered his native country in a series of letters written for pay. A census taken under such superintendence is discredited in advance in important particulars, and the money spent upon it will be to a large extent wasted, because the results arrived at will not be generally accepted. The Superintendent of the Census holds a quasi-judicial position, and it is of the first importance that he should have gained a reputation for judicial qualities of mind and character. Mr. Porter's reputation is that simply of a soldier of fortune.

How great the misfortune of his appointment is for the country can be inferred from the fact that all discussions of an economical character—all which have to do with the material well-being of the nation—are based upon the decennial census. Originally the census was merely an enumeration of the people as a basis of political representation. It has grown to be the statistical book of the nation's industries, religion, education, taxation, and social organization in general. It is the universal almanac and encyclopædia to which our own people and foreigners turn as to the authority of last resort, either to decide questions of dispute, or to sustain theories, or to gain light in new investigations of social and industrial phenomena. To throw doubt upon such a work before it is begun, to discredit it in the minds of those who are most competent to extract the truth from census-tables, and commend it to less discerning readers, is something which the Senate ought not to sanction.

"Something equally as good" to Tom Platt as a seat in the Cabinet is a contract with the Treasury Department making the United States Express Company (T. C. Platt, President) the exclusive agent of the Government for the transportation of all its moneys throughout the United States, and assigning to said express company rooms in the Treasury Department building at Washington for the transaction of their business. The Buffalo *Courier* publishes a circular letter signed by Platt, in which this contract is described. The Government service has heretofore been performed by the Adams Express Company under a contract made during President Grant's Administration. The contract has not been considered a part of the political spoils heretofore. We do not know any reason why it may not be performed as well by one company as by another. We note the circumstance that Platt has been provided for, with some hope that he may be satisfied with his own plum and stop "bossing" the patronage of New York, and let Mr. Warner Miller's friends have "something equally as good."

Although "Mr. Whitelaw Reid, having taken office abroad under the Government," has retired "from the editorship and direction of the *Tribune*," that journal on Sunday showed all its familiar maladroitness by stepping into the Wanamaker & Brown scandal of the circular to country postmasters, in utter unconcern of what its co-apologists might be doing about it. The *Tribune* said "that Mr. Wanamaker sold out his connection with this house several years ago, the retention of the firm name representing his brothers, and that he has no actual connection with the business." But Messrs. Thomas B. Wanamaker and Robert C. Ogden of Philadelphia say: "We desire, as the partners of John Wanamaker in the firm bearing his name, to state that Wanamaker & Brown constitute a limited company, in which John Wanamaker is simply a stockholder, not even an officer." And the Postmaster-General himself says: "I hold a little stock in it." This is all that anybody has alleged as the ground of charging indecency in the issue of the circular to the Postmaster-General's subordinates. The characteristic *Tribune* touch, however, is the final remark that the circular "was prepared and sent out before the election, when there was no assurance that Gen. Harrison would be elected, or that, if elected, Mr. Wanamaker would be his Postmaster-General." It is dated "April 8th, 1889."

The truth is, that for thick-and-thin partisans this is a clear case for application of the saying, "The least said the soonest mended." With such an odious little scandal, the thing for them to do was to keep silence, and trust to the rush of events and short memories. But misfortune seems a property of the Administration which is just beginning to make itself known. Perhaps no man ever came to the first office of the state with greater advantages than attended Mr. Harrison. Mr. Cleveland's course had made easy for him some ways of wise administration which otherwise would have been difficult. His political opponents in the late campaign received him with open minds, ready and even eager to discern in him intelligence in modern and reasoned methods of statesmanship, and honest purpose to fulfil his public engagements. This disposition was sincere, for the wish was father to the thought, and it could have been changed into firm regard and liking by a course falling far short of ideal capacity and honesty. A little good intent, some tact and management, and a run of luck, would have gone far to establish the Administration firmly in the regard of the people who greeted it so hospitably. But it has had none of these things. The first two it has chosen to do without, but nobody willingly exorcises luck, even if there were any known way of doing that, and the most striking feature of Mr. Harrison's rule up to this time is want of luck. To take the present moment for example, not often can an Administration have on hand at once a vulgar, sordid scandal like the Wanamaker & Brown circular to postmasters, and a great, tragical blunder like turning out of the New York Post-office that dying man, to put a Republican "Boy" in his place, just as his disease was taking its sudden fatal turn. A few more days of squabbling over the New York spoils would have seen Mr. Pearson die untroubled, and would have made it possible to believe that the Administration would have been glad to keep this eminent public servant in the place which he dignified.

Mr. Cleveland not only allowed Republican postmasters in Massachusetts to serve out their terms, but in more than one case reappointed an incumbent who had been efficient in the discharge of his duties and had not been offensive in his partisanship. The first test of what Mr. Harrison would do under similar circumstances was presented in the case of Mr. Couch, Postmaster in the college town of Amherst. He has been a most faithful public servant, and has conducted the office on the principles of civil-service reform, retaining all the assistants and clerks of his predecessors, save where illness necessitated retirement. His reappointment was asked for by nearly the entire faculties of the two colleges and by the leading business men, including the President of the National Bank and the proprietors of the mills, two-thirds of these being Republican in politics. In short, it was eminently a case for the application of the sound principle laid down in Mr. Harrison's letter of acceptance when he said:

> "In appointments to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. Only the interest of the public service should suggest removals from office."

But the Republican politicians insisted upon Mr. Couch's removal, in order to provide for

a party-worker, and "fidelity and efficiency" counted for nothing.

The overwhelming majority cast by the voters of Massachusetts against the proposed prohibition amendment to the Constitution on Monday is a reverse to the movement from which it is not likely to recover for many years. All the circumstances combined to render the verdict in the highest degree significant of the decision which the people have reached as to the best present method of grappling with the drink problem. Massachusetts is a State where public questions are still discussed seriously by the press, and where there is an exceptionally large percentage of voters who put conscience into their ballots. The slow processes of constitutional amendment, which require the endorsement of two successive Legislatures before a change in the fundamental law can be proposed, have kept the question before the public mind for two years, and there has been an animated canvass during the weeks which have passed since the present Legislature ratified its predecessor's action and fixed the day for the election. The result thus represents the deliberate verdict of a community which may still justifiably boast of a remarkably high average of popular intelligence.

In round numbers, the vote of the State was 88,000 for the amendment to 132,000 against in a total of 220,000, or not quite two-thirds of the vote cast for President last fall. Every Congressional district gave a majority against the amendment, with the single exception of the first, which takes in Cape Cod and is chiefly composed of thinly settled fishing and farming villages, where there was a majority in its favor of about 800 out of over 14,000 votes. At the other end of the State, the Eleventh District, which is largely composed of farming towns among the hills, but also has several manufacturing places of considerable size, cast 9,077 votes for the amendment and 10,571 against, this being the next most favorable showing for the Prohibitionists. On the other hand, the city of Boston went almost three to one against the amendment, the vote standing 11,060 for to 31,075 against, and the showing for the Prohibitionists was even worse in Lawrence, where the vote stood 984 to 3,476. Only three cities gave a majority for the proposed change, and one of these is the small city of Waltham; Salem is the one place of considerable size which went that way with a sweep, by the remarkable vote of 2,009 to 879. It will probably appear that a majority of the towns which have a population of less than 2,500, especially in the farming sections, favored the amendment, although in many of these the Prohibitionists were surprised by unexpected defeats.

The effect of the Pennsylvania high-license law in abolishing low groggeries in the cities has been from the outset one of its most marked and gratifying successes. The list of applications granted and refused for Pittsburgh and Allegheny County for the year has just been completed, and the comparative showing with previous lists is very striking. In Pittsburgh only 93 retailers are licensed, as against 214 last year and over 1,500 under the old law. In Allegheny but 39 licenses are granted, as against 78 last year and over 500 under low license. In Pittsburgh eleven wards are left entirely without a licensed house, though most of them are thickly populated and all had a number of applicants. In the county and city but 188 are granted altogether, as against over 500 last year and over 3,000 under low license. Only 64 wholesalers of all kinds were granted license in the entire county. The single fact that there are in a city like Pittsburgh eleven wards almost entirely without a liquor-saloon, is of itself an unanswerable argument in favor of the high-license principle as an effective agency for restricting the liquor traffic. The reduction in the total number of saloons is scarcely less convincing.

The politicians of the late New Jersey Legislature succeeded in defeating ballot-reform legislation in a way which has always been a favorite with their kind. They had a bill, which was a very good measure, passed by a large vote in the Assembly. Then in the Senate they had a very poor measure introduced as a substitute. Neither bill was allowed to become a law, and each party is now charging the other with the responsibility for the failure, while both are secretly chuckling over the way in which they got rid of enacting a law which would have seriously interfered with their business. The chief responsibility for the failure rests upon the Democrats, for they had a majority in both houses, though it was so small in the Senate that it was very easy for the Republicans to block the way of all strictly party measures. New Jersey is not the only State in which the politicians of both parties are hostile to this reform. They would defeat it everywhere if they thought they could safely oppose public sentiment, which is so strongly in its favor.

It is refreshing to read the protest filed by sixteen Republican members of the Minnesota Legislature against the passage of the Granger Meat Bill. They protest against this measure because it is antagonistic to the central idea upon which the Union is based, namely, equality of rights in all the States to the citizens of each and every State. The Meat Bill, they affirm, is a measure of protection to the industry of particular persons in Minnesota, and, therefore, an infringement of the rights of all other persons, an infringement of the right of consumers of meat in Minnesota, and of the sellers of meat in all the other States. "The free and unrestricted interchange of trade between States," they say, "the right of the citizens of one State to sell without let or hindrance the products of their farms or factories in every State of the Union, the absolute destruction of all State lines so far as commerce is concerned, is the strongest link in the chain which binds together the Federal Union. Break this link, and you have taken a long step in the direction of the dismemberment of the Union. In our judgment the effect of this act would be to take a step in that direction. Let this kind of legislation obtain in the several States, and the Republic will have passed the day and hour of its prosperity, and destruction will more certainly threaten than when the clash of resounding arms reverberated in civil conflict." Truer words were never spoken.

The passage of this bill by the Minnesota Legislature really impeaches the capacity of the people for self-government. The bill is, in the beginning, founded upon a falsehood, or a bundle of falsehoods. It assumes that dressed meat coming from other States is unwholesome, the fact being that it is more wholesome than meat eaten immediately after killing (as is usually the case) at home. It assumes that meat can be inspected to better advantage, as regards the public health, before the animal is killed than afterwards, when everybody knows that the contrary is the truth. It assumes that the price of meat to the consumer will not be increased by excluding a portion of the present supply, when everybody knows that if the price were not to be increased by it, the promoters of the bill would never have asked for its passage. It is a translation into inter-State commerce of the principles of the protective tariff, buried under a mass of lies concerning the public health. Perhaps one lie is as good as another to support the doctrine of protection, but neither the protective tariff nor the particular falsehoods which sustain it tend to dismember the Union, as this bill certainly does. Let each State follow the Minnesota example and apply it to all interchanged commodities, and the Union will come to an end, and ought to, because it will not be worth preserving. As the Federal Constitution had its origin in a convention called to promote trade between the States, it would not be an unnatural ending if it should fall to pieces when it ceases to subserve that object.

We are informed, and are satisfied, that we were in error, in our recent article on "Negro Convicts in South Carolina," in supposing that the negro in the first case cited was imprisoned for eleven years on a sentence of one year, whereas, in fact, the pardon was asked for to remove his disability to testify caused by his conviction; he having been duly discharged at the expiration of his sentence. This ground of incompetency of witnesses has been so generally abolished that such a ground for the pardon did not occur to us. We find, however, that conviction in South Carolina for certain common crimes takes away not only the right to testify, but also the right to vote. This may account for the fact that of the white men released from the Penitentiary by the Governor in 1888, all but four received full pardons, while of the negroes so discharged eight only were pardoned and twenty-eight had their sentences

commuted, their disabilities not being in this way removed. It seems that a conviction for petit larceny renders the culprit infamous and deprives him of the rights of a freeman, and for this reason a pardon was asked for "Joe" Anderson in 1886, the trial justice who convicted him certifying to the correctness of the following facts. "Joe" was sentenced to pay a fine of two dollars, or be imprisoned for fifteen days, for stealing two turkeys. He was under fourteen years of age, and had been sent with some other children for the cows; while driving them home, a flock of turkeys got mixed up with the cows and was so scattered that two turkeys were missing. The statement of facts adds that, owing to the tender age of the children, "it is doubtful whether they realized the crime." The Governor granted the pardon, thereby releasing the child from jail, and but for this interposition "Joe" would have been for ever disqualified from testifying in any court in the State and from voting at any election.

The best thing that has happened in journalism for a long while is the increase in price of the New York Sunday papers to five cents. Nearly all of the papers have come into the arrangement, and it would be a good thing if every one would join in the movement. Five cents is not too high a price for the amount of reading-matter presented in one of these issues. Indeed, it would be a good thing if the reform went still further, and the increase in price were accompanied by a decrease in the amount of reading-matter. Nobody wants such a huge pile of stuff dumped upon him in the guise of a newspaper as is now the case on Sunday mornings. "It is as much as a man's life is worth" to try to find any particular needle in one of these great hay-mows, and the mere physical task of overhauling one of these forty-page editions makes the expression "the day of rest" a cruel mockery. We are to have higher-priced Sunday papers; now let us have smaller-sized Sunday papers. The practice of making pack-horses of the innocent and helpless purchasers is a nuisance which ought to be abated.

It is reported that the increase in price of the Sunday editions will soon be followed by an increase in the price of the dailies, and it is earnestly to be hoped that the rumor will prove well-founded. The "two-cent craze" which swept over the field of journalism a few years ago, and led even the *Tribune* to reduce its price from four cents to three, was a curse to the country. It has cheapened the quality of the press far more than its cost, and has lowered the moral tone of the public which reads these depreciated papers. A newspaper such as the New York *Tribune* or the New York *Times* should be, is richly worth four cents, and it ought to bring its value in the market. Both were much better papers in every way when they used to charge what they were worth than they have been since, and both would undoubtedly be much better than they are now if they should go back to their old price. Cheap newspapers have proved a bane to this community, and it would be cause for joy if the public could escape from the evils which they have brought in their train. The percentage of grumblers at an increase of price to a fair rate would be found very small, and any loss from this source would be far more than made up by the gain from the overwhelming majority who would welcome the change.

The rescue of the passengers and crew of the steamer *Danmark* by the *Missouri* in mid-ocean, and the safe landing of every human being on board, is a crown of glory to Capt. Murrill. Of course no sailor will allow any fellow-creature to drown if he can possibly save him; but there are degrees of skill and perseverance in such perilous undertakings, and it appears that Capt. Murrill did just the right thing in each of the several crises that he had to face. He first tried to tow the ill-fated *Danmark* to St. Johns, and, when the storm prevented him from making progress westward, he steered for the Azores. When the *Danmark* was found to be sinking, he threw overboard his deck cargo and conveyed all the passengers on board his own ship in the midst of a tumbling sea. Then a new storm came on, worse, apparently, than the one which had fought him back from St. Johns; but he outrode it and brought all the lives committed to him safely to the welcome land. Capt. Murrill's reward will be found in the lifelong gratitude of those whom he has saved from a watery grave and in the satisfaction of his own noble heart. He will, of course, receive suitable testimonials for his admirable achievement, but something should be done for those who lost all their effects in the sinking steamer.

It will be remembered that in the sharp correspondence which took place in the beginning of the Samoan trouble, between the American naval officer at Apia and the German, the latter answered every protest or remonstrance by referring the American to the German Consul, as his political superior. Prince Bismarck has put a stop to this dependence of naval officers on the Consul. Commanders of men-of-war are instructed not to use force at the direction of the Consul, unless he shows special authority from the Foreign Office, but to examine for themselves the political and military grounds on which the Consul asks for their interference. This is all very well by way of amends to the United States for what has happened in Samoa, but it is fairly open to question whether it is a good permanent division of responsibility. The officer in command of a squadron is usually an Admiral of mature age, and therefore may, as a rule, be safely intrusted with the duty of passing on nice questions of international law; but can the same thing be said of the captains of single ships, who are apt to be much fuller of fight, and to take even a larger view of the rights of their own government than any civilian? We doubt whether the situation at Samoa would have been much improved if the German Captain who wrote those tart, almost insolent, letters to Capt. Leary had been made master of it.

It is impossible to extract from the French newspapers materials for an intelligent opinion about the effect of Boulanger's flight to Belgium on his political fortunes. There seems to be as much diversity of opinion about this as about everything else connected with him. The trial is going on in his absence, and the proofs against him of plotting for a change in the form of the Government, which is an offence under the Penal Code, are said to be strong. The punishment is "deportation" to a penal colony, or imprisonment in a fortress, and he will probably be sentenced to either one or the other. But the Government will probably never try to catch him, and is much obliged to him for keeping out of the way. If he were undergoing his sentence, he would be a martyr, and agitation or intrigues for his liberation would be constantly going on. As he is now, he is a pretender somewhat like Prince Victor, or the Comte de Paris, and as such is an inconvenience, but not as great a one as when he was in Paris, because he cannot be fêted in the presence of the public. The Republicans are evidently completely bewildered as to what should be done about him, and will not recover until the elections in the fall. At the bottom of the trouble is the very unpleasant fact that a majority of the voters in nobody knows how many departments believe in him, and expect some great and beneficent change at his hands. If, therefore, his supporters should get a majority in the next Chamber, or even the balance of power between the Republicans and Royalists, no sentence that may be passed on him now would stand for an hour. He would be master of France.

Probably the last thing that was expected to grow out of the row at Birmingham between the Liberal-Unionists and the Tories was the exchange of "the lie direct" between Lord Randolph Churchill and Mr. Chamberlain. The quarrel is undoubtedly going to make a great sensation out of doors, and may affect coming "bye-elections"; but that it will have any effect on politics in the House of Commons is very unlikely. It is doubtful if any quarrel or dissension would lead the Unionists to desert the Tories in such a way as to cause dissolution and bring Mr. Gladstone in. Whatever bitter things they may say or feel, they will not throw away the labor and sufferings of the last two years and expose themselves to the vengeance of their constituencies. Mr. Chamberlain seems to be a greater enigma than Churchill because he is an abler and astuter man. That he has been wofully disappointed as to the effect of his secession on the Liberal party, is admitted on all hands; that he sacrificed himself to his convictions, hardly any one believes; and how he, as ambitious and restless as he is, is to get himself out of his present scrape, everybody is speculating. Outside Birmingham and the Tory drawing-rooms, he has no standing, but this is a situation which he will never sit down in contentedly. The Birmingham quarrel will not help him out of it.

HENRY G. PEARSON.

THE grave ought not to be allowed to close over Henry G. Pearson, the late Postmaster of New York, without a warm tribute to his memory from those who think the nation needs the services of faithful, upright, and loyal men such as he was. It is not the fault of his friends if any such tribute is more or less tinged with invective. Not only did he die the victim of persecution, but he was persecuted because he did his duty, and no one can honor him now without saying some bitter words of those who are responsible for his failure. He occupied during the last four years of his life a position for which there is, we think, no parallel to be found in any other civilized country—the position of a public servant whose ruin is desired by the managers of both parties, simply on account of his fidelity and efficiency. He literally had no party friends; and the reason he had no party friends was, that he tried to administer his office in the best manner. He was put in his place by President Garfield because he was of all men in the country the fittest to fill it. He was retained in it by President Cleveland partly for the same excellent reason, and partly from a desire to gratify the Mugwumps, who had furnished a sensible portion of the force which won the Democratic victory in 1884. But no sooner was he left in it than he became the object of hatred to all the working politicians on both sides. The Democrats hated him because he was keeping them out of an office which they had for half a century considered and treated as among the *spolia opima* of party warfare. He was hated by the Republicans for allowing himself to be made a standing proof and illustration of the sincerity of Cleveland's reform professions. The *Tribune*, the Republican organ, commented on his reappointment in terms of warm praise on the 1st of April, 1885. It said:

"The reappointment of Postmaster Pearson gives general satisfaction to those citizens who care for efficiency in that branch of the public service here. It satisfies the public, because it is a good thing in itself; because Mr. Pearson is one of many Republican officials who have proved so conspicuously fit that their removal, on whatever ground, and irrespective of the personal merit of any who may be selected in their stead, would be a positive detriment to the public service. Such an appointment is, of course, to be commended most heartily as a good thing in itself. . . . In itself this appointment is admirable. . . . Mr. Pearson's unquestioned and superior fitness renders his retention in office the clear duty of a President who means to improve and not to degrade the public service."

That this was a thoughtless expression, uttered without consultation with the managers, is made probable by the fact that, during the trying years which followed, when Pearson was being literally tortured to death at his post by politicians, it never said another word of encouragement or support. He was literally given up to the party hounds by common consent. He was left to struggle with a force which is now declared, after an examination by Mr. James, the ex-Postmaster-General, 20 per cent. below what it should be, although the Treasury was so full that Congress was playing ducks and drakes with the money. Discontent and mutiny were fomented among his subordinates both by the Knights of Labor and the local politicians. Neither support nor sympathy nor encouragement did he receive from either Postmaster-General Vilas or his successor, Mr. Dickinson. He was not the kind of postmaster they most needed, because he brought out the defects of Jones and Harrity in horrid relief. So he was left to struggle and perish, in full view of the Christian public of this city, without a word of cheer for him or a word of rebuke for his enemies.

We say "Christian public," because there has been a great deal of religion introduced into the last two canvasses for the benefit of this candidate and the confusion of that candidate, but without much profit for the cause of honest government. We want honest government now to profit by it in some degree. When we heard of Gen. Harrison's excellent standing in his church and Sunday-school, and John Wanamaker's excellent standing in his church and Sunday-school, we attached a good deal of importance to the following passage in Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance:

"In appointments to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. Only the interest of the public service should suggest removals from office."

We said to ourselves on reading this: "This undoubtedly means either that Pearson will be retained, or that his subordinate next in rank and experience will be, as he was, promoted to the first place. Gen. Harrison is an honest man and good Christian, and undoubtedly wishes us to understand that the New York Post-office will continue to be managed as Pearson managed it, either by Pearson or by another man of the same kind." It appears now that he had no such plan; that when he said this, he was not talking as an honest man to honest men; that he meant to dismiss Pearson all along. He might possibly have found an excuse for dismissing Pearson in the state of Pearson's health, but this reason was never mentioned, because it would have left the public still to expect the promotion of a subordinate. So he was dismissed simply on the hog theory, that "he had had enough," and an expectant politician who knew nothing of post-offices, except as political spoils, was put in his place. Moreover, the *Tribune* was directed, or permitted, by way of excusing this disreputable transaction, to calumniate the outgoing officer in the following really felonious utterance:

"It is a fact that the New York Post-office has declined in efficiency since 1885, and has not for years been in so unsatisfactory a condition as during the year 1888."

Of course it was a cruel and brutal falsehood, and was probably invented as the best apology at hand for Van Cott's appointment. As soon, however, as it became known that Pearson was seriously ill, it was thrown aside, and on the day of his death the following was put out:

"The death of Postmaster Pearson will be received with universal regret. His entire life since boyhood had been passed in the public service, to which he gave himself with an unselfish devotion and concentration that were truly remarkable. There was never any room for question of Mr. Pearson's great zeal and energy and his exceptional mastery of the postal business. His work was a passion, and he seems to have sacrificed everything to it. Such devotion to duty is rare in a public servant, and he deserves the public gratitude. It should be added that his death demonstrates the necessity of making the appointment for which the President has been so savagely assailed. A near relative of Mr. Pearson stated some weeks before his term expired that he could not live three months. Some of the very newspapers which attacked the President with the greatest bitterness, now admit that Mr. Pearson's malady was known to be of a fatal character as long ago as February. A Government cannot permit itself the luxury of sympathy in such a situation. A great bureau like the New York Post-office could not be exposed to the risks this implied. It must be obvious now to all that the reappointment of Mr. Pearson was an impossibility."

It is difficult to characterize this afterthought in the terms it deserves, but it hardly needs characterization. We have gone over the transaction with this minuteness because it constitutes the best illustration we could provide of the value of Mr. Pearson's life, and of the diabolical nature of the system to which he has fallen a victim. His remark on his death-bed, referring to the discontent stirred up among his subordinates, that "he had spent his life fighting the spoils system, and that it grieved him to know that those for whom he had fought had misunderstood him," was literally true. He not only spent his life fighting the spoils system, but the spoils system killed him finally. The service of the Government ought to be full of men of his type. It ought to be the place in which able administrators and loyal and patriotic men could show their devotion, and exhibit to the youth of the country a shining example of business virtues. But it is nothing of the kind. It is a gambling-house, conducted with gambler's morality and for gambler's ends, to the shame and scandal of everybody who believes that a nation has a conscience and ought to use it.

A POSSIBLE SOLUTION OF THE SPOILS PROBLEM.

THE now generally admitted failure of President Harrison, in spite of his promises, and in spite of the solemn pledges of his party, to make any stand against the prostitution of the public service for party purposes, will satisfy a great many people that nothing is to be hoped for in this matter from any President. They will say that after the shortcomings of Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Cleveland, and Harrison, all of whom were pledged to do their utmost to prevent the offices from being treated as "spoils," there is little use in expecting the necessary degree of firmness from any of their successors, at least until the Constitution can be amended so as to forbid reëlection. But although there is a sensible growth of public opinion in favor of such an amendment, its adoption must, under the most favorable circumstances, be a long way off. In the meantime, what is to be done? Is there no way of *early* escape from the quadrennial repetition of the degrading and disheartening spectacle which we are now witnessing, which makes every

intelligent American blush for the religion, morality, and politics of the country?

We venture to suggest a possible solution of the difficulty, in the shape of what we may call the purchase of the offices by the Government from the politicians. Fantastic as it may seem at first sight, it will be found on examination to have few, if any, weak points. It is not a new mode of deliverance from the spoils system, any more than the spoils system itself is new. Every modern State has passed or is passing through a political stage in which the Government offices were claimed as property by some class whose interests were opposed to those of the public. In France, before the Revolution, nearly all offices, including the judicial offices, were the property of individuals, and vendible as such—that is, individuals had a recognized legal or customary right to hold them, without regard to the manner in which the duties attached to them were discharged; but in every case that we can recall, the system was defended on the ground that, however objectionable in theory, it "worked well in practice"; that the incumbents were on the whole competent and well behaved.

The nearest and latest analogy to our own trouble is to be found in the venality of commissions in the English Army which Mr. Gladstone abolished in 1870. For nearly two centuries the right to command in the regular army, from the grade of ensign up to that of colonel, had been bought and sold, not exactly, but very nearly, as merchandise. It had been vigorously denounced for seventy years when Mr. Gladstone attacked it, but was defended on the ground on which our spoils system is defended—that it was English, was long established, and "worked well," witness all the battles the army had won under it over the French, for instance, who had tried to get along without it. This defence was so strong that it was impossible to get through the House of Lords a bill buying the commissions back from the officers at their market value, and Mr. Gladstone had finally to bring prerogative into play, and compel every officer, by "royal warrant," to surrender the right to sell his commission to anybody but the Government. It cost £8,000,000, or $40,000,000, to buy back for the nation the right to officer its own army in its own way, and this not in China or Japan, but in England, and not in the fourteenth century, but twenty years ago.

Our trouble is very similar. Through a custom which in fifty years has come to have the force of law, the right to fill the salaried offices of the Government belongs to the men who manage the nominating and electioneering machinery of the party which wins at the polls, without reference to their fitness for the duties. The system is defended on four grounds: (1) that it is, whether good or bad, now so rooted in our political manners that it cannot be changed; (2) that if it does not provide an ideal civil service, it provides one which is good enough and satisfies the people; (3) that our party organizations could not be kept going without it, inasmuch as parties need managers and workers, and managers would not manage or workers work, if victory brought no substantial rewards in the way of salaries; (4) that politics in every free country needs the attention of a class which can give their whole time to it, and this class our spoils system supplies.

Now, the plan we suggest meets every one of these arguments. It consists simply in the duplication of every salaried office in the civil service, distinguishing the second one as "Political." For instance, we would have a Collector and a Political Collector, a Postmaster and a Political Postmaster, an Appraiser and a Political Appraiser, a Consul to Hong Kong and a Political Consul to Hong Kong. The emoluments of each would be exactly the same, but to the political place no official duties would be attached. The incumbent would have all his time at his disposal for the service of the party. The salary would give him all the reward he now seeks or gets for his work in the Convention or in the canvass. The Political Consul, for instance, instead of having to go abroad, would be able to stay at home. The Political Collector or Appraiser would be able to continue to live in his inland city instead of taking up his abode in a seaport. Though last not least, there would be no objection whatever to the distribution of these political offices through members of Congress or local Bosses. They would, after the election, be handed over to the party managers, without let or hindrance, to do with them whatever the party needed. The President and the heads of departments would be delivered from all "pressure," and the office-seekers from the necessity of going to Washington to beg.

The President and the members of the Cabinet could then distribute the other offices on the ordinary business principles. There would be no more clamor for the removal of competent persons than there is in a banking house or a wholesale grocery. The Treasury and custom-houses and post-offices could be manned by properly equipped men, of whose experience as they grew older the Government would get the benefit. When a new Administration came in, there would be no "guillotine" set up, and few or no vacancies to fill, and no new "policy" to carry out in sorting letters or casting up accounts. Each President would follow the same rules of arithmetic and obey the same laws of morality as his predecessors. The public would enjoy peace and quiet, and the newspapers be delivered from prolonged discussion of the morals and manners of a host of shady adventurers eager to take charge of the national affairs.

But what would this cost? Well, a mere trifle for a country with resources like ours, namely, about $40,000,000 per annum. We can afford this without even feeling it. We should get in return for it not only greatly increased economy and efficiency in the administration of the Government, not only deliverance from what the Republican platform calls "the danger to free institutions which lurks in the power of official patronage," but also deliverance from the very corrupting spectacle which nearly every change of Administration now offers, of religious men descending to the tricks and subterfuges of the card-sharper and confidence man.

COURTS AND CUSTOMS.

It is plain to see in what is going on in the custom-houses and in the Treasury Department that taxation reform has taken on a new phase. A bill reported during the last Congress by Mr. Allison's Committee, and adopted by the Senate, leaves no doubt that protectionists intend that hereafter the Executive shall be free to put any interpretation it pleases on tax laws, and especially on customs laws. It is true that no legislation can take away from importers the right to maintain pending suits and prosecute them to final judgment, but it is in the power of Congress to say that thereafter, in the interpretation of a tax law, the Executive shall not, excepting where suits have been begun, be subject to the judicial power. If the next Republican Congress shall push through such legislation, the protectionists will have their own way so long as they can, as now, control the Executive, and Congress can be kept quiet. The protectionists will say their legislation is intended to prevent scandalous and improper custom-house refunds. They forget or fail to see that such suggestions of scandal and impropriety are an arraignment of the Federal circuit judges and of the Supreme Court, on whose decisions the refunds are made. The real object of the protectionists has been, and is, to prevent interference with their schemes either by jurors or judges

Such legislation as the Senate adopted, on the report from the Allison Committee, could not have been possible had not Republican Senators lost sight of the rules and maxims which we inherited from England for the protection of the citizen against the levy of taxes not imposed either by Parliament, or Congress, or any law-making power. Those salutary rules for the protection of the citizen and his property were vigorously applied when the tariff law of 1833 had made such an overturning of previous legislation. One of the earliest expositions and applications of them was made in 1838, by a magistrate who cannot be classified as a free-trader. In the case of Adams vs. George Bancroft, then Collector of the Port of Boston, which presented a question touching the rate of duty of French silk gloves, Mr. Justice Story told the jury: "Laws imposing duties should never be stretched beyond the natural import of the language. Duties are never imposed upon citizens upon doubtful interpretations, for every duty imposes a burden on the public at large, and is construed strictly, and must be made out in a clear and determinate manner from the language of the statute." The suit of Hoyt vs. Hall, tried in New York in 1840 before Judge Betts, related to the rate of duty on merino shirts, and that excellent magistrate charged the jury in these words: "If, then, these articles might be indifferently placed under either class, and are known in trade as well by the one name as the other, then they are to be subjected to the lesser

duty; because if the description by which the impost is laid is ambiguous, or susceptible of two interpretations equally conformable to its general import, that one is to be adopted which is least burdensome to individuals. It is not to be supposed that Congress designed to impose the higher rate of duty where a different one may apply to the same subject, unless Congress expressed that intent by plain and definite language." Attorney-General Butler reported to President Van Buren that he had no exception to make to that language.

Over twenty years later Mr. Justice Nelson, having to instruct the jury in regard to the rate of duty on Peruvian bark, said: "In case of serious ambiguity in the language of the act, or doubtful classification of articles, the construction is to be in favor of the importer, as duties are never imposed on the citizen upon vague or doubtful interpretations." Ten years afterwards, in 1873, a question under the Internal Revenue Law, concerning the taxation of dividends declared and payable by railroad companies during the last five months of 1870, came before Federal Judge McKenna. He said: "When there are doubts concerning the meaning of a tax law, such doubts must be resolved in favor of the citizen. The exercise of the power of taxation is not to be affirmed upon conjectural or arbitrary inferences. No burden is to be taken as imposed upon the citizen which the Government has not clearly made it his duty to assume, nor can any portion of his property be exacted for any purpose except in pursuing an unambiguous mandate. Whatever degree of liberality, therefore, may be allowable in the construction of statutes relating to the revenue of the Government, there is neither reason nor justice in expanding them, by a strain upon the ordinary import of their words, to give effect to a hypothetical legislative intention." We commend that teaching to the attention of Naval-Officer Burt.

In 1873 the Supreme Court of the United States, having before it a question arising under the Internal-Revenue Law, said: "If there is a doubt as to the liability of an instrument to taxation, the construction is in favor of the exemption, because, in the language of Pollock in Girr vs. Scudds" (an English case), "A tax cannot be imposed without clear and express words for that purpose. These principles are based in good sense, and are sustained by the authorities." In view of a tendency to disregard these salutary rules, the Supreme Court has recently felt called upon to reaffirm them. Its conclusions were announced on May 2, 1887, in this language: "We are of opinion that the decision of the Circuit Court was correct. But, if the question were one of doubt, the doubt would be resolved in favor of the importer, *as duties are never imposed on the citizen upon vague or doubtful interpretations.*"

The significance of that language is in the fact that Secretary Manning, in his report to Congress of December 7, 1885, on "The Collection of Duties," had carefully considered the whole subject. He referred to the utterances of the Federal judges prior to 1885 as "conformable to the spirit of our institutions and to the feelings of the people from whom money is taken by taxes," and added: "In respect to all the decisions, and the principles of the decisions, which have been heretofore made by my predecessors in respect to classification and rates of duties, which decisions are now pending in the courts, I shall in no way interfere excepting to take care, so far as I can, that the defence to be interposed by the several district attorneys shall be thorough and adequate. Those suits have passed out of Executive determination, and are substantially in the hands, so far as the Executive is concerned, of the Department of Justice and of the courts." But he distinctly declared that, in respect to all *new* questions, as they may arise, touching rates of duty, he should, "until otherwise directed by superior authority," require the decisions of the Treasury Department to conform to the rules prescribed by Story and Nelson. That was a sound and beneficent measure of tariff reform, enforced by Secretary Manning so long as he controlled the Treasury Department; but, after his death, not only was the mandate of the courts disregarded in this particular, but its decisions were openly defied, under the pretence of efforts to be made to persuade the court to reverse its own decisions in the interests of protection. In one or two instances, and notably in the case of knit-goods, the efforts were made, and, the Court having refused to stultify itself, the protectionists thereupon set on foot in the Senate a scheme to exclude the courts altogether from interfering with the doings of the Treasury in the interpretation and enforcement of tax laws.

NEGRO CONVICTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

We return to this subject on account of one or two protests received from Southern correspondents who think we have misrepresented or misunderstood the attitude of the whites in South Carolina towards negroes accused of crime. For a clearer understanding of the matter, we add a few cases from the Governors' reports of recent years, selecting such as give trustworthy statements in the words of the Governor, or of those actually participating in the trials.

Griffin De Laigle, a negro, who is described as "a stranger without money, friends, or influence," was sentenced to be hanged for murder by Judge Hudson at Beaufort in June, 1887. The homicide for which he was arraigned was committed on board an excursion steamer on the way from Savannah to Beaufort, and he was forced to trial without a single witness, and "with only his unsupported statement as his defence, which, if it had been believed, must have caused the trial to result either in a verdict of manslaughter or of acquittal." After the trial, affidavits were obtained from Savannah disclosing a case of self-defence, and the Governor, on examining them, says: "If the statements contained in these affidavits are true and could have been presented to the jury, the result of the case would probably have been different. It is especially to be remembered," he adds, "that the prisoner was a stranger without friends, and unable to employ counsel, and too poor to pay for the attendance of witnesses." He dwells upon the fact that the State had no method of compelling the attendance of witnesses from Savannah; and, feeling that circumstances warranted action on his part, he commuted the sentence to imprisonment for life at hard labor. We regret that we do not have all the papers in the case, as it seems at least likely that the offence was committed on "the high seas," in which case the United States Court alone had jurisdiction; but as the negro was too poor to employ counsel, it is probable that this point was not raised. Further, the Statutes of South Carolina (sections 835 and 2638) give accused persons the same right to detain and compel the attendance of witnesses that is given to the State; yet here the witnesses against the prisoner were detained, while those in his defence were allowed to return to Savannah. This again shows the disadvantage of being a negro without money, friends, or influence. At any rate, as the Governor states the case, a man probably innocent is imprisoned for life without an opportunity to prove his innocence.

A second case is that of Cæsar White, sentenced to be hanged for murder by the same judge, at the same term of court. The Judge reports that to his surprise the defendant's counsel offered no testimony, not even that of the prisoner. He refused to grant a new trial, and has "no recommendation to make." The Governor, with the Attorney-General, examines the evidence, and reports that, "after a very careful examination of the case, I have come to the conclusion that there is sufficient doubt, from the very nature of the evidence, it being wholly circumstantial and far from conclusive, to make it my duty to commute the sentence to imprisonment for life at hard labor"; and then follows the astounding statement that "there was no eye-witness of the murder, and the chief circumstance against the defendant appears to have been the presence of mule tracks, supposed to have been made by the mule of the defendant, near where the body of the deceased was found. In my view of the testimony, I have felt it to be the only safe course to commute the sentence as above indicated." This case adds a new terror to mules.

In other parts of this Union a Governor in such cases as these two would feel legally bound to issue full pardons; but Gov. Richardson finds imprisonment for life the limit of his clemency, although the fact that he has interfered in behalf of one-ninth of all the convicts in the Penitentiary in a single year shows that he is at least mercifully inclined. The reason for this difference we are left to conjecture, but we are inclined to think that the Governor is acting in deference to a strong public sentiment. We are confirmed in this view by the confident way in which juries appeal to the Governor to assist them in imposing life sentences on negroes. Thus, in the case of John Green, sentenced to be hanged for murder in June, 1888, "The petition is from

the jury that tried the case, and states that they brought in a verdict of guilty, with a recommendation to mercy, . . . in the firm expectation that the Governor would commute the death sentence to imprisonment for life"; and the Judge, strange to say, joins in this remarkable petition. The Governor misses his opportunity to put a stop to this sort of legal travesty, and makes the commutation as requested.

A still more outrageous case occurred in Charleston in February, 1887, where a negro was sentenced to be hanged for murder. The jury assure the Governor that, "We are of the opinion that the evidence, though of considerable weight, was of such a character as to create a doubt in our minds as to the justice of inflicting the death penalty; the verdict 'Guilty, with a recommendation to mercy,' was the result of a compromise, some being in favor of manslaughter and one in favor of acquittal. The recommendation was thought proper, the jurors being of the opinion that it was a certain mode by which the prisoner could escape death, . . . and the witnesses against the accused were of such a character as to force us to believe that the benefit of every reasonable doubt should go in favor of Marcus Horlbeck." The legal enormity of this case can hardly be described. A jury, sworn to try the prisoner according to the law and the evidence, deliberately plots to secure the imprisonment for life of a man of whose guilt they have grave doubts; and Judge Hudson lends himself to this scheme by writing to the Governor, "I really think this is a case in which the recommendation of the jury should be respected and the sentence be commuted to life imprisonment," and the Governor complies. It is an elementary principle of criminal law, which it is inconceivable that the Judge did not impress upon the jury, that unless the jurors are convinced beyond a reasonable doubt of the guilt of the prisoner, a verdict of acquittal must be rendered; and, above all, in a capital case, the prisoner is entitled to the benefit of every reasonable doubt. The plain duty of the Judge, on learning of this extraordinary juggling with human life, was to set the verdict aside and order a new trial.

This inability of Judge and Governor to administer the law in the face of public opinion is further shown in the case of Richard Davis, sentenced to be hanged for murder in 1885. Judge Kershaw writes that "the defendant was under fourteen years old, and seems to have had very little, if any, mental or moral training, and the jury, for these reasons no doubt, recommended him to mercy. I think the recommendation of the jury well founded, and do not hesitate to say that in my judgment the ends of public justice would not be met by the execution of a boy so young and lacking in intelligence that he fails to understand the crime committed"; and he recommends the commutation of the sentence to imprisonment for life. The law, however, goes further than Judge Kershaw, and forbids the imposition of any punishment on a child so lacking in intelligence as not to understand the crime committed; but the Governor agreed with the Judge, and another legally innocent person is imprisoned for life.

These cases show—and they do not stand alone—that South Carolina juries convict negroes where legal proof of guilt is confessedly wanting, and judges and Governor support them in such disregard of all rules of law. They shrink from the consequences of their acts when they are to take life, but they do not shrink from imprisoning innocent men for life. The reason for this our South Carolina friends can help us to give, but the evidence indicates that public sentiment demands that a negro who has the misfortune to be suspected of crime, shall be shut up until the suspicion is forgotten and somebody asks the Governor to let him out.

A WEST-EASTERLY COMMEMORATION AT JOHNS HOPKINS.

BALTIMORE, April 20, 1889.

THE *Nation* for December 20, 1888, in an editorial which spoke of Johns Hopkins University as "one of the most potent of the intellectual forces of this country," used these significant words: "But the service which Johns Hopkins University has done to the advancement of learning in America cannot be measured by the instruction that has been given within its own walls and the researches which have been carried on by its members." That the Johns Hopkins University epitomizes in its policy and attitude towards every forward intellectual or political movement of the day the most virile spirit of the American mind, has been strikingly shown this week by a notable meeting held in Hopkins Hall on the evening of Wednesday, April 17. The invitation to this gathering read as follows:

"JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY
COMMEMORATION OF THE PROMULGATION OF THE CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN.

"You are respectfully invited to be present at an assembly of members of this University interested in Political Science, which will be held in Hopkins Hall, Wednesday evening, April 17th, 1889, at eight o'clock, to commemorate the promulgation of the written Constitution of the Empire of Japan.

"D. C. GILMAN, President."

The platform was artistically decorated with the flags of Japan and the United States, draped over a large emblazoned shield of the University, with its stirring motto, "The Truth shall make you free!" while in front of this effective background were grouped masses of the pyrus japonica, flowering peach, yellow broom plant, wild cherry, and magnolias—all blossoms with whose decorative value the Japanese have made us familiar. The Chairman of the evening was T. M. Cooley, LL.D., late Chief Justice of Michigan, now an active member of the Inter-State Commerce Commission. On the stage with him were, besides the trustees and leading professors of the University, and the Japanese post-graduate students, the Mayor of Baltimore and members of the Japanese Embassy, who had come from Washington to take part in this first public recognition, by any leading seat of learning, of the importance of the promulgation of a document aptly called the Magna Charta of Japan.

President Gilman stated briefly that the celebration had been suggested by the receipt of a double set of official copies of the Proclamation, the Constitution, laws, etc., one set coming from Mr. Mutsu, the Japanese Minister to the United States, the other from Mr. Mitsukuri, Ph.D., a graduate of the University, now Professor of Chemistry in Tokio, Japan. There was a special appropriateness in holding this commemorative meeting in Baltimore, as the Political Science Department of the Johns Hopkins had taken a deep interest in the events which had led up to this unique grant of constitutional rights—an interest that had been intensified by agreeable personal associations with some very able graduates and students, who had won, or were now winning, honorable distinction in the University "by their talents, their industry, and their fidelity." He then called on a "special student," Mr. Kikujiro Saigo, attaché of the Japanese Legation at Washington, who is a nephew of Count Saigo Tsukumichi, Minister of State for the Navy, and one of the countersigners of the Constitution, to read the names of the Japanese who had been at the University or were now there.

Judge Cooley was then introduced as chairman, and the formal programme began. "When the political institutions of any people are under consideration, the question must be whether they are in accordance with the life of that people. The successful government must be that in which the people have the share for which they are fitted." In this opening sentence of his brief address Judge Cooley gave the keynote of the spirit in which our study of new Japan should be undertaken, and, from his standpoint of a constitutional lawyer, indicated the lines on which alone permanent and healthy political growth can be expected. That this foreign comment was matched by the native point of view expressed in the speech of Mr. Iyénaga shows that much current criticism on the subject of Japanese fickleness and unseemly haste to adopt Western habits and ideas is founded in ignorance, and ignorance not only of Japanese, but of universal political history.

The Japanese Minister was to have read the Emperor's speech at the proclamation, in his own language, but a cold interfered with his doing so, and instead his Secretary of Legation, Mr. A. Sato, Ph.D., read it in English, as follows:

"Whereas, We make it the joy and glory of Our heart to behold the prosperity of Our country and the welfare of Our subjects. We do hereby, in virtue of the supreme power We inherit from our Imperial Ancestors, promulgate the present immutable fundamental law, for the sake of Our present subjects and their descendants. The Imperial Founder of Our House and Our other Imperial Ancestors, by the help and support of the forefathers of Our Subjects, laid the foundations of Our Empire upon a basis which is to last for ever. That this brilliant achievement embellishes the Annals of Our Country, is due to the glorious virtues of Our Sacred Imperial Ancestors, and to the loyalty and bravery of Our Subjects, their love of their Country and their public spirit. Considering that Our subjects are the descendants of the loyal and good subjects of Our Imperial Ancestors, We doubt not but that Our subjects will be guided by Our views, and will sympathize with all Our endeavors, and that, harmoniously coöperating together, they will share with Us Our hope of making manifest the glory of Our Country, both at home and abroad, and of securing for ever the stability of the work bequeathed to Us by Our Imperial Ancestors."

Extracts from the most important sections of the Constitution were given, with running comments by Professor A. B. Small; but as the *Nation* has already reviewed this document, we will pass on to the *pièce de résistance* of the evening, a paper on "The Changes in the Political Life of Japan," by Mr. S. Iyénaga of Tanagawa, Japan, a Ph.B. of Oberlin College, where he led his class in oratory and composition, now a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Johns Hopkins University. This paper will soon be accessible to all interested in Japanese progress, through a Johns Hopkins University publication. We think that those who read it will feel hopeful of the work to be accomplished by the Diet whose

first session will be held in 1890. Speaking slowly and deliberately, so as to give clear utterance to a language not his own, though handled with a terseness and idiomatic ease that much older native-born students of the University might envy, Mr. Iyénaga rapidly outlined the historic causes which had produced the written Japanese Constitution promulgated in February, 1889, twenty-one years after the revolution of 1868, when the shell of feudalism crumbled into ashes. He pointed out the importance of this action of the Emperor, not only for Japan, but for Asia:

"This is the first birth of Liberty on Asiatic soil. Well may Japan rejoice in being the first-born of Liberty in the East. Well may the Emperor be gratified by the gladdened shouts of his subjects and the blessings of their descendants echoed back from future generations of free and happy subjects. . . . Many ask, 'How can Japan, with a government fixed for centuries, suddenly in a day change absolutism into constitutionalism?' No people can do this. Japan has not done so. Our new Constitution is not the patchwork of a few clever minds infected by Western ideas: *it is the outgrowth of our national life and thought.*"

Mr. Iyénaga went on to explain that it is the result of the efforts of earnest, patriotic men for two generations and more, the result of education, both academic and practical, of experiment and investigation, of adaptation and reorganization; but above all, that it is a proof of the power of the ideal, of the force of ideas in national life and thought. Although it took its first definite form when the royal party, having triumphed at Fushimi, Uyeno, and Hakodate, abolished the Shogunate, that usurping sham of illegal authority, the seeds for its development had been planted by teachers like Fukuzawa. The advent of the American, the Englishman, and the Dutchman had shown thoughtful Japanese that the outside world held lessons for them. They learned those lessons not from fear, nor from policy, nor from greed, but, as all noble natures absorb truth, because they have an affinity for it. The spirit of liberty entered in and took possession of the leaders of the people—leaders, most of them, who had made their way to the front by fidelity, hard study, toil, and patriotism. "Liberty, equality, and fraternity" was their watchword, but it taught them to preserve, to reform, to create, as well as to destroy. A monarchy which had existed for centuries, and had been facile, but never cruel, needed only to be made constitutional, not pronounced criminal. Reason, not anarchy, ruled the counsels of the Emperor Mutzuhito, and the advisers of the young Emperor aimed to educate both people and ruler to let justice and public opinion be their guides.

The new Government, having established itself at Tokio, made friendly treaties with foreign Powers, abolished feudalism, declared all classes equal before the law, so encouraged the growth and freedom of the press that in a few years the circulation of newspapers has increased 40 per cent., applied themselves to the construction of railroads, telegraphs, and docks, organized a postal system modelled on that of the United States, created and equipped universities, colleges, technical schools, and a public-school system for the whole people. "None were debarred from aspiring to places of honor, and in the democracy of letters; a sentiment was growing that the son of a Daimio was not necessarily better than the son of a peasant. The day of reason and peace had dawned."

In 1878, as a work of preparation for a national assembly, local assemblies were formed, and it is probable that the Imperial Parliament which meets next year will be composed largely of men trained to public affairs in these provincial bodies.

"That Japan of to-day should be ruled by the absolute power of one man is just as impossible as that England of to-day should be ruled by Stuart despotism. A great work lies before Japan, a work important not only to her, but to Asia, amid whose teeming populations she is the vanguard of all that is best in modern civilization. Our prayer is, that Japan may prove herself worthy to be the leader of Oriental nations in a new era, and our faith is equal to our hope. I am proud of having been born a citizen of Japan, and to be a student of Johns Hopkins University, whose fame, encircling the earth, has reached the land of the rising sun."

Prof. Adams read portions of a letter from Dr. Woodrow Wilson, author of 'Congressional Government,' explaining that while the constitutional ideas common to all political growth of this century had entered into Japan's new constitutional law, her statesmen had drawn details more largely from the German Constitution than from that of any other people, Germany's organic law being more acceptable to the citizens of a monarchy where the divine ancestry of the Mikado is still an article of faith, or at least of sentiment, with the mass of the people. Letters were also read or reported from Rear-Admiral Balch, U. S. N., who accompanied the Perry Expedition to Japan; from Chief-Justice Fuller, Dr. David Murray of Albany, N. Y., formerly Superintendent of Educational Affairs in Japan; from President Angell, lately United States Minister to China; Hon. Carl Schurz, Cardinal Gibbons, Dr. William Elliot Griffis, author of the 'Mikado's Empire,' etc.; from Hon. John W. Andrews, LL.D., of Ohio, President Gates of Rutgers College, and others. An extract from Dr. Griffis's letter gives a bit of chronology:

"It is interesting to Americans to know that the imperial oath was taken and the Constitution promulgated to a day, and almost to the exact hour, thirty-five years after the treaty ships of Commodore Perry were sighted by the watchers on the hills of Iozu; and that the Emperor Mutzuhito, the 123d Mikado, who granted this Magna Charta of Japanese liberty, was born November 3, 1852, on the day that Matthew Calbraith Perry was all ready to sail to Japan, though the delay of one of his vessels kept him on our coast until the baby in Kioto was three weeks old."

If not claiming too much space, I should like to close this record of a very delightful gathering with some portions of a letter, too long to be read at the meeting itself, from Mr. Charles Lanman, on the services of Viscount Arinori Mori, to whom Mr. Lanman was at one time secretary. Mori was a typical Japanese of the new intellectual era, for the lesson in political science so graciously presented by Johns Hopkins University will lose its chief force if we fail to see that the political changes in Japan are the mere outward and visible sign of a national intellectual and moral development, largely due to the noble, earnest, and patriotic teachings of such propagandists as Mabuchi, Hirata, Saigo, Katsu, and Mori. Verily, a remnant shall save a people:

"Arinori Mori was born in the province of Satsuma in 1846, and as a boy enjoyed all the advantages pertaining to the retainers of the local Daimios. He was one of the first of those students sent abroad to be educated, and he spent two years in England. During the rebellion in Japan which culminated in the restoration of the Mikado to power, his sympathies were with the progressive party, and it was not long before he became a member of the newly organized national legislature, so called, and in which, notwithstanding his age, he made a decided impression. . . .

"Mori was also the first Japanese who, under the restoration, was appointed to a foreign mission, and in March, 1871, while bearing the title of Jugoi, he presented his credentials at Washington as Chargé d'Affaires, where he remained two years. . . . Not only did he perform his diplomatic duties, but he was obliged to exercise a kind of supervision over the large number of Japanese students then in this country, and especially over five young ladies who came over here to be educated. In one sense, moreover, he had charge of all the arrangements and ceremonies connected with the advent and the sojourn in this country of the Iwakura Embassy. . . . In the meantime, but more in a private capacity than as a Minister, Mr. Mori greatly interested himself in the cause of education, and caused the publication, for the benefit of his countrymen, of a work on 'The Resources of America' (prepared by the present writer), and another by himself on 'Education in Japan.' . . . He also published, among others, a pamphlet on 'Religious Freedom in Japan.'

"One of the incidents illustrating his positive methods as a public man was to this effect: When Yoshida Kiyonari (his successor in Washington) came to this country to negotiate a loan connected with the Satsuma rebellion, Mr. Mori opposed the whole scheme, and not only blocked the financial arrangements, but wrote and forwarded to the Government his reasons in a despatch, wherein he condemned the policy of a loan for such a purpose, and he was triumphant. . . . For a brief period after reaching home he took no part in public affairs. . . . In 1874 he entered the Office of Foreign Affairs as first secretary. His next position was that of second assistant minister. He afterwards went to China as Minister Plenipotentiary, on his return home was made the first Assistant Minister of Foreign Affairs, and in 1879 was accredited Minister Plenipotentiary to Great Britain; for several years before his death he held the congenial position of Minister of Education.

"Prominent as was Viscount Mori's career as an Oriental scholar and statesman, the story of his assassination will pass into history without a parallel. On the morning of February 11, 1889, when he was dressing himself to wait upon the Emperor and take part in the great celebration attending the promulgation of the new Constitution of the Empire, an unknown man called upon him and asked for an interview, . . . stating that a plot had been designed to take the life of the Viscount, and that he wished to communicate the particulars. The request was refused, however, but . . . while walking to his carriage the assassin made an attack on the Minister by stabbing him with a common table-knife. . . . The Viscount only survived a few hours. It was the high character and advanced teachings of this man Mori which tended to make possible the new Constitution, and, with that idea and his career in view, it would seem as if he had died the death of a martyr. On the body of the murderer was found a paper revealing the fact that the murder was intended to punish the Minister for an alleged sacrilege he had once committed at the shrine of Isé, when he refused to remove his shoes, according to custom, and took the liberty of pushing aside a certain sacred curtain. This conduct greatly enraged the attending priest within the shrine, and it was his son, as reported, who committed the murder, by way of protecting the rights of the gods and the imperial family according to the Shinto religion, and to avoid the calamity of losing the protection of the guardian spirits of the nation upon the change to a new form of government. The tragedy was universally regretted, and threw a gloom over the pending celebration which can never be forgotten."

At the end of the exercises in Hopkins Hall, the audience were invited to the library of the University, to take a cup of genuine Japanese tea, steeped by Mr. Sato, the Secretary of Legation.

C. B.

THE LATEST EXCAVATIONS IN GREECE.

CHALCIS, March 22, 1889.

I HAVE this morning left Anthedon, where the American School of Classical Studies at Athens has been carrying on excavations under the superintendence of Mr. J. C. Rolfe, a graduate of Harvard, '81, and a son of the well-known Shaksperian scholar. The work is drawing to a close, and readers of the *Nation* may be interested in a brief account of the results of the excavations.

"There is a certain Anthedon, by the sea-

shore, opposite Eubœa, near the streams of the Euripus; thence am I by birth," says the fisher-deity Glaucus, in an author quoted by Athenæus. Pausanias states that in the middle of the city was a sanctuary of the Cabeiri, with a grove about it, and, close by, a temple of Demeter and Persephone with marble statues. He also speaks of a sanctuary and statue of Dionysos before the city on the side towards the mainland. By the sea was the so-called Glaucus's Leap, which was probably a natural cliff like the numerous Lovers' Leaps on our Eastern coast. In the description of Greece vulgarly attributed to Dicæarchus, there is mention of an agora at Anthedon enclosed by a double stoa and planted with trees.

In the early part of this century, that most clear-sighted of travellers, Col. Leake, identified the ruins of Anthedon and gave a rough diagram in his 'Travels in Northern Greece.' He was able to make out the line of the city and acropolis walls, and speaks of two moles running out into the sea and forming a small port east of the acropolis. He also mentions a platform of a public building, thirty-four yards long, founded in the sea. He refers to this same building again as "probably a temple." Since Leake's time, the ruins have been visited and described by several scientific travellers, but with no additional results. On March 5 work was begun by the American School with workmen from Thebes and from Lukisi, the village nearest to the ruins, thought by some to be on the site of the Homeric Nisa. Through the kindness of Mr. Reed, director of the English company which is engaged in draining Lake Copais, the excavators had the use of one of the company's buildings situated close to the outlet of the tunnel, about a half hour's walk from the ruins. The workmen from Thebes spent the night out in the open air. The top of the acropolis is a ledge of rock, so that there was no possibility of excavating there; but a long ditch was dug through a wheat field, from the acropolis slope inland towards the enclosing walls.

Discovery of the Cabeiri sanctuary would lose some of its lustre, owing to the fact of the Germans having unearthed a temple of the Cabeiri near Thebes last year; but it would be no mean find, and might do something to complete the picture of this mysterious form of worship. Moreover, the discovery of the temple of Demeter would be a necessary consequence of the finding of the Cabeiri sanctuary. But the "middle of the city" is a rather indefinite expression, even when referring to a small fishing-town, and when the eager eyes of the excavators found in the long ditch no small bronze bulls, like those from the temple near Thebes, it seemed necessary to relinquish hopes of the Cabeiri. For this whole district is planted with grain, and every ditch dug involved a certain amount of damages—not of alarming magnitude, to be sure, but hardly to be justifiably incurred when there were absolutely no traces to show where an experiment could be most wisely made.

More success was obtained at two elevations just outside the city walls, where the excavators made use of information acquired by previous (secret) diggings of the peasants, who have been for years in search of graves, and have practically exhausted this industry. Long lines of opened graves on both the Thebes and Chalcis roads testify to their activity in this direction. In one of the hillocks was found the substructure of a small building, and also two Doric capitals of poros stone. Mr. Rolfe thinks this may have been the Temple of Dionysos, and certainly its position agrees perfectly with the language of Pausanias. The other hill was cut up by numerous cross ditches, one of which ran into a most interesting collection of bronze implements, many of them similar to those which were found last year on the acropolis of Athens at a great depth, near the southern wall. There are several two-edged axes, a chisel, a drill, an awl, a sickle-like razor, and a large variety of knives. There is also a fragment of a bronze band with animals represented in relief.

Beyond the walls, on the side towards Chalcis, another trial was provoked by the appearance in a tomb of a large poros block belonging to a Doric entablature, and showing several sets of triglyphs. Another architectural fragment of the same material was close by, and, more important still, a rough block which was shown by the inscription upon it to have been a boundary stone of some sacred enclosure. This had been thrown out from a neighboring grave, to which it had been removed from its original position. The work here resulted in the discovery of several additional fragments of Doric architecture, one piece of which still showed traces of color; of fragments of vases, terracotta figurines, alabaster jars from the graves, as well as an interesting collection of ornaments of gilded pottery; lastly, several inscriptions, two of which, written in the Bœotian dialect, record dedications to Artemis Eilithyia, the goddess of child-birth. Pausanias mentions no temple of Artemis Eilithyia at Anthedon, but these inscriptions, together with the architectural fragments, seem to show that such a temple did exist here. The actual site, however, was not discovered, although the ground in the immediate vicinity was well investigated.

But the greater part of the labor was devoted to Leake's "public building," which has developed into an enormous and anomalous structure, or combination of structures. So large is it that a Government overseer, who arrived a few days ago, when asked what it was, suggested in all seriousness that it was the city itself. There can be no doubt, I think, that the platform seen by Leake as well as the external walls unearthed during the excavations belong to a good Greek period, but some of the interior walls are evidently of later and inferior workmanship, and in the southern portion quite an extensive mosaic flooring has made its appearance within the last week. One or two Doric capitals of poros stone and of small dimensions have been found here, but not a fragment of a statue or relief, and only one inscription, a recruiting-list of the third or second century B. C., showing that Anthedon was a member of the Bœotian League—a fact known, however, from other sources.

In the collections of Bœotian inscriptions heretofore published, Anthedon has been represented by one solitary inscription, and that composed of one word. This number will now be raised to over sixty inscriptions, ranging from the fifth century B. C. to the second century A. D. Some of these were unearthed by the excavations, others collected from the houses of the peasants in Lukisi, who had brought them from the graves which they had opened, and a few were found by Mr. Rolfe and myself in wandering about the graves. It is true that most of these inscriptions are short epitaphs and of little historical interest, but, for the study of a dialect like the Bœotian, in which strong local peculiarities are not infrequent, it is of great importance that every town should be represented, and not until now has it been possible to claim any adequate representation for Anthedon. For example, in the two dedications to Artemis, which otherwise show all the peculiarities of Bœotian spelling, the name of the goddess appears in the Ionic or Attic form instead of the regular Bœotian Artamis, which is the only form to be found in other inscriptions of this dialect.

On the whole, we may consider the excavations at Anthedon as successful, and it is hoped that Thisbe, where work will begin next week, will be even more fertile. The yield of inscriptions promises to be unusually large. At Platæa excavations must be conducted on a large scale, if at all, and it may not be possible to undertake any work there this season.

Since the date of my letter of December last there have been no extensive excavations in Athens. Having completed the work upon the Acropolis, the Greek Archæological Society has undertaken no new enterprise, presumably on account of the unsettled condition of its financial affairs. For years it has derived its funds from the proceeds of a lottery which was under its control, and recently this lottery has been sold to a Vienna bank in such a way that the Society is assured of a large yearly income. At present there seems to be a difficulty, owing to some opposition on the part of the Austrian Government. A few days ago Mr. Tricoupis made a speech in the Boulé, in which he expressed confidence that the matter would be settled in a satisfactory manner. It is more than probable that the Greek Society will eventually take Delphi in hand and carry on the extensive excavations which are so urgently demanded. The German Institute has been digging a few trenches in the auditorium of the theatre of Dionysos for the purpose of finding traces of a structure preceding the time of Lycurgus. They found nothing of importance except a perpendicular shaft of enormous depth, which Dr. Dörpfeld thinks may have had some connection with an aqueduct. Mr. Gardner, Director of the English School, has returned from Cyprus, after having seen the work there begun, but no news of any results has yet reached us. The French School has not yet resumed operations at Thespiæ.

C. D. B.

THE GRAND CONDÉ.

PARIS, April 4, 1889.

JUST at the moment when the unmerited exile of the Duc d'Aumale is revoked, appears the fifth volume of his 'History of the Princes of Condé.' This volume has as much interest as the preceding ones, and it may be said that the literary qualities of the historian are as great, though his manner has suffered some alteration. It is impossible that it should not be so; our minds are always in a state of development, and the lessons of life are not lost on the historian. What will strike the reader in this new volume, which appears so late after volumes iii and iv, is the fondness of the author for the drawing of historical portraits; the influence of Saint-Simon, of the Cardinal de Retz, of Tallemant des Réaux is visible in these fine, picturesque, and original delineations of the many personages who live and move in the atmosphere of the Great Condé. For our hero is already the "Grand Condé": he has already won the battle of Rocroy, saved the French monarchy, and curbed the power of Spain. At an age when most men are only learning, he has given lessons in strategy and tactics; he has all the prestige of a conqueror.

The volume opens at Chantilly: Condé is still called M. le Duc, as his father, M. le Prince, is yet alive. The Duc d'Aumale makes us acquainted with all the companions of M. le Duc; he gives us very striking portraits of Marthe de Vigean, with whom the young hero was for a time in love, who was in love with

him, and, as she could not marry him, would marry nobody, and entered a convent; of Mme. de Montbazon, of Mme. de Chevreuse, of the two Princesses of Gonzaga, who became one the Queen of Poland, the other the Princess Palatine. We become acquainted also with the Duc de Beaufort, with the gentlemen who were called the "Importants," with La Rochefoucauld, with Maurice de Coligny, with the Duc de Guise, with the "libertines"—Bussy, Saint-Évremond, Rivière, Bourdelot, and might we not count also among them Ninon de Lenclos?

Marie de Gonzaga has seduced the historian as she made the conquest of Condé; she had "a valiant nature," a great intelligence. Condé, who helped to place her on the throne of Poland, always remained her friend:

"The Princesses of Gonzaga," says the Duc d'Aumale, "surpass the crowd of the women of the Fronde, even the most celebrated. They do not make a business of conspiracy, like Mme. de Chevreuse, or of *galanterie*, like Mme. de Montbazon; they have as much strength as, and more foresight than, Mme. de Longueville [the sister of Condé], less avidity than the Duchess of Châtillon. Their aptitude goes as far as the government of a party, even of a state. Both, by the audacity of their minds, the loftiness of their courage, the pliancy of their genius, have many resemblances to Louis de Bourbon. They take a great place in his history, at the agitated moments of his life, as well as in the calm and regular years of the end."

Among the friends and associates of the first hour, the "libertines," is Roger de Rabutin, cousin of Mme. de Sévigné—"a petty vassal, . . . not such a grand seigneur as his vanity would have us believe; a very good officer, of the stuff of which marshals of France are made; a valiant soldier, even audacious when he is in sight, but knowing how to spare himself; personally as perverse as his look, which is disquieting and repulsive, yet with much charm. Mme. de Sévigné grants him the pardon which Louis XIV. refuses him." This extract gives a good idea of the terse, concise style of the portraits drawn by the Duc d'Aumale, many of which must have been written after he had left his fine collection of portraits and engravings of the seventeenth century (which was lately and is now at Brussels, pending its return to Chantilly). The Duc d'Enghien brought to his life of pleasure the same ardor as in war. His father, M. le Prince, did not much like his libertine friends and their life of debauchery. The Duc d'Enghien had been married against his wish; family life did not exist for him; Mazarin, who understood him, did not leave him long idle, and sent him to Flanders.

Some people will find the Duc d'Aumale somewhat severe on Mazarin. The French Prince is not even indulgent towards the foreign Cardinal:

"The man," he says, "who so fortunately conducted our foreign affairs, who achieved what his predecessors had prepared, is wanting in that passion for France which inspired Henri IV., Richelieu; he has not the patriotic afflatus which warms the coldness of Louis XIII., which animates the solemnity of Louis XIV. Mazarin is an artist; his origin allows us to say that he governs as a *dilettante*, without any warmth, with a consummate ability; he executes, he develops the plan which others have bequeathed him. His mind is all the more free, his progress is safer—he has not the enthusiasm of success; but the personal calculation, the egoism, the *moi* are too important. One sees it in the affairs of Italy; if the Minister anywhere passes the limits of prudence, it will be on this side. His heart is there as well as his interests; there will money accumulate, palaces will be built, works of art will be collected. In France Mazarin has no family, no hatreds, no friendships; he employs men, lifts them up, puts them down or away, calls them back, according to circumstances. In Italy he has relations, true friends, and even more true enemies."

It suited Mazarin to send Condé to Flanders in 1646, and to make him serve under the orders of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, the brother of the King. After a good description of the Low Countries, the Duc d'Aumale describes the Spanish army under Piccolomini and the Duke of Lorraine. War, as understood in those times, was often a succession of sieges. Condé besieged Mardick, took it, gained a battle at Hondschoote, pierced the Spanish lines, took Furnes, and ended his campaign brilliantly by taking Dunkirk, after a long and difficult siege.

In 1647 Condé was sent to Catalonia. In the splendid gallery of Chantilly, where all the "actions" of the Grand Condé were represented in painting, there is a view of Lerida, with this note: "The only place where the Duc d'Enghien could not make the arms of his Majesty triumph." The siege of Lerida is narrated in the most minute details by the Duc d'Aumale. The historian is familiar with the Commentaries of Cæsar, for Cæsar also made war in Catalonia; he has read the 'Pharsalia,' and reminds us of the fine passage in which Lucan describes the meeting of the Legions which had vanquished Vercingetorix and those which had withstood Sertorius: "The place is the same, the names are hardly changed. The donjon, the cathedral, the thick walls of which seem to defy artillery, crown the rocks where was once Ilerda, and where are now the narrow streets of Lerida." The fate of the campaign of 1647 was decided before that rocky hill, as the fate of the campaign of Cæsar had been in 49. All the efforts of Condé were of no avail; Lerida had a good garrison, a very determined commander. Condé raised the siege on the 18th of June, and, with his little army diminished by sickness, desertion, and constant fighting, he took a strong position where the Spaniards dared not attack him. People would hardly believe in Paris that for once he had been unsuccessful; and the Parisians wrote many songs which were called *Lerida*. Condé was afterwards often heard to sing one of them, which ended thus:

. . . . "Son dada
Demeura court à Lerida."

To this day the name of Lerida is associated with the name of Condé as much as the name of Rocroy.

During the first days of 1648, Condé was called to Burgundy for the opening of the States of that province; in the spring, he left for Arras; he was again to direct the operations in the north of France. We will not attempt to follow the Duc d'Aumale in all the details and complications of these operations. It is enough to say that they ended in the great victory of Lens. Condé made five thousand prisoners; the Spanish army lost three thousand men and more than a hundred flags.

"A glorious battle," says the Duc d'Aumale, "given with the back turned to the frontier, the road to the capital barred, and the capital in a ferment of insurrection; an audacious battle, and nevertheless none was ever prepared with more patience, calculation, and reflection. Let us consider a moment what would have been the consequences of a campaign less wisely conducted for two months, less rapidly terminated in nine days. It would have been the rupture of the negotiations at Münster, a separate treaty between the Swedes and the Emperor, France continuing the war without any allies, Alsace and Artois lost, the gates of Paris in rebellion opened to the Spaniard as they had been once to the English."

Condé was modest in his despatches: the day after Lens, in a letter to Mazarin, he struck out the words "our victory" to write instead "our struggle." But he was modest only in his despatches; he knew and felt himself, he knew that he had saved the country, the monarchy, the minister, and he made Mazarin feel it. It is certainly one of the most extraordinary facts of history that at the very moment when Mazarin obtained at Münster the most signal advantages for France, his power was attacked in Paris with the greatest violence. Condé stood by him and by the King. We cannot give in detail the history of the flight of the King to St. Germain, of the blockade of Paris. Mazarin and Condé together brought the capital to terms, and the "peace of Rueil" was signed. Condé brought the King back to Paris, but the service which he had rendered to Mazarin was so great, and Condé made him feel so much the weight of his protection, that Mazarin soon looked upon him as a danger to the state. He was afraid of a coalition between him and Cardinal de Retz, his most dangerous adversary and a constant conspirator; he feared lest sooner or later Condé should be drawn to the party of the princes and ladies of the Fronde who were opposed to his authority. On the 18th of January, 1650, Condé went to the Chamber of the Council; Mazarin left the room, and soon entered the Captain of the Guards. "What do you want?" "I have an order to arrest you with the Prince de Conti and M. de Longueville [they were also in the Council Chamber]." No resistance was possible. Condé thought a moment of the assassination of the Duc de Guise at Blois. "You are a gentleman; what does this mean?" "Upon my honor, sir, it is a question only of Vincennes."

Condé was taken, with a military escort, to Vincennes. He said afterwards, referring to his captivity: "I entered Vincennes the most innocent of men; I left it the most guilty of subjects." The next volume, now in preparation, will give us the history of Condé's rebellion.

Correspondence.

RAILROAD MORTGAGES AND PRIOR LIENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editorial on "Railroad Mortgages and Prior Liens" in your last number requires a correction and a criticism.

It was proved, in the case you name, that the supplies in question were required for and used in the operation and maintenance of the C., W. & B. railway. The terms of the statute you quote are broad enough, though, to cover supplies in the wider sense to which you refer.

I fully agree with you that the issuing of railway receivers' certificates has been carried to an excess unwarranted by principle and dangerous in practice. In so far as they are permitted for anything beyond what is actually needed to keep the road in operation, they constitute the abuse of a judicial power whose use was meant to be, and until lately was, for preservation only. Courts can exercise only remedial justice. Improving or changing or adding to a railway is not the application of a remedy, but the exercise of rights of ownership, and therefore unjustifiable interference with vested rights. The note of warning has been sounded more than once; and I believe the courts are about to check this abuse before it becomes a practice so settled that mortgagees may be held to have contracted in anticipation of it. But the decision on which you comment-

ed bears no relation whatever to those involving receivers' certificates or claims for supplies either ordinary or extraordinary, and your suggestion of unconstitutionality of the statute on which it was based was, I am sure, due to misapprehension of its nature and its relation to the contending liens.

The way in which railroad companies may reorganize is specially provided by a subdivision of the statutes of Ohio, of which the section you quote is a part—reorganization having its technical meaning in Ohio and not including the mere creation of a new corporation to buy the property and franchises of a former one. It can only be done on the written assent of the holders of all existing liens. If this is not given, the ordinary remedies are open to all.

The terms on which a corporation may reorganize are certainly as much within the discretion of the Legislature as those on which it may originally organize. One of those terms is made the priority of the liens of judgments for supplies furnished after the reorganization. Every lienholder necessarily assents to this by signing the reorganization agreement for which the statutes provide, and availing himself of the remedy thereby given. The postponement to such subsequent judgment liens of the new security he takes from the reorganized company is, therefore, unlike its postponement to ordinary supply claims, or to receivers' certificates issued for other than purely preservative purposes, based solely on his own consent. Having taken the benefits conferred by the statute, he cannot escape its burdens.

By the decisions of our courts, following the general rule elsewhere, the provisions of the statutes under which railway mortgages are issued become a part of their terms and conditions by operation of law as fully as though expressly stated therein. Full protection against collusion or mistake is, of course, afforded by the courts in the action to foreclose, wherein all liens are open to full investigation.

Respectfully yours, JUDSON HARMON.

CINCINNATI, April 15, 1889.

JURISDICTION WITHIN THREE MILES OF THE COAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Number 1240, "R. C. M." joins issue on your statement as to the authority of the United States Government to "give law to the subjects of other nations" within "a marine league from our shores." The affirmative of the proposition, as here stated, is not maintained by the *Nation*. Inferentially, however, it is; and "R. C. M." "ventures to call your attention to a decision which puts an end to that pretension." The celebrated case of The Queen vs. Keyn, 2 Exchequer Division, is cited, and extracts from Lord Cockburn's judgment are quoted in support.

The question in the case was one of *criminal* jurisdiction, and that alone. The quotation, "*ex concessis*, the jurisdiction over foreigners in foreign ships, etc.," is limited to this sense, as a reading of the paragraph in which it occurs shows. On the contrary, it was conceded by even the judges forming the majority of the court that, for some purposes, "the concensus of civilized independent states has recognized a maritime extension of frontier to the distance of three miles from low-water mark" (Sir R. Phillimore, p. 81). "The foreigner invading the rights of the local fisherman would have been amenable, consistently with international law, to local legislation prohibiting such infringement, without any stipulation to that effect by treaty" (Cockburn, C. J., p. 205).

But while Lord Cockburn denied to the English criminal courts, by virtue of any common law or then existing statutory authority, or by binding rule of international law, the right to try the German prisoner for his offence committed within the three-mile limit, he intimates (p. 208) that, had Parliament so enacted, there could be no question. In other words, Lord Cockburn's difficulty was one of constitutional rather than international law. Acting on this suggestion, doubtless, the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 41 and 42 Vict., c. 73, was passed, giving British courts cognizance over all offences committed on "any part of the open sea within one marine league of the coast, measured from low-water mark," of her Majesty's dominions.

Is it too much to premise, then, that your correspondent's logic is somewhat at fault when the conclusion reached is that the judgment in The Queen vs. Keyn "puts an end to the pretension" referred to? Surely, if it is within the competence of the British Parliament to enact the Territorial Waters Act, it is likewise within the authority of the United States Government to give law to the subjects of other nations within a marine league from its shores. R.

HALIFAX, N. S., April 13, 1889.

THE LIMITATIONS OF STATE LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondents, in Nos. 1238 and 1241 of the *Nation*, in criticising Prof. Bryce's remarks upon the powers of our State Legislatures being as great as the powers of the Parliament of Great Britain, except to the extent that our legislatures are controlled by the written constitutions of the United States and the State, seem to have lost sight of the fact that Great Britain has a Constitution, though it be unwritten. Is the Parliament of Great Britain omnipotent? Is it not controlled by the Magna Charta, Petition of Right, and the immemorial customs and usages of Great Britain? And if this be so, are not Prof. Bryce's statements correct, when properly understood, that our legislatures are as omnipotent as the Parliament of Great Britain, except in so far as their powers may be limited by written constitutions and immemorial customs and usages?

Yours respectfully, TALBOT J. ALBERT.

BALTIMORE, April 16, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am surprised that two of your correspondents have seriously questioned the doctrine stated by Mr. Bryce, viz., that the State Legislatures of each State have the same omnipotence as the British Parliament, except as restrained by written constitutions. That doctrine is sustained by an overwhelming weight of judicial decisions. It is thus stated by Judge Cooley in the fourth edition of his work on 'Constitutional Limitations,' page 204: "The rule of law upon this subject appears to be, that except where the constitution has imposed limits upon the legislative power, it must be considered as practically absolute." A great many cases are cited to sustain this view, and none to the contrary. I do not think any case can be found which is expressly decided on the ground that a statute is void because in conflict with any custom or any principle of justice not found in the written Constitution, though undoubtedly there are dicta to this effect, some of which are cited by one of your correspondents.

And the doctrine stated by Mr. Bryce is as clear on principle as on authority. What is the basis of the American doctrine, unknown elsewhere, of the right of the judiciary to declare legislative acts void? Only this: the court looks from the statute to the higher law of the Constitution, and, perceiving a conflict, decides in favor of the law, which is supreme. The powers of our judiciary are based on written law. In what States are they authorized to say that a statute, not in conflict with the written Constitution, is void? The province of a court is not to make law, but to interpret the law made by the law-making department. No doubt, where they find no rule of law established sufficient for the decision of a case, they have to make a rule. But where they find a rule made by the proper department, how can they justify its overturn, except by pointing to a law higher than the statute made by the people, the supreme law-making power?

The doctrine that there are restrictions upon the Legislature which it is the duty of the courts to enforce, not found in our written constitutions, leads to the greatest uncertainty in constitutional law. It gives weak judges a plausible excuse for holding void any statute they do not like. And though I think no court has ever undertaken to justify the holding void a statute not in conflict with the written Constitution, statutes have been in many cases set aside, where the court did not point out the constitutional provision with which the statute was in conflict. Michigan has had its full share of this class of decisions, and the natural result was pointed out by Judge Cooley in an opinion given in the State Tax cases decided in 1885 (54 Mich., 446). He says: "It seems to me that on constitutional questions the Court is drifting to this position, that those statutes are constitutional which suit us, and those are void which do not." Whether Judge Cooley's utterances upon the power of the courts to set aside statutes have always been consistent I will not say; but certainly the latest expressions of his opinion are in favor of the rule stated by Mr. Bryce. C. A. KENT.

DETROIT, MICH., April 13, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have lately published two letters, one from I. H. Lionberger and one from "E. W. H.," both to the effect that American courts do hold, and of right ought to hold, acts of legislatures unconstitutional and void, even though they do not contravene any express provision of the State or national Constitution, provided they are contrary to what the court may regard as the general principles of free government. In the words of "E. W. H.," "Our courts . . . will enforce not only the guarantees of written charters, but also the unwritten principles of constitutional government."

I doubt if there are many lawyers that will assent to this most dangerous and revolutionary doctrine; but, for the sake of those of your readers who are not lawyers, I do not think the statements of your correspondents ought to pass without a protest. Certainly if the doctrine which they enounce were generally maintained by the courts, our government would already have become one of men and not of laws. That the men by whose permission we should hold all our dearest rights are judges of the courts and generally men of high character, does not affect the principle. If a contract made or an act done by me in accordance with the law of the land as declared by the Legislature, can be annulled and held void by a judge, not because it contravenes any provision of the Constitution, but because that judge believes, or claims to believe, that it is not in accordance with the principles of abstract justice, then I have no rights except such as that judge chooses to allow me. The power of a court

to nullify an act of the Legislature is a most dangerous power, reaching backwards as well as forwards, and should never be exercised except in accordance with some express provision of the written Constitution.

There are a few cases in the books, both in England and America, where a judge has assumed to hold a statute void as opposed to natural right, but neither in England nor in America have courts any such dispensing power. There have been many questionable decisions annulling statutes, but most of them have been under the clause of Magna Charta, repeated in substance in all our constitutions, to the effect that no one shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. What amounts to a deprivation of liberty, and what is due process of law, are very difficult things to define, and there is room for a good deal of latitude in their construction, and some of the decisions of some of the courts have undoubtedly gone too far under this clause. But the well-settled rule is unquestionably as stated by Mr. Bryce, that the State Legislatures have succeeded to all the powers of the Parliament of Great Britain, except as limited by the national and State Constitutions.

I have examined all of Mr. Lionberger's citations to which I have access, and find them either misquoted or distorted by being taken from the context. One of his citations is from the case of Dash vs. Van Kleeck, 7 Johns. 477, in which Judge Kent says: "I must insist that our State Legislature, when acting within the pale of the Constitutions of the United States and of this State, has the same omnipotence which Judge Blackstone ascribes to the British Parliament." In opposition to Mr. Lionberger, I contend that all the courts of this country have always been in substantial agreement with Judge Kent on this point, and will close by citing a late deliverance of the Court of Appeals of New York. In the case of The People vs. Gillson, 109 N. Y. 398, decided in June, 1888, Judge Peckham says:

"It has been further held that every presumption is in favor of the constitutionality of legislative acts; that the case must be practically free from doubt before an act of the Legislature should be declared unconstitutional; that, as to our State Constitution, the question whether a statute is a valid exercise of legislative power is to be determined solely by reference to constitutional restraints and prohibitions; that it may not be declared void *because a court may deem it opposed to natural justice and equity*. . . . These principles have been frequently asserted in our courts, and are so familiar that a reference to particular authorities is not thought needful. They are good and healthful rules, and should be followed by all courts." A. P. R.

CORPORATIONS BEFORE THE INTER-STATE COMMISSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of April 11 a correspondent from Philadelphia, discussing the Inter-State Commerce report, complains as follows:

"The notion that they [the Commission] can regulate men's business better than the owners can, is quite patent. On page 4 there is asserted a right to inquire into the concerns of every corporation engaged in inter-State commerce, because that information will enable the Commission to deal more efficiently with the subject committed to them. Why confine this to corporations? If the reason or ground for the claim warrants the arrogation of the power, evidently not a dealer or trader exists whose business arrangements are not liable to be made public at the demand of this Commission."

Now, whatever differences of opinion may exist as to their practical working methods, it seems to me that one of the very strongest reasons for the existence of the Commission lies in that difference between the corporation and the individual, in point of legal status, which your correspondent overlooks. That individual liberty and privacy should be guaranteed and guarded is the very spirit of Anglo-Saxon law, and that the "business arrangements" of no dealer or trader should be "liable to be made public at the demand of this Commission," is most true. But is not this a childish exaggeration of the danger? and how does right of privacy apply to a corporation engaged in inter-State commerce?

To begin with, the corporation, as it exists in modern times, is a most un-Anglo-Saxon institution; and the theory of limited liability inherent in it is repugnant to that doctrine of personal responsibility for one's own acts which is a feature of the common law. But the main argument against the claim by the corporation to immunity from investigation is that so ably elaborated by Mr. Bonham in his recent book on 'Industrial Liberty.'

The corporation derives its franchises from the individuals composing the State, and is bound to hold and exercise these franchises as a trust for the public conferring them—a trust even more sacred than that for its stockholders. The individual citizen is the ultimate source of the existence of the corporation, and the franchises are granted in usufruct only, and can never lawfully be exercised in derogation of the individual citizen's rights. In the exercise of its power of eminent domain, the inter-State carrier can deprive an individual of property for which its money value is no compensation, and yet if one or more individuals complain that a corporation is abusing its franchises, the all-sufficient answer is that the State must proceed against the corporation for a forfeiture of its charter; if exception is made to this answer because no State can deal satisfactorily with an inter-State carrier, the presumptuous complainants are told that in a free country no Commission ought to arrogate to itself the right to "inquire into the concerns" of a corporation.

When Lord Chancellor Nottingham, the "Father of Equity," began to lay down and enforce the doctrine that a trustee, when thereunto called by a party interested, must give forthwith a detailed account of his stewardship, there were doubtless many easy-going trustees who regarded such proceedings as unwarrantable interference with individual privacy, and who, in conversation with their fellow-sufferers, probably referred to the Chancellor as "that fellow Finch"; but the right thing prevailed, and it is to be hoped that the doctrine of private trusts will ultimately be applied to that great trust involved in the exercise of corporate franchises, and that any party interested shall have the right to demand and to enforce his demand for a fair and impartial exercise of such franchises. Of course the law, as your correspondent states, is limited to the prevention of unjust discrimination; it was hardly contemplated, however, that the corporation should be the judge of what discrimination is unjust and what is not.—Yours truly, Joseph C. France.

Baltimore, April 15, 1889.

LAW AND PRACTICE IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Happening to be travelling in the State of Iowa three times within the last six months, I have had some little curiosity to observe how prohibition works. Prohibition prohibits about the same way that protection protects. Those who don't want liquor, don't get it, and those who do, get oceans of it. The aim of prohibition is, I believe, to keep those who crave liquor from getting it. It fails of its purpose in Iowa, as a rule, as far as my observation goes. I have noticed the same thing in Maine. For instance, one week ago to-day, in Burlington, Iowa, I was shown two saloons in "full blast." We entered from the street. The beer was sold over a counter and drawn from kegs. In fact, it was the kind of saloon you would see across the river in Illinois or Missouri.

As a rule, the Germans will have their beer, no matter what happens. The river counties voted heavily against prohibition, but the "back" counties—the farming counties—outvoted them.

A friend of mine in the wholesale grocery business told me that, in the old times, before prohibition, his customers used sometimes to request him to ship a gallon or so of whiskey with the consignment, but that now, no matter how frantic the appeal (and some I saw were indeed frantic and pathetic), neither would his house nor any other wholesale house ship one drop to the interior counties. "They voted to deprive me of my beer," said this philosophic German; "now let them go dry themselves."

My observation leads me to believe that the outcome of the whole matter is, that people who live in the large river towns get all the liquor they want, but the farmers go dry—and awfully dry they must get, too; for I have known them to drive forty miles to town for a drink. A Travelling Man.

Chicago, April 13, 1889.

TO CIVIL-SERVICE-REFORM REPUBLICANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It requires very little insight to see that the cause of civil-service reform is in a more critical situation than at any previous period in its history. It has been so often asserted that the true friends of the movement were mostly in the Republican party, that most people have come to accept the assertion as the truth. If, then, the glaring violation of reform pledges already perpetrated is, as it seems, to go unrebuked by those Republicans who have been wont to assume a leading part in reform movements during the past four years, the masses will take it for granted that the cause has gone by the board.

Four years ago, the *Independent* was honest enough to tell the people the truth about Blaine in plain terms, and to refuse to support him. Within less than three months of Harrison's inauguration, it was wise enough to utter words of warning against his selection for the Cabinet, and to predict the division of the party if the selection should be made. It was, nevertheless, made—in all probability had been made before the election—and the *Independent* has not a word of criticism to offer. Indeed, it has even discovered that Blaine's former unfitness has in some inscrutable way been transformed into wisdom, and it sees reason to hope for excellent results from the appointment. It criticised Cleveland very severely for allowing so many fourth-class postmasters to be removed to make places for inexperienced men, but assumes that Harrison has done right in appointing Van Cott, a mere politician, utterly inexperienced in postal affairs, to succeed Pearson, to whose excellent fitness it is compelled to testify in the very same breath. It is hardly necessary to remark, in the light of such facts, that all its former professions of devotion to reform are thereby proved to have

been basely insincere, and calculated only for party purposes.

Is the same thing true of many other prominent Republicans whose names will at once occur to the readers of the *Nation*? Are some distinguished Indiana reformers who supported Harrison so vigorously, and who, since his election, have erected so lofty a standard for him to follow, now going to imitate the baseness of the *Independent*?

Criticism from without will do very little good. If it does not appear, and that speedily, that there is a large body of men in the Republican party who are ready to censure Mr. Harrison as he deserves for such abuses as the removal of Pearson, it might as well be understood at once that civil service of the spoilsmen, for the spoilsmen, and by the spoilsmen has entered, by the grace of Mr. Harrison, upon an unprecedented career of prosperity. W.

THE RHINES BALLOT-BOX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A word as to the Rhines Ballot System, of which a correspondent tells in your issue of April 18. It is of course encouraging to see so large a share of popular attention given to ballot reform that rival methods begin to compete for favor, and for this reason we welcome the efforts of Mr. Rhines, who is certainly sincere and well-meaning, to perfect the methods of secret voting in the direction of economy and accuracy. But I cannot refrain from pointing out that his apparatus, as it now stands, is open to the same strong objections that apply to the party-list system, embodied in the New York bill, and refused admission into the Massachusetts act. Wherever there is a column or list or group for all candidates of the same party (as there is in the New York bill and as the present Rhines method requires), you drag down the electoral system with at least three potent disadvantages:

(1.) You force every candidate to be dubbed either "Republican," "Democrat," etc., or "Independent," and thus deprive him of the right to stand forth, as a citizen, in his own name, free from any party stamp, and yet not obliged to content himself with the dunce corner reserved for obstinate "Independents."

(2.) You get into difficulties the moment there are two or more candidates (and when are there not?) who all wish to claim membership, as they have a right, in one party. You must either deny some of them this right, or you must cumber the ballot by printing more columns or additional party lists.

(3.) You foster the custom of blind adherence to party candidates, and undermine the independent judgment of the average elector by inviting him to vote at one stroke for a number of men, for offices requiring entirely different qualifications, on the one ground that they call themselves of a certain party. You deny him the advantage of being required to reflect at each vote he casts for each office.

These are not reasons which would have weight with the self-seeking class of politicians, but they count with some of us. At the risk of taking too much space, I will suggest a modification of the Rhines apparatus which will, I think, eliminate its party-list feature, and help to make it, what it apparently is capable of being, the modern, economical, and accurate apparatus (for it is merely a piece of apparatus—it cannot be called a system) for carrying out the principle of the compulsory secret ballot: Remove the party names at the head of the columns of buttons. Paste, or otherwise fix, across each button (which is large enough) the name of a candidate for the office represented by that horizontal row, and on each row arrange these names in alphabetical order. Let each organized party have a color (and on the inner face of the outside cover print a key showing these colors with the corresponding party names), and where a candidate wishes to appear under a peculiar name, *e. g.*, "Labor-Democrat," paste it just above his button, perhaps on it. Thus the voter does not vote by columns or by lists, but has each name before him, and votes by choosing that particular candidate. Moreover, each candidate can call himself what he pleases, and there may be more than one candidate of the same appellation. Nor is the mechanism of the tally-sheet affected in any way.

If Mr. Rhines's apparatus does mechanically as well as he claims (about which I know nothing), it ought to receive the attention of all interested in lessening the friction and expense of election machinery. It will doubtless receive the cordial condemnation of the printers whose business flourishes at election time. But it ought not to be employed until he consents to deprive it of its present objectionable feature. J. H. W.

Boston, April 20, 1889.

COLLEGE LECTURES AND EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The method of instruction in vogue in our colleges is a compromise between the lecture system, the recitation system, and the so-called Socratic method. The necessary complement of the lecture system is the examination—in no other way is it possible to discover whether the student has made the required progress; and the longer and more searching the examination, the more full and more definite is the knowledge of the instructor about the real intellectual condition of the student. When the aim of the teaching is the mere imparting of knowledge, the lecture is certainly the most economical method, simply because the lecturer can condense several books into one address, and can compel hearing where he might not compel reading. Many arguments advanced against the lecture system hold good for preaching and speech-making of all kinds. Granted that there is a gain in having lectures printed (if one owns a printing-press), there are serious losses also; for if the printed lecture is delivered, there will be diminished attention in the hearers; if it is not delivered, its message will not come with so great force as from the living man. But there is a pedagogical value in hearing lectures and in taking notes of them: it is very desirable that a man should be trained to winnow the chaff from the wheat in an address—to pick out the salient points, and to carry with him the gist of a speech.

The recitation system, at its best, is merely a series of daily examinations. A term examination following these ought to and does have no terror for a diligent student. The real Socratic system throws the entire burden on the teacher; the pupil already has the knowledge, but must be aided to vivify it. Theoretically, such a system has no place for examinations. When each term's work stands for certain results, and the obtaining of these results is kept constantly in mind, whether the necessary imparting of knowledge is brought about in one way or another, the examination comes as a matter of course, and no one is troubled about it except the indolent and the incompetent. Examinations bring about a unification of knowledge with good students, and furnish a pretext for the retirement of poor ones. The charge that cheating occurs in some cases is no argument against examinations: dishonesty may be exercised on other occasions as well. The remedy lies in strengthening the moral fibre, not in removing the occasions for immoral action.

W. A. Merrill.

Miami University, April 15, 1889.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with recent correspondence regarding college examinations, the fact may be of interest that for many years past at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology very full notes of most of the courses of lectures have been furnished to the students at first in "hektograph" and more recently in print, illustrated with all needed cuts. The original cost of preparation is assumed by the corporation of the Institute, and the students are charged with only the bare expense of printing. The saving of labor to the student is exceedingly great.—Yours respectfully,

Chas. R. Cross.

Rogers Laboratory of Physics, Mass. Institute of Technology, Boston, April 15, 1889.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The present abundance of books and facilities for printing have, no doubt, diminished the importance of the lecture system and restricted its field; but as pulpit and platform still have their use, and are not wholly superseded by the press, so perhaps this method of oral instruction, employed judiciously and in due measure, may not be without value, even in this progressive age. Decidedly, my own experience and observation incline me to think so. The live teacher is something more than a book; his spoken words have an effect that is largely lost in print. But to attain this result he must dismiss all thought of rhetorical display; he must not try to be eloquent; he must teach, not preach.

Is not a common cause of ineffectiveness in lecturing the habit of *reading* the lecture? When that is done it is, indeed, better to print. But where the instructor has a lucid knowledge and easy mastery of his subject, and can *talk* it (not spout it), effects can be obtained that cannot be had from books. Myself originally a sceptic in this matter, my views have been greatly modified by experience.

And why is the making and revising of notes necessarily such a waste of time? Is the mind idle because the hand is busy? On the contrary, when this work is properly done, the subject is at the same time mastered in a degree rarely obtained by mere study of books. I am aware that many subjects are not well adapted to this method, and that many teachers are ill qualified to use it, and sacrifice the students profit to vanity and folly. I recognize fully the value of the new methods that are growing in favor, but it does not follow that they will, or that they should, entirely supersede the old.

C. K. G.

Canton, N. Y., April 16, 1889.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S SCHOLARSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The better-informed among Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's fellow-commoners must occasionally be moved to smile, when he ventures on excursions beyond the sphere of present-day politics. It is not long ago that the Right Hon. gentleman was pleased to designate the Seven Bishops of refractory renown as "Nonconformists"; a term which, to characterize them, must be taken in a very Pickwickian sense indeed. Again, if the newspapers have not reported him amiss, in a speech which he made in the House of Commons yes-

terday, he signalized his acquaintance with literature by giving to Mr. John Bright the credit of originating the phrase "join the majority," in its euphemistic application. In his next vacation from manufacturing screws and elaborating sophisms against home rule, he might do worse than to dip into De Quincey, and, with the acquisition of some "small Latin," learn to weigh his rendering of *plures* against the mysterious abracadabra itself. *Tractent sua fabrilia fabri.*

Your obedient servant, X. Y. Z.

LONDON, March 30, 1889.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & Co., Cincinnati, will shortly issue 'The Jew in English Fiction,' by Rabbi David Philipson, D.D. Marlowe, Shakspere, Cumberland, Scott, Dickens, Disraeli, and George Eliot receive attention in separate chapters.

W. S. Gottsberger & Co. publish immediately Georg Ebers's 'Margery (Gred): A Tale of Old Nuremberg,' translated by Clara Bell.

The Woman's Temperance Publication Association, Chicago, have in press 'Glimpses of Fifty Years,' by Miss Frances Willard.

A book of sermons, 'Living Questions: Studies in Nature and Grace,' by the Rev. Warren Hathaway, is announced by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

The Dunlap Society will issue to its subscribers this year two parts of Mr. William Winter's 'Brief Chronicles,' and Mr. Lawrence Barrett's recollections of Charlotte Cushman, which will contain also a list of parts played by the great actress.

D. C. Heath & Co. will publish at once 'The Laws of Health in Relation to School Life,' by Arthur Newsholme, M.D., Diplomate in Public Health, University of London. The same firm have added to the "Old South Leaflets" Washington's inaugurals, and a letter of his to Benjamin Harrison, Govern of Virginia, in 1784, touching the development of the great West.

We should be glad to linger over 'The City of New York in the Year of Washington's Inauguration, 1789,' by Thomas E. V. Smith (who is, by the way, his own publisher); but in the interest of the prompt sale of the book we will say briefly that it is an excellent performance, by an antiquarian not crammed for the occasion, but saturated with local learning. Without pretence of style, or prolixity, without a footnote or a reference to authorities (without, alas! an index), Mr. Smith proceeds, in the most direct and orderly manner, yet not drily, to give a general description of the city, and then to picture in detail government, militia, politics; climate, dress, and customs; churches and clergy; amusements, education, literature and art; and ends with President and Vice-President, and Washington's inauguration. He ransacks the Directory to record the dwellers on the principal streets, Wall Street being in 1789 the most fashionable place of residence and the centre of political life for the new republic. The city fathers, the Faculty of Columbia College, the booksellers and what they sold to readers, the newspapers of the day, the plays of 1789, are all carefully set down, with here and there a spice of humor, and many a curious extract from public or private documents. We doubt if any work called forth by the approaching anniversary celebrati n will surpass this in quality, and we heartily recommend it.

The contrast between Washington's New York and Harrison's may be stu d, in connection with the foregoing work, by means of three sets of albertype views neatly bound as albums by Adolph Wittemann, 58 Reade Street. Central Park is the subject of one, the Brooklyn bridge of another, and the city in general of a third. Though a little cold, as prints, and lacking atmosphere, they are well selected and very fresh, even the new *Times* building being included, and the tangle of overhead telegraph wires, soon to disappear, being put on record. Strangers visiting the city could hardly do better than to carry away these albums as souvenirs. They are the first of a series which will be extended to all our large cities.

Canon Twells's 'Colloquies on Preaching' (Longmans, Green & Co.) is a good deal of a novelty in homiletic literature. The novelty is partly in the form—twenty more or less informal dialogues between all sorts of people upon the subject of preaching and preachers; and partly in the unusual frankness with which this clerical writer recognizes the limitations put in the modern world upon the clerical function, and the power he has of coming so near the real thought of a great many different persons about sermons. This is the most that can be said for the book, which is, in its main purposes, rather goody-goody and decidedly ineffective—the moral being that preachers ought to preach as well as they can, while listeners ought to exercise a great deal of patience. The writer seems to understand pretty well the attitude of Tennyson's Yorkshire Farmer and of Squire Western, but of the causes of the alienation of the artisan from the Church, or that of such a man as G. H. Lewes, he shows no conception.

It is a pleasure to receive the fourth and last volume of 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War' (The Century Co.), and to find it equipped with a triple-column index of sixty pages. The value of this important work we need not estimate afresh, as there can be few readers who have not acquainted themselves with the magazine articles on which it is based. We should like to praise as they deserve the editorial labors of Messrs. Robert U. Johnson and Clarence C. Buel, but we doubt if anybody but these gentlemen can speak adequately on this point. The total product is creditable to all concerned, and has a distinct American stamp in its conception and execution—the *mechanical* execution, of cuts, paper, and typography, being in the very front rank of subscription publications.

The 'Encyclopædia Britannica' comes to a final end in an Index volume of 500 pages (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; New York: Scribners), very open and clear, and on the face of it only a partial clue to the infinite riches of the twenty-four volumes. All the titles are repeated in the Index, and these are interspersed with names and topics not to be discovered in their alphabetical relation. On a page taken at random we have counted two new entries to every old title, and this proportion may very likely hold throughout. The Index repairs, so far as it can, the slight put upon the living in the scheme of this Encyclopædia, by summing up incidental references to Bismarcks, Darwins, Gladstones, Stanleys, and other notables of the period of the making of this extended work. It would be a superfluous task to criticise this Index, since we must take it as it is. No two makers of it would have agreed on what to insert and what to exclude. One unsuspected service it will render, and that is to correct the editorial shortcomings by bringing together references to the same facts, when inconsistencies and errors will duly appear. The first title we verified in this way showed in an incidental reference complete ignorance of the full and elaborate (biographical) article covering the same ground. At the close of the volume is given a list of contributors, in which many American names occur.

The 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age* (First Hundred Volumes),' undertaken by Mr. Edward Roth, 1135 Pine Street, Philadelphia, has just completed the fiction and begun on the geographical articles.

The classical antiquities of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts are assuming such proportions in numbers and value that the Curator's report in the Thirteenth Annual Report of the Trustees deserves attention, as indicating the lines of recent increase. In the torso of a male statuette from Naukratis, Mr. Robinson thinks he has a connecting link between Egyptian and Greek art.

The attractive appearance of the *Annals of Botany* (Macmillan) has probably had much to do with its remarkable success. In typography and plates, in the character of the paper, and the general symmetry of the page, it ranks among the best specimens of periodical literature. From the very first the editors have had a copious supply of material of a high order for their regular issues, and they have been discriminating in its use. One of the features which were viewed at the outset with some apprehension by many friends of the new venture, was the attempt to give the titles of all papers in current botanical journals; but this has been so well managed that all fear that the magazine would be in this way overweighted must have passed. The price of the *Annals* has been raised to thirty shillings per annum.

—It is almost a wonder, when one considers how many of the portraits of Washington the impending centenary has brought to public notice, that nobody, so far as we know, has thought of engraving and publishing the portrait by Savage, now in the possession of Harvard College. The late Mr. Josiah Quincy used to declare that this portrait corresponded to his recollection of Washington more closely than any other. It may be worth while to reprint from Mr. Edmund Quincy's Life of his father the following passage relating to it:

"I was curious to know how my father's recollections of the personal appearance of Washington agreed with the popular descriptions and pictorial representations of it with which we are all familiar. He was not an imaginative man, and never dressed his heroes in the colors of fancy. No man had a profounder reverence for Washington than he, but this did not affect his perceptions of physical phenomena, nor his recollections of them. . . . He maintained that Stuart's portrait is a highly idealized one, presenting its great subject as the artist thought he ought to live in the minds of posterity, but not a strong resemblance of the actual man in the flesh. He always declared that the portrait by Savage, in the College dining-room in Harvard Hall at Cambridge, was the best likeness he had ever seen of Washington, though its merits as a work of art are but small."

—The United States Cavalry Association, whose headquarters are at Fort Leavenworth, publishes there a quarterly journal, the March number of which contains a hundred pages of most excellent matter. One admirable military paper, although with no special bearings upon cavalry, is an intelligent explanation and discussion of the new German drill for infantry that is exciting so much interest in the military world. Its author, Lieut. Wagner, has had personal opportunity of seeing the German troops at work, and very lucidly explains, not only the general movements, but the principles governing them. Our National Guard, as well as intelligent civilians, would be interested and

instructed by the study of this paper. But the leading article, by Capt. Carr, First Cavalry, is a fascinating excursion into an almost unexplored field. It is a vivid description of cavalry life in the interior of Arizona during the three years 1866-68, filled with graphic descriptions of conditions now happily passed away, but whose very telling almost reëstablishes them before the eye. The paper was evidently read before the Association, and was probably written for the instruction of the younger officers and the entertainment of the older ones, and has the freedom of personal speech with the accuracy of the written line. But, whatever its origin, it is a marked success, both in its style and in its matter. Capt. Carr's first adventure with a pack train, the mysterious founderings of a raft in the Verde River, the description of Fort McDowell, where there was little difference by night from the temperature by day, "which for several months in the year averaged about 115° in the shade, or would have done so if any shade could have been found," explain very clearly some of the difficulties those men fresh from the Army of the Potomac had to meet in opening up that country. Perhaps the best illustration of the primitive condition of the region is the story that the chief of a band of Apaches, defeated by the troops from Fort McDowell, came in to make peace, and, as an evidence of good faith, offered to unite his three hundred warriors with the garrison for the purpose of attacking and capturing Fort Grant! Capt. Carr writes like a man who is telling what he knows, and in this case it is what few others, at least with the capacity to narrate, seem to know. People who wonder what the army has done in peace, people who forget we have an army, and foreign soldiers, whose service all lies within civilized areas, would find this article, as we have found it, entertaining to read, and, for our people at least, valuable to preserve. If this is a fair example of the proceedings of the Association, it is certainly a most creditable institution. The Journal is at Brentano's.

—On entering upon its second volume, the *Deutsch-Amerikanische Dichtung*, edited by Konrad Nies and Hermann Rosenthal, and published in this city, offers three prizes, of forty dollars each, for the best lyric poem, ballad, and novelette dealing with German-American subjects. The jury consists mainly of editors of well-known German-American periodicals, who, somewhat oddly, are reinforced by Prof. Franz Keim of the Gymnasium of St. Pölten, near Vienna, and Prince Emil zu Schönaich-Carolath, at present in Switzerland. The verses of this august foreign contributor are, in true German fashion, assigned the place of honor in the April number of the *Dichtung*, which contains, as its most characteristic feature, a poem on our civil war, by Theodor Kirchhoff, one of the best, as he certainly is the most prolific, of German-American writers, both in prose and verse. The poem, which forms part of the epic "Hermann," cannot be said to equal in value the author's descriptions of California life and scenery, and rather boldly suggests in its metre Schiller's "Glocke." The other contributions, while not particularly racy of the soil, are, we should say, fully up to the average poetry to be found in similar publications in the fatherland, and ring the changes on "The Song Treasures of the Rhine," "The Life of Man," "The Unfathomable," "The German Lied," etc. They are chiefly interesting on account of their geographical distribution, representing as they do the States of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Missouri, and California. Emil Rittershaus is the only transatlantic contributor of note in the present number. There is a sensible prose review of the German dramatic season in New York, which justly asserts that the Germans of Chicago and Milwaukee are treated to a better dramatic fare than are those of New York. The *Dichtung* is attractively printed, and on the whole is a creditable specimen of the literary activity of the Germans of this country.

—The Transactions and Proceedings of the Modern Language Association of America for 1887 have been issued in a volume of nearly four hundred pages. It presents first the papers read, secondly the proceedings, embracing the discussions upon them, and finally lists of members of the Association, and of colleges, with the various professors of modern languages in each. This volume shows a marked advance in the work of the organization over that of the earliest years. Pedagogics in its application to modern languages has properly shrunk to a more limited space; an effort to make propaganda for special theories and methods of education has disappeared, and the bulk of the present volume is made up of original investigations, many of which are scientific in character and valuable in results. The measure between criticism and original contributions is well preserved. These papers contain, in an increasing degree, studies of local dialects for which so vast a field is presented upon this continent not merely in English, but in the survivals of other languages of the early colonists. The most extended paper of this character is that upon "Bits of Louisiana Folk-Lore," by Prof. Alcée Fortier, presenting the text in the patois of some popular tales, songs, and proverbs of the negroes of Lower Louisiana, with a translation and commentary. The article on "Charleston Provincialisms," by Prof. Primer, deals a trifle too much with general phonetic statements, and presents a limited material. The article on the "Origin of the Teutonic Weak Preterit," by Dr. Collitz, is a fresh study of this important question, and worthy of careful examination. Other noticeable papers are by Dr. Lang upon the "Face in Spanish Metaphor," and upon "The Style of Anglo-Saxon Poetry," by Prof. Tolman. The article upon the "Seminary System in Teaching Foreign Literature" presents no methods which are not applicable to all instruction in literature and equally in vogue in all higher institutions of learning, even though not designated by the name "seminary." The author's statement regarding the amount of instruction in modern German by professors in the German universities whom he ranks exclusively as philologists, is based upon an imperfect acquaintance with the work actually done in the various seminaries. There are few universities where the seminary system is not applied to the study of modern German authors. The previous careful work in many gymnasia is apparently entirely overlooked.

—With the present year the Association has adopted a commendable change in issuing its publications. For several years there has been an effort to establish a review devoted entirely to modern philology and literatures. To meet this demand, and at the same time to avoid postponing the publication of all papers read before the Association until they can appear in a single volume, the Executive Committee has decided to publish the transactions in instalments, and to insert contributions which have not been read previously before the society. The first number has just been issued, under the title, 'Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, January-March,' vol. iv, No. 1. It contains eight papers of varying value—viz., on "The Language and Literature of Wales," by Edward D. Morris; "The Rhetorical Tendency in Undergraduate Courses," by Morton W. Easton; "Dante's Paradiso, Cantos xxiv–xxvi," by Edward L. Walter; "Notes on Elizabethan Prose," by James M. Garnett; "The Geste of Auberi le Bourgoing," by Thomas McCabe, with hitherto unpublished extracts of the poem; "Some Points in the Study of English Prose Style," by Henry E. Shepherd; and "Italo-Keltisches," by Richard Otto (in German). The *Modern Language Notes* has entered upon its fourth volume. The modest title does not express the value and character of its contents. It contains brief but important investigations, careful reviews, summaries of the leading French, German, and English periodicals so far as they relate to modern philology, an index to articles in philological journals, correspondence, personal items, etc. This paper has contributed its part to promote the scientific study of the modern languages, and forms a useful medium for all scholars and teachers of modern philology.

—We find in the *Deutsche Revue* for April a comment on some remarks of Prof. Wilhelm Dilthey on the material difficulties in the way of the student of literature of the "Genie-Periode," and the writer's plan for partially obviating them. His first difficulty arises from the fact that much valuable matter is in the hands of autograph collectors, whose treasures are often badly arranged, uncatalogued, and inaccessible even when the student knows the name and address of the owner of MSS., which frequently is not the case. And if, from the first, he renounces all hope of using such private property, and limits his field of work to the materials which, he may have heard, are to be found in the public libraries, this unadventurous path is not a smooth one. For the greater part the catalogues are not printed, and, aside from the necessity of going from place to place to find them, when found they are a torment to the mind; the MSS. being classified, not by periods or persons, but as folios, quartos, etc., according to the shape in which they are bound, or by their accidental position on the shelves. There is, therefore, no escaping the necessity of reading, from beginning to end, these various catalogues, the number of which is indefinite. Prof. Dilthey's plan is to have these scattered materials collected —by legislative action, we suppose—in Berlin, Weimar, and Stuttgart, and there stored and cared for after the manner of political archives. We are pleased to note that as preliminaries to this are mentioned not only careful searches throughout Germany, but also the preparation of indexes.

APPLETONS' AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY.

Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography. Edited by James Grant Wilson and John Fiske. In 6 vols. With Supplement and Analytical Index. D. Appleton & Co.

THE proportions of this work far exceed those of its immediate predecessors, viz., Allen's crude 'American Biographical Dictionary' (3 ed., 1857), Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography' (1872), and Hough's 'American Biographical Notes' (1875)—each in one volume. Drake's Dictionary has been acquired by purchase, with the author's additions and corrections, and has been selectively absorbed into this new Cyclopædia (which equally embraces living persons, or "Men of the Time"). Yet neither Allen nor Hough has been super-

seded for men of minor importance; and when we compare Appletons' with Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography,' which in seventeen volumes has not reached the letter F, though it excludes the living, we must allow that the ambition of our American editors to produce a work in the same class with Stephen has not been gratified. Nor would we confine this remark to bulk alone, for it is clear on the most cursory examination that no well-digested scheme has discriminated for or against the admission of subjects, or controlled the style of the original contributions to Appletons' Cyclopædia—no just sense of proportion has determined limits—as in the case of the admirable 'Dictionary of National Biography.'

The principle of selection is fundamental, and it is well known that Mr. Stephen prints in advance in the London *Athenæum* lists of the names set down for volumes in preparation, inviting additions along with private information. No such precaution was taken by Messrs. Wilson and Fiske, who in another way sought to be as comprehensive as possible by giving a very liberal extension to family history. It results that while the greater personages are fully represented, those of lesser note, whom it is difficult to learn about, are too often sought in vain, while more obscure and unimportant men and women are recognized. One natural criterion, in the case of the dead, would be their relation to American history. To take a single State: while the first, second, and third Lords Baltimore are mentioned, no account is given of the fourth (Benedict Leonard), fifth (Charles), or sixth (Frederick)—in contravention, by the way, of the family principle on which the editors have laid so much stress. Nor is there any mention of Henry Harford, the last Proprietary; of Horatio Sharpe, who played a most important part in the French and Indian wars and the troublous times of the Stamp Act; of Thomas Cresap; of Eli Dagworthy, commandant of Fort Cumberland, James Innes, George Talbot, the hero of a tragic romance, and others who are certainly both more deserving to be held in memory and more likely to be inquired after by the student than many to be found in this Cyclopædia. In another section of the country, take William Dyer, first Secretary of the Colony of Rhode Island, a man certainly not memorable on that account, but the husband of the Quaker, Mary Dyer, hanged on Boston Common; she at least being too famous and too heroic to be omitted in a Cyclopædia like this—as she is. The Rev. Obadiah Holmes, a Baptist victim of Puritan theocracy, likewise deserved notice both for his *cause célèbre* and for his posterity.

Coming to more recent times, we cannot excuse the neglect of Isaiah Rynders—"Capt." Rynders in the days of the Empire Club, of Astor Place and abolition riots, Southwestern gambler before that, and meantime a weigher in the Custom-house for services as a political bully, and later rewarded with a Federal marshalship in this port—a typical figure in the evolution of American politics and in the history of Tammany Hall. Tweed is admitted, though he was the vulgarest of thieves. The period of the anti-slavery struggle is full of names associated with events characteristic of the two civilizations in conflict. Samuel Hoar's expulsion from South Carolina as a Massachusetts commissioner was one of these, and Mr. Hoar is not forgotten; but his fellow-commissioner, Henry Hubbard, sent to Louisiana at the same time and also forced out, if less violently, is not to be found, though he was a prominent figure in Western Massachusetts and in State politics. Capt. Jonathan Walker of Cape Cod, branded "Slave-stealer" on his hand for running off slaves from Florida while yet a Federal Territory, is rightfully remembered in the Cyclopædia; but his case pales beside that of two other humane mariners, Drayton and Sayres, who tried the same thing in the District of Columbia in 1848, and gave rise to the most exciting debates in Congress. A name among abolitionists which (in a like case) could not have been overlooked by Mr. Leslie Stephen, is that of the late Samuel E. Sewall of Boston, whose moral and material support of the movement represented by the *Liberator* cannot be estimated, and can hardly be exaggerated; who was also a prominent member of the bar, a Liberty Party candidate for Governor, a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, and constantly and effectively engaged in the amelioration of statute law. It is safe to say that his long life was worth more to his country than that of any or all the Sewalls since his great ancestor Judge Samuel Sewall, but he is not here recorded if only to amplify the distinguished family to which he belonged. Together with the "martyr Lovejoy" and his brother Owen, one would have looked to see mentioned another brother, Joseph C., a clergyman who cut something of a figure in politics, and who was the biographer of his brother Elijah as well as of that other martyr to slavery, Charles T. Torrey. In the list of educators we miss Cyrus Peirce, head of the first Normal School in Massachusetts, whose memoir was written by the Rev. S. J. May, at one time head of the same school; in prison reform, the Rev. John M. Spear, though his brother Charles is commemorated; in medicine, the Wesselhoeft family of Massachusetts, associated with the early triumphs of homœopathy in this country; in journalism and Bohemian literature, Henry Clapp, who was also a hanger-on of several reforms. Finally, the capriciousness of choice among living contemporaries may be illustrated in the case of a given college faculty—say Cornell, where Profs. H. C. Adams, T. F. Crane, Jas. Morgan Hart, and Homer B. Sprague are left one side, though Profs. Adams and Hart are members of other college faculties and well-known authors and editors of scholarly works.

The admission of foreigners "closely identified with American history" was a more delicate matter; yet it is clear to our mind that if Father Mathew's claim was to be allowed, much more was Kossuth's, but he is ignored. Both visits were political events, but the latter of the greater magnitude. Garibaldi's residence on Staten Island and military service in South America entitled him to the notice which is accorded, say, to Joseph Bonaparte. Dickens is excluded, though his 'American Notes' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit' were no mean factors in fixing American reputation abroad, and were promotive of a vast amount of discussion on this side of the water; so is Thackeray. Mrs. Trollope comes in, by virtue, perhaps, of her two years' residence in Cincinnati. Harriet Martineau is justly given a place; so is George Thompson, whose relations to the United States outweighed in value all those named above. Robert Owen, Frances Wright, Tocqueville, Michel Chevalier, Fanny Ellsler, Macready, are other names that have been looked after. On the whole, the editing of this department seems to us free from reproach.

The Cyclopædia embraces both continents, and we have made a hasty comparison of it, for South America, with Macedo's 'Brazilian Biographical Annual' (Rio de Janeiro, 1876, 3 vols.), an absurdly arranged and ill-digested work, but, we believe, accurate as regards facts. Of course it includes a great many merely local notabilities, whom one would not expect to find in such a work as Appletons', but there are others whose records show that they were men of as great or greater note than some whose names do appear in the Cyclopædia, but who have not found places. Thus, among prominent Brazilian statesmen we do not find in Appletons' any mention of P. de A. Bellegarde (1807–64), J. da C. Carvalho (1796–1860), J. F. Coelho (1806–60), M. J. Nogueira da Gama (1765–1847), J. J. da Rocha (1777–1848), a leader in the revolution of 1822 and afterwards Minister at Paris and Rome, P. J. Soares de Souza (1807–66). Among Brazilian authors we miss A. C. T. Bastos, Costa Pereira, J. Caetano da Silva, who was also director of the National Archives; A. J. da Silva, C. M. da Costa, and others who have written works of importance, as also many prominent generals, physicians, etc. All these seem to be fully as much entitled to a place in Appletons' as the following: F. de M. Franco, M. Saraiva, Licorda y Almeida, A. de S. Coutinho, J. C. Pereira, etc. When the names are given in Appleton they are, so far as our examination goes, given very correctly, and the dates are also generally correct, though we have noted a few discrepancies between Macedo and the Cyclopædia.

In the partition of labor, the chief editors acknowledge twenty notices each from their own pens, besides others not indicated, the number naturally diminishing as the work advanced. In assigning tasks to others, they have pursued the easy method of applying to writers who have already published full biographies of the persons in question. Thus, Monroe has gone to D. C. Gilman, Hamilton to H. C. Lodge, Jefferson to James Parton, Barlow to C. B. Todd, Henry Clay to Carl Schurz, Buchanan to George Ticknor Curtis, Lincoln to John Hay, Archbishop Hughes to J. R. G. Hassard, Com. M. C. Perry to W. E. Griffis, Theodore Parker and George Ripley to O. B. Frothingham, Garrison to Oliver Johnson; Frontenac, La Salle, and Montcalm to Francis Parkman; Sir Harry Vane to J. K. Hosmer, etc. We call this an easy method for the editors for obvious reasons, but it does not necessarily follow that the bookmaker is well qualified to condense his own labors; and what is almost certain is, that he will simply reproduce the favorable bias which is the motive of ninety-nine biographers out of a hundred. As a consequence, the larger and most important notices will be apologies—partisan and not critical, nor (best of all) simple statements of the essential facts, of which we have so many models in the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' Another class of attributions is easy and natural—sometimes inevitable—namely, to the kinsmen of the subjects of these sketches. Some may have published works, as Dr. Morgan Dix the life of his father, Gen. John A. Dix, or William Preston Johnston of his father, Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston; some may have them in preparation, as Luther R. Marsh of his father-in-law, Alvan Stewart. Some may vindicate an ancestor, as James Freeman Clarke Gen. Hull. Noticeably good is Jefferson Davis's account of his father-in-law, Zachary Taylor. In all these cases bias is to be understood, and the reader must guard against it as he is able. Finally, we have examples of combined hero-worship and intimate knowledge, as in T. W. Higginson's sketch of John Brown; or of pure friendship, as in Phillips Brooks's notice of Henry H. Richardson. Criticism, tempered by consideration for the living, is illustrated in Lowell's estimate of Whittier.

Many of the notices might with advantage have been subjected to stricter revision at the hands of the editors, and many trivial or irrelevant details might have been omitted. The

names are in most cases given with commendable fulness, and, so far as our examination goes, very correctly. In the arrangement of them, however, a serious mistake has been made, and one which detracts much from the usefulness of the Cyclopædia as a book of reference. Instead of following the alphabetical order of given names in arranging persons of the same surname, and allotting a separate notice to each, the editors have proposed to themselves to include all the members of one family in a single notice under the name of the oldest member of the family. Thus, under Chad Brown, the founder of the Brown family of Providence, are grouped the names of his descendants John Carter Brown and Nicholas Brown. Now, who that wished to find out something about John Carter Brown would think of looking under Chad Brown? Or who, looking for Gerrit Smith, would turn to his father's name, Peter Smith? The ordinary reader would look for Smith, Gerrit, in its proper alphabetical position, and, not finding the name, would at once jump to the conclusion that no notice of him was given. Unless the reader knows that the great-grandfather of Horace W. Smith was William Smith, he will look in vain for H. W. Smith. To be sure, the disadvantages of this method of arrangement are most serious in the case of the Smiths, but they are very evident in many of the commoner surnames, as Brown, Johnson, Porter, Robinson, etc.; and one is constantly liable to make the mistake of concluding that the person sought after is not included. There is a special cause for this in the fact that a man who has achieved moderate distinction is naturally desirous to lay as much stress as possible on his pedigree, and to honor his father by securing a place for him also. The trail thus proceeds from the quite obscure to the well known. As an attempt to combine the features of a genealogical record with the dictionary arrangement the scheme is a failure, and a great source of inconvenience to those who use the work. For the few more important family connections a separate entry, devoted wholly to showing relationships, would have been the most practical device. Moreover, the rule adopted is arbitrarily violated. Thus, while the Providence Browns are arranged as in a genealogical record, the Delaware Bayards are arranged properly, in the alphabetical order of given names, without regard to their relationship to each other, each one having a separate notice. With the Presidential Adamses a mixed practice is observed. To remedy this confusion one might reasonably expect an index, and in fact the last volume does contain one, but, most unaccountably, it expressly excludes names which occur as *subheadings*—the very ones for which it was needed.

Our excuse for indulging in these criticisms is the hope that they will be taken to heart by some future editor of a similar work. We have noted a certain number of errors, and several dates which we believe to be faulty; but such shortcomings were inevitable, and we pass them over. The publishers have, after all deficiencies are insisted on, rendered a very useful service by undertaking this Dictionary, even if it cannot be considered a great or scholarly work. In one particular they have given it a distinction which is perhaps unique, on so extensive a scale. Following the example of De Gubernatis in his Biographical Dictionary, they have illustrated the articles with a capital series of pen drawings from authentic portraits, and all by one hand, that of Mr. Jacques Reich, whose facility for preserving the likeness in miniature is certainly remarkable. Some faces, like Channing's for instance, have baffled him, but in general the portraits are recognizable and just. If there is any American iconographic storehouse to compare with this, we do not know of it. These small, inch-square heads compare favorably, on the average, with the steel plates which are reserved for the Presidents and other notables.

MORE NOVELS.

The Despot of Broomsedge Cove. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Daughter of Eve.—Better Times. By the author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Lastchance Junction. By the author of 'Cape Cod Folks.' Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

A Latin-Quarter Courtship. By Sidney Luska. Cassell & Co.

A Shocking Example, and Other Stories. By Francis Courtenay Baylor. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

A Quaker Girl of Nantucket. By Mary Catharine Lee. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

French Janet. By Sarah Tytler. Harper & Bros.

A Dangerous Catspaw. By D. Christie Murray and Henry Murray. Longmans, Green & Co.

A Fair Emigrant. By Rosa Mulholland. D. Appleton & Co.

For Faith and Freedom. By Walter Besant. Harper & Bros.

The Aspern Papers. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

THE history of literary life abounds in harrowing details of toil and hardship endured while writing up to a reputation. The diligence displayed by authors who have won reputation, in writing it away, is a modern phase, and has not received that attention which its frequent manifestation deserves. Suicide of reputation is the commonest crime of contemporary writers, committed alike by those who have reached in triumph the summit of Parnassus, and those who have been content to range themselves on the foot-hills. A few years ago the land rang with praise of Charles Egbert Craddock, the story-teller of the Tennessee mountains. Hers was the glory of the discoverer, and hers, too, the indisputable possession of the literary qualities perfectly adapted to making the most of her discovery. She unrolled as a scroll the hitherto unspoken mystery and majesty of her mountain fastnesses. Without sentimentalizing or romantically misrepresenting the mountaineers, she invested their meagre life and primitive character with a certain poetic dignity unconsciously borrowed from their natural surroundings. In a word, she seized and interpreted physical features, natural phenomena, and aspects of human life with a precision, vigor, and dramatic passion which rightfully entitled her to a wide consideration, closely resembling fame. Standing thus easily first among the writers of purely American modern fiction, unless she could sustain her position she should have rested on her laurels. But more zealously than any other she has applied herself to writing away her reputation. The first volume of sketches contained almost all that is good in her subsequent novels and tales, and much, very much, that is far better.

Candid criticism of her last novel, 'The Despot of Broomsedge Cove,' can be little more than a threnody, a weeping for Lycidas. Human history supplies a few themes apparently inexhaustible for the literary purposes even of writers as purely objective as is Miss Murfree. They are isolated actions, or a sequence of deeds so superlatively beautiful or heroic that their power to charm never diminishes, and each writer who describes them may make them as good as new. It ought to be unnecessary to point out that a life so circumscribed physically, intellectually, and spiritually as that of the Tennessee mountaineer, does not furnish such an enduring theme, and that the amplification and repetition of its limited possibilities is a waste of effort, sure to weaken the force of a first impression. Miss Murfree's last book is a tiresome sequence of repetitions and reproductions. Her lack of the constructive sense is painfully conspicuous in so long a novel. Every chapter or two she loses her grip of narrative. Probably feeling herself at sea, she grasps any sort of a float, and when she reaches firm land again, it is with an air of denying that she has ever been adrift, of warning people not to suppose that she hasn't known where she was all the time. Unfortunately, the reader cannot be so readily imposed on, as if her floats were subjectivities which are inestimable for bridging chasms and concealing a halting action. She cannot waft the despot, Teck Jepson, along from one arrogant deed to another by speculating about what he might have done if he had been born somebody else, or by disquisitions on the immutable laws of his being. She grasps for relief incidents and characters removed from his sovereignty, and, through them, returns at distantly recurring intervals to touch indistinctly the keynote of her theme.

Her inability to sustain character is as fatal to novel-writing as her failure in construction. When Jepson is introduced, the reader feels a character arrogant, positive, narrow, and prejudiced. He understands that Jepson's imagination is aflame with the glories of Solomon, the trials of Moses, the atrocities of Jezebel and Ahab, as luridly depicted by the circuit preacher. He knows that Jepson believes himself to be about the finest fellow on the mountains, and anticipates the satisfaction of seeing him ride for a fall, or at least of beholding him purged by fire. But Miss Murfree snubs her reader's forecast and discredits his intuitions. Jepson's connection with the tragedy of the tale is accidental; it does not affect or develop his character; he is discarded for other interests, and what suspense there is hangs on Marcelly Strobe's affection for her father. Marcelly is a snappish but attractive maiden; her filial devotion is insistent, yet when we set out to read about a despot, we are not pleased to be put off with anxiety about the temporal welfare of a half-cracked constable.

The minor incidents and separate interests of the novel are very numerous, and irrelevant to its presumed original design. Though plainly makeshifts, they are still not such palpable padding as are the descriptions of natural scenery and of the varying behavior of the elements. The mountains, the mists, and, with less natural justification, the moon, are always there, in Tennessee, and Miss Murfree uses them "for all they are worth." Language is both impoverished and enriched in their description, and wherever the sound is most impressive, there is wisdom in suppressing curiosity about the sense. As the cantatrice steps gayly to the front, setting the echoes flying with roulade or bravura, while the tenor lies gasping by the wings with a dastard's dagger in his breast, so Miss Murfree leaves Teck and Marcelly in most critical agitation, to discourse on the "incomparable glister of the sweeps," the "gorgeous, albeit noiseless splendor of

sunset-tides" (where or when was the sunset ever *noisy*?), the "mellow" moon, the "lucent, yellow" moon, every kind of moon that ever was and that never was beyond the peaks and ranges and lateral spurs of the Tennessee mountains. Just when feeling is tensest, she dwells on the vocal exercise of frog and katydid, and lingers to note the song of the cicada, "charged with somnolently melodious post-meridian sentiment," the hay "tending here and there to the nullity of invisibility," and a cloud with "tenuous trailing cirrus effects on its verge." Miss Murfree has always overdrawn scenic effects, and has now reached a stage of abandon to spectacle beside which even Mr. Black's ecstasies over the Western Isles are cold and prosaic. Her attachment to long and unusual words has deepened, and her peculiar use of the word "null" in itself furnishes matter for an essay. It is an ungrateful task to criticise Miss Murfree with a minuteness which appears captious. The best excuse is that unconsidered trifles have as much to do with the making of a good book as with the making of human happiness. The mountains and the moon, "survigorous" and "stiddier' and "catawampus," may have lost their charm, but it is hardly possible that Miss Murfree's power to make us laugh or cry is exhausted.

Without insinuation of comparison between the character or quality of Miss Murfree's work and that of the author of 'A Daughter of Eve,' it may be said that he is one of her rivals in the industry of writing away a reputation. His specialty is the Mammon worshippers of New York, and his last effort a dull réchauffé of former clever treatises on his pregnant theme. The Barrymores preying upon Mr. Litchfield, a rich relation by marriage, are not wily or ingenious enough to amuse, nor are they wicked or base enough to excite keen contempt. Perez Galdós, in 'Leon Roch,' describes an exactly similar situation, but how different the method and the effect upon the reader! Every attack made upon Leon Roch's purse by his wife's relations is superficially a bit of brilliant comedy, while the utter worthlessness of the birds of prey is so unmistakably insinuated that the reader is wrought up to detestation of the whole shameless flock. Nerve and intensity must be thrown into the delineation of social parasites and leeches if the performance is to be anything but futile. Limp representation palliates their depravity and venom. The Barrymores are shabby and sordid, but neither funny nor abominable. The hero, Mr. Merion, is the most amusing of the characters, and suggests 'A Son of Adam' as an appropriate alternative title. Never a woman tempted him but he fell. He loves simultaneously all the available women, three in number, and is of them beloved. Running from charmer to charmer, patting this one on the head, folding that one to his breast, he is finally trapped by a simple village maiden, Dorothy, after a passionate controversy about which shall kneel at the other's feet.

The volume of short stories by the same author included under the title, 'Better Times,' were written, he says, in his younger days, "in the better times when stories made themselves out of instinct and sympathy, not from experience and observation." Undoubtedly they belong to the first hours of the modern realistic movement in fiction, when actual life was permitted to furnish materials for the story from beginning to end—excepting one chapter or page: the conclusion was beyond the author's control; it was fixed by the law of custom and as yet unalterable. In defiance of logic, probability, or possibility, the right man must marry the right maid; poverty and sorrow could be but temporary inflictions on the virtuous to test their mettle, and the monstrous career of the vicious must terminate ingloriously. People in those days could probably look facts in the face as boldly as now; they knew how crooked the course of life persistently runs, and how ill-regulated are its finalities, but they had still some faith in the Balm in Gilead, and were resolved that it should receive honorable notice in their fiction. On the whole, they were better times, for both the average story-teller and reader. The former had only to make a beginning and get to the prescribed end by any road he might devise; the latter, no matter how he cavilled or yawned by the way, knew that at the last station perfect satisfaction would permeate his being. Sentimental, romantic, illogical, these optimistic stories of better times may be, yet they are to-day pleasanter reading and more edifying than are the shifts of the necessitous Barrymores and the amorous perplexities of Mr. Merion—a fabric constructed, we are free to suppose, from the author's experience and observation.

The reputation of the author of 'Cape Cod Folks' as a writer of realistic fiction was established, it will be remembered, by a suit for libel brought against her publishers by an actual native of the Cape. He believed that in this sprightly narrative he had been injuriously lampooned. No such terror menaces the publishers of 'Lastchance Junction.' No man could endure existence when self-esteem had sunk so low that he imagined himself a model for any character in this wild and terrible tale. The exact geographical position of Lastchance Junction is cautiously hidden in phrases. It is "thousands of miles from here" (*here* being a clearing at the base of a range of the Rockies); it is the "grandest place God ever made"; it is the "furthest territory that only we, a few people who belong together, know about." The select few knew each other familiarly as "The Busted," and there was a cataract at Lastchance tumbling hundreds of feet and singing as it fell—"Welcome! welcome! ye Busted ones." The Busted were intimately bound to each other, and, though imperatively "wanted" in other quarters, were fully aware that the welcome accorded them by a fastidious civilization would not shape itself tangibly in gold rings and fatted calves. They agreed together like birds in their little nests, and the eye of distrust rested on only one of their number, who had apparently become "a busted one" by ways so unspeakably bad that they are only darkly hinted at. This *suspect*, Gordon Ferris, was a beautiful youth and the pride of Colonel Bloomer's open-air circus. By his great skill with the lariat and in riding a raging, bellowing bull, he captured the heart of Miss Lucy Dorne, who, with her highly cultured family, was casually looking on at the ring near the base of the Rockies. Of the lady's antecedent history we are informed that "she had seen many people mangled and torn the world over for her entertainment"; therefore we are not surprised when she abandoned the inanities of wealth and station for so accomplished a mangler and tearer as Mr. Ferris. We forbear to dwell upon the experiences of the "pride of the Dornes" become Mrs. Ferris; they are awful as a nightmare of a ghoul after a midnight banquet, and beyond the pale of human judgment.

The stories collected under the title, 'A Latin-Quarter Courtship,' properly belong, with one exception, to that column of a village paper sacred to the imaginative effusions of local genius. No rustic maiden would blush to own them, and her relations would feel repaid for the expense of her summer at Chautauqua by the printed evidence of her fluency in the French tongue. Not that the stories are written entirely in French; but that precise and polite language is resorted to when it is necessary to express such an involved idea as that a certain room is on the fifth floor to the left, or that a maid believes her mistress to be ill. The courtship is indebted for its Latin-Quarter flavor principally to the dazzling proficiency in a strange tongue of the people interested directly or indirectly, though something is also due to a guide-book intimacy with the streets and suburbs of Paris. It is to be supposed that the lover, Ormizon, wrote his successful novel in French, because his English is so very queer, and one cannot believe that a gentleman who reflected coldly, such and such a thing "cannot do no possible harm," had reached perfection in English literary style. The redeeming feature of the volume is "Mr. Sonnenschein's Inheritance," a Hebrew character sketch. Mr. Sonnenschein is a Schlemiel, and a Schlemiel is a creature who can never have good luck, but is cheerfully resigned to bad. The sketch is vivacious and amusing, and, granting the character, there is nothing improbable in the Schlemiel's management of his inheritance.

Several of the ill-assorted sketches gathered under the title 'A Shocking Example' may have made their first appearance in one of those Ladies' Journals the continued existence of which shows that female intelligence is still largely unimpaired by the insidious attacks of the "higher education." "Robert's Wife" is a fine specimen of Ladies' Journal twaddle, and "An Incident of English Railroad Travel" lags not far behind. "The Cold Punch Act" has some force and real life, but is destroyed by the vulgar extravagance of the catastrophe. "Craddock's Heldest" is a pathetic sketch of the precociously mature child of a London char-woman, slightly overdrawn. The essay on "Table Talk" is strained, and the reader is invited to accept conclusions for which, to say the least, the author's original propositions have not prepared him. And what is the excuse which a sensible writer in the English language offers to herself for exclaiming, at the end of a respectable essay, "Causons-nous donc mes frères; ainsi soit-il!"? Even Luska's brilliancy in French pales before Miss Baylor's, and when both French and English are inadequate for her needs, Spanish answers promptly on call. For the purpose of writing well in English, it occurs to us that the time necessarily expended in acquiring about enough French and Spanish "to last over night" might have been better employed in the study of the great English writers whose names Miss Baylor rattles off so glibly. An hour or so devoted to Coleridge might, at all events, have saved her from presenting in quotation (page 65) an extraordinary version of the famous farewell to that "good man," Sir Arthur O'Kellyn, which properly runs thus:

> "The Knight's bones are dust,
> And his good sword rust.—
> His soul is with the saints, I trust."

The sketch of the priest, Miguel Hidalgo, who died for liberty in Mexico in 1811, is sympathetic and strong. For the author's sake it is a pity that so good a bit of work should be bound up with what is trivial and unworthy of fine companionship.

'A Quaker Girl of Nantucket' is a distracting jumble of the old and the new, the modern realistic method and the by-gone artificial, romantic conventions. The aunts, Hepsy and Dorcas, and Obed Swaine belong among the living whose earthly abode is on Nantucket Island, and no people could

more strongly object to being dragged into such a mesh of ridiculously improbable circumstances as those here set forth with much prolixity. Some episodes recur in fiction with the unfailing regularity of the new moon in the sky, but it is long since they deceived us about their brand-newness, lacking, perhaps, the serene effrontery of the clever moon. Past hope of furbishing into semblance of newness is that confusion of identity arising from a wreck at sea and the rescue of two tender babes of parentage unknown. The author here does honor to the antiquity of the complication by omitting none of the well-known details. By a series of inconsequent events, wrong is at last made right, but for the reader dark is never made light. To the end, whys and wherefores remain unexplained and inexplicable.

In 'French Janet' the mystery surrounding motive and reason is similarly deep, and the writer has not the excuse of inexperience for working without design. The first part, describing the Scotch family of Windygates and the visit to Paris of the young Windygates, where he was to "acquire the last French polish" and not to be introduced to French vices, is very smooth and agreeable narrative. Through the intercourse of the Scotch boy with the De Châlons family, a vivid impression is given of the high distinction, with its taint of corruption, which characterized the great French nobles in their last hour of power. So far the author is on sure ground; but when she converts, apparently capriciously, what promised to be a fine tale of worldly intrigue and passion into a ghost story, she flounders about in the most helpless manner. A ghost story rationally explained is always disappointing, but a ghost story for which what may be called a working hypothesis cannot be constructed is insulting. French Janet's ghost does things of which no one could ever believe a ghost capable, and disregards all proper ghostly functions. She is a miserable travesty of a ghost, and greatly discredits the wit and wickedness which inspired her natural body.

There is a moral motive in 'A Dangerous Catspaw' that is not nearly so clear and unimpeachable as the narrative. Mr. Murray desires to tell us that, sin being a matter of temptation, any one may fall, and therefore no one should pride himself on his virtue, nor judge his brother harshly. To maintain this position great care should be taken in the selection of the sin and the sinner. Mr. Murray's combination is weak. Mr. Wyncott Esden, a gentleman by birth and breeding, an astute lawyer, and a man of comparatively blameless life, steals jewels valued at thirty thousand pounds, because he is in temporary need of money and has a "jimmy" in his pocket, a token of gratitude from a desperate criminal acquitted by his forensic eloquence. Decidedly the temptation does not excuse the crime. It may be that, after his confession and suffering, Esden might sooner be trusted than "many men who have led fairly blameless lives," yet it is exceedingly doubtful whether meeting an enemy on a dark and lonely road, and having in his pocket a pistol or knife or other suggestive weapon, he would permit that enemy to pass by in safety. Letting the moral alone, the story is good of its kind, told directly and naturally, with no waste of words.

Easy and unaffected expression is the quality that makes English novels of the poorer sort more acceptable than American to people with any appreciation of literary style. 'A Fair Emigrant' is an example of the wretchedest kind of English fiction, though the central situation is novel. The fair emigrant does not land at Castle Garden friendless and homeless, her fortune in her face. The American daughter of an Irish father, she reëmigrates to unhappy Erin, her fortune in letters of credit representing bundles of bonds. Her double mission is to establish her father's innocence of the imputed crime of murder and to introduce into Ireland American energy and improved agricultural implements. The train of events is romantic and more or less foolish, but they are smoothly run together, and it is possible to follow them without being irritated by jarring machinery and exasperated by badly made sentences and strained, meaningless phrases.

A flowing, apparently effortless style is the abiding merit of Mr. Besant's novels, and though he has told so many stories, he never repeats himself. When the life of to-day offers no attractive subject, he cheerfully falls back on yesterday. In 'For Faith and Freedom' he selects an exciting and dramatic yesterday hitherto overlooked by novelists. The landing of the Duke of Monmouth at Lyme with intention to rescue Protestant England from the rule of his uncle, James II., and the vengeance wreaked on the West by the cruel and gloomy Stuart after his victory at Sedgemoor, furnish historical foundation for a fiction full of movement and human warmth and color. The incidents may have been suggested by a passage in Green; at all events, they are summarized by him when he says:

"The Chief Justice, Jeffreys, was sent to earn the 'Seals' by a series of judicial murders which have left his name a byword for cruelty. Three hundred and fifty rebels were hanged in what has ever since been known as the 'Bloody Circuit,' while Jeffreys made his way through Dorset and Somerset. More than eight hundred were sold into slavery beyond sea; a yet larger number whipped and imprisoned. The Queen, the maids of honor, the courtiers, even the Judge himself, made shameless profit from the sale of pardons."

Cold and matter-of-fact as the historian's statement is, it moves an emotion of indignant horror which is intensified by the novelist's art that vivifies the general and the remote, epitomizes widespread suffering, and individualizes the wrongs endured by a multitude.

The hearty humanity and physical vigor of Mr. Besant's work are in striking contrast to the intellectual subtlety and supersensitiveness of Mr. James's, yet the authors meet on the common ground of all first-rate craftsmen. They never shirk or botch; they never discredit themselves or their trade. The motive of each of the three stories included by Mr. James under the title 'The Aspern Papers' is so light as to be whimsical. Robust people, doubtful of the depth of emotion which doesn't shriek, incredulous of intellectual tragedy, unsusceptible to comedy not grinning or roaring, can hardly find them worthy even of august disapproval. A man who cannot find life worth living unless he shall get possession of certain papers relative to the life of a poet long dead is, to such, a fool; a woman, moved by sentiment reminiscent of her youth to tell damaging truths about her own daughter, is a monster; another woman who kills herself from fear of her brother's criticism of her husband's book, is an impossible creation of a morbid brain. Judgment rests on the facts in the case, and an author tried by such a damaging array of facts must expect to be pronounced a lunatic by a commission of his whole possible public. But the facts of incident or event are really of the slightest importance for passing judgment on Mr. James's work. He stands or falls by the truth, the refined accurate truth, of his interpretation of the thought, motive, impulse, caprice of the people whom he confronts with any problem of existence, temporary or permanent. In these stories his interpretation is admirable, cold, polished, making no concessions to popular conceptions of what is nice and proper, or even probable according to sentimental or provincial notions. The stories have the worldly touch just as surely and unaffectedly as Mr. Besant's novels have the broadly human touch; and though they appeal only to a restricted class, they will gratify and satisfy that class exceedingly.

Lives of the Fathers: Sketches of Church History in Biography by Frederic W. Farrar, D.D., F.R.S. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

No English writer on Church history in our day is sure of a wider audience than Archdeacon Farrar. His previous works, especially his 'Life and Works of St. Paul,' have given him a strong hold upon that great body of readers who desire a large and eloquent presentation with as little as may be of the machinery of scholarship.

The present volumes on the 'Lives of the Fathers' will go far to strengthen this reputation. They are the work of a man who has read what the fathers wrote, and who is familiar with much of the recent literature about them, but who contrives to present the result of wide study in a popular and taking form. Profound they are not and are not meant to be. They touch upon questions of the higher criticism only where it is necessary for the sake of clearness. Beginning with a brief sketch of the literature known as the writings of the "Apostolic Fathers" and of its semi-mythical authors, Dr. Farrar takes up in succession the lives of the most noted Christian writers from Ignatius to Chrysostom. These sketches taken together form thus an almost complete Church history of the first four centuries. If ever the biographical method may properly be used to convey historical information, it is surely in connection with the early Church, for there the history of the institution is hardly more than that of the leaders who were helping to make it. Nor is the biographical method here pushed to the extreme; but the man is, in each case, taken as representing some phase of the general life of Christendom. This plan saves the author from many of the dangers of the biographer, but he does not escape them all. He is, after all, dealing with a series of heroes, and he defends them sometimes with the true apologetic zeal. For instance, he goes no further, in speaking of Justin Martyr, than to say that he was "not a very powerful reasoner," where one familiar with some of Justin's vagaries, as, for instance, his explanation of the symbolism of the cross, can hardly do otherwise than think of him as pretty nearly deprived of reason altogether.

On the other hand, we see, together with great admiration for orthodoxy, the greatest fairness in the treatment of heresy, as, for instance, in the case of the Montanists, where Dr. Farrar shows very beautifully the essential truth retained by this most bitterly persecuted sect long after it seemed to be forgotten by the dominant orthodox party.

In the proportion of space allowed to the different writers, Augustine and Jerome are, naturally, perhaps, the most favored. Their voluminous writings and their great personal influence make them central figures during most important crises of the Church's life. We are surprised, however, to find the great Alexandrians, Clement and Origen, dismissed with a few pages. One would hardly get an impression here of what we believe to be the truth, that these two writers did more to maintain and transmit a lofty spiritual conception of

the foundation dogmas of Christianity than any others. They have been obscured, it is true, by later dogmatism. Sacerdotalism and ecclesiasticism in all its forms have done their best to put doctrines of secondary importance into a foremost place; but the Christian world is at last waking up to the essential loftiness and purity of the early Greek theology, and the incrustations of the Latin school are being removed. Dr. Farrar takes sufficient pains to defend Origen from the charges of heresy, but compresses into a very brief space the account of his influence, and hardly suggests the comparison with the Latin theology to which we have alluded.

Excellent chronological tables and a good index complete this most useful contribution to the popular study of early Church history.

The Telephone. By Wm. Henry Preece, F.R.S., and Julius Meier, Ph.D. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand. 1889.

THE work before us constitutes a valuable contribution to applied science. The authors have gathered together, and arranged in clear and convenient sequence, the main facts in the history of the development of the telephone and almost all the forms of apparatus which are likely to retain a permanent interest. They have wisely kept aloof from questions of priority, and have given what is fairly to be considered an impartial history of one of the most beautiful of human inventions. The first recorded plan for the transmission of speech to a distance by means of electricity is due to a Frenchman, Charles Bourseul, who in 1854 published a paper upon the subject, in which the theory of such transmission is given with perfect clearness and correctness. Bourseul appears to have made experiments which promised ultimate success. It is certain that he actually achieved nothing which deserves to be remembered, but it is something to have foreseen the possibility of such results as we now have. Next, in 1868, came Philip Reis, who went so far as to construct a telephonic transmitter and receiver which—whether intended to transmit speech or not—actually did transmit distinctly audible words and even sentences. His place in the history of the telephone is that of Jouffroy in the history of the application of steam to navigation, of Walter Hunt in the invention of the sewing-machine, and of scores of others who thought out problems in applied science, devised means for carrying their ideas into execution, and in the end left nothing but a record of intellectual success and practical failure. The story of Bell's invention is simply and clearly told. Those who wish for more elaborate and minute details of the history and of the claims of others to a greater or less share of credit in the invention, may be referred to the voluminous reports of the various legal struggles in our own country, which in this case, as in the case of the electric telegraph, with an incredible amount of chaff, contain many grains of real value and interest not to be found elsewhere.

Every electric telephone consists essentially of a transmitter and a receiver. Our authors treat these first in order, and we have clear descriptions and excellent woodcuts of a large number of very interesting and suggestive forms of apparatus. Among them we regret not to see noticed the extremely ingenious devices of our countryman, Dolbear. All things considered, Bell's receiver is still practically the best; his transmitter was long since replaced by better forms. The different kinds of carbon transmitter, depending upon a fundamental principle due to Du Moncel, are described with much detail. We have sufficiently full accounts of various abnormal forms of telephone, of which perhaps the most remarkable is the photophone of Bell and Tainter.

It will readily be understood that the practice of telephony has now become a highly organized system, with a multitude of details, major and minor, each one of which has been worked out with great patience and ingenuity. Inventors of all civilized nations have devoted their attention to overcoming difficulties and improving apparatus. We have ample details of these contrivances, and the American, English, French, German, and Swiss systems are spread before us for study. Messrs. Preece and Meier have executed their very laborious task with conscientious care, and have produced a model work. We hope to see the subject of telegraphy treated with equal ability.

The Laws of the State of New York relating to Building Associations. By Willis S. Paine, LL.D. L. K. Strouse & Co.

THE rapid increase in the number of building and loan associations in this State makes such a work as has been prepared by the Superintendent of the State Banking Department timely and valuable. It contains an introduction which discusses this form of coöperation, and points out possible dangers of management, giving the text of the report made on the subject in 1856 by a committee of the Assembly, who found the associations then existing in so perilous a condition that they recommended a repeal of the law governing their organization; a chapter on the "Character of Coöperative Building and Loan Associations," the text of the acts of 1851 and of 1887, and notes on each section of these acts, explaining their requirements and pointing out where these associations are amenable to the general corporation acts of the State.

The author's introduction will go far to remove the impression that he is unfriendly to the building and loan association system, as was inferred from his remarks on the subject in his annual report of this year as Bank Superintendent. He says that such associations "become the foes of communism, creating habits of accumulation and assuring the privacy of homes," and that they "become indirectly valuable moral agencies as a partial solution of the tenement-house problem"; pointing out at the same time that "they may, if loosely managed, prove a serious injury to the frugal and industrious wage-earners who invest in them." But that he has not mastered the subject is evident from his remark that "terminating [as contrasted with serial] associations are more popular and common in the United States, and the other classes are comparatively rare." This is a misstatement, and the inference to be drawn, that the terminating system is the better one, is misleading. The serial plan possesses so many advantages that only a lack of knowledge of the subject would lead any body of coöperative economizers to organize under the terminating system.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, E. The Authorship of the Fourth Gospel, and Other Critical Essays. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Adams, Prof. C. K. A Manual of Historical Literature. 3d ed. revised and enlarged. Harper & Bros.
An Author's Love: Being the Unpublished Letters of Prosper Mérimée's 'Inconnue.' Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
A Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Barns, C. E. A Venetian Study in Black and White. Willard Fracker & Co.
Barr, Amelia E. Between Two Loves. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Benjamin, M. May-Time: A Collection of Poems, Exhibition Pieces, and Games. DeWitt Publishing House. 10 cents.
Blennerhassett, Lady. Madame de Staël: Her Friends, and Her Influence in Politics and Literature. 3 vols. With Portrait. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Bourrienne, L. de. Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte. 4 vols. Full Index. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $5.
Boylston, P. John Charáxes: A Tale of the Civil War in America. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Campbell, Rev. W. The Gospel of St. Matthew in Formosan (Sinkang Dialect), with Corresponding Versions in Dutch and English. Edited from Gravius's Edition of 1661. London: Trübner & Co.
Chapin, Prof. J. H. From Japan to Granada: Sketches of Observation and Inquiry. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Cobb, S., Jr. Ivan the Serf. J. S. Ogilvie.
Cobbe, Frances Power. The Scientific Spirit of the Age, and Other Pleas and Discussions. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Sixth Series. Vol. III. Winthrop Papers. Part V. Boston: The Society.
Connolly, J. H. A Storm Ashore. Belford, Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Crawford, T. C. The American Vendetta: A Story of Barbarism in the United States. Belford, Clarke & Co.
De Salis, Mrs. Puddings and Pastry à la Mode. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth ed. Index. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Frith, W. P. My Autobiography and Reminiscences. Vol. II. Harper & Bros.
Froude, J. A. The Two Chiefs of Dunboy: An Irish Romance of the Last Century. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Fullerton, Prof. G. S. A Plain Argument for God. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Gardiner, S. R. History of the Great Civil War, 1642–1649. Vol. II. 1644–1647. Longmans, Green & Co. $8.
Harland, H. Grandison Mather; or, An Account of the Fortunes of Mr. and Mrs. Thomas Gardiner. Cassell & Co.
Harper, Olive. A Fair Californian. Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Short Comedies for Amateur Players. DeWitt Publishing House. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The Mouse-Trap, and Other Farces. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Hutson, Prof. C. W. A History of French Literature. The Aldine Co.
Jacobi, Dr. Mary Putnam. Physiological Notes on Primary Education and the Study of Language. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
James, Dr. B. W. American Resorts: with Notes upon their Climate. For Invalids. F. A. Davis.
Johnson—Buel. Battles and Leaders of the Civil War. Vol. IV. The Century Co.
Kedney, Prof. J. S. Christian Doctrine Harmonized and its Rationality Vindicated. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Kinkead, A. The Queen of the Block. Belford, Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
McCarthy—Campbell—Praed. The Ladies' Gallery: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents. Also, Rand, McNally & Co.
Meriwether, L. The Tramp at Home. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Nichol, Prof. J. Francis Bacon: His Life and Philosophy. Part II. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Roe, E. P. The Home Acre. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 2, 1889.

The Week.

LAST year we heard announced the theory of the Republican party as to the way the public service should be administered; this year we see exemplified the practice of the party. It is interesting to contrast promise and performance:

The spirit and purpose of the reform should be observed in all Executive appointments; and all laws at variance with the object of existing reform legislation should be repealed, to the end that *the dangers to free institutions which lurk in the power of official patronage* may be wisely and effectually avoided.—*Republican National Platform of 1888.*

In appointments to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. *Only the interest of the public service should suggest removals from office.—President Harrison's Letter of Acceptance.*

POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT RAILWAY MAIL SERVICE, WASHINGTON,
April 13, 1889.

Mr. J. T. Loving, Richmond, Va.:

SIR: Superintendent Vickery has referred to this office your letter of the 11th inst., asking the reasons for your retirement from the service, and in reply would state that *the action was taken in consequence of no fault on your part, or for reasons affecting in any way your character or standing as a citizen.*

The reasons for your retirement were of a political nature.

Very respectfully,
J. L. BELL,
General Superintendent.

The *Watchman*, the Boston organ of the Baptists, asks for a suspension of judgment towards President Harrison, on the ground that he has been only two months in office, that the pressure of office-seekers has been very great, and that his "honesty" and "his equipment generally to meet the demands of his high office" are undoubted. It therefore calls on us to yield him the "awards enjoined in the New Testament," even if he does "err, now and then, in judgment and in resulting action." A plea for delay is always allowable, but it should, to be really effective, be accompanied with some distinct definition of the period of probation to which a man like President Harrison is entitled. How long must we wait before criticising him or making up our minds about him? Three months? Six? A year? We ought to be told. Moreover, criticism of this sort has the fatal defect of overlooking the fact that public office is a public trust, and in all trusts the obligation of good behavior is as strong the first day as the last. The *Watchman's* notion, apparently, is that the Presidency is an educational establishment in which dull men may learn their duties at their leisure. It is nothing of the sort. It is an immense charge of other people's affairs, about which no man has a right on any plea to lie or cheat *even once*. The first time Gen. Harrison broke his pledge by *knowingly* making a bad or unfit appointment, or a corrupt or causeless removal, he committed the unpardonable sin of politics. Mistakes are always excusable, but a wrong act done knowingly is not a mistake; it is a crime. All this ought to be "familiar learning," as the lawyers say, in the offices of religious newspapers and in pastors' studies.

Two passages in the inaugural address of President Wm. Henry Harrison have been strangely overlooked by his grandson and successor, President Benjamin Harrison. One of these is his warning against all attempts to subsidize the press through the use of Executive patronage. These golden words are found on page 234 of the *Congressional Globe*, vol. 7 (March 4, 1841), viz.:

"There is no part of the means placed *in the hands of the Executive* which might be used with greater effect, for *unhallowed purposes*, than the control of the public press. The maxim which our ancestors derived from the mother country, that 'the freedom of the press is the great bulwark of civil and religious liberty,' is one of the most precious legacies which they have left us. *We have learned, too, from our own as well as the experience of other countries, that golden shackles, by whomsoever or by whatever pretence imposed, are as fatal to it as the iron bonds of despotism.*"

We commend this sentiment not only to President Benjamin Harrison, but to the editors of the several papers who have received appointments at his hands, viz., the New York *Tribune*, the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, the Iowa *State Register*, the Indianapolis *Journal*, the Utica *Herald*, the Oshkosh *Northwestern*, the *North American Review;* also the numerous weekly papers in the country districts whose editors have become postmasters. We recommend that they all give one insertion of this paragraph in their newspapers, not as a Reading Notice, but as selected matter having a fresh interest after the lapse of nearly half-a-century.

The other paragraph from the same inaugural address is found on the succeeding page, viz.:

"It was the beautiful remark of a distinguished English writer that 'in the Roman Senate Octavius had a party, and Antony a party, but the Commonwealth had none.' Yet the Senate continued to meet in the Temple of Liberty and talk of the beauty and sacredness of the Commonwealth and gaze at the statues of the elder Brutus and of the Curtii and the Decii. And the people assembled in the forum, not, as in the days of Camillus and the Scipios, to cast their free votes for annual magistrates or pass upon the acts of the Senate, *but to receive from the hands of the leaders their share of the spoils.*"

Is not this an apt picture of what is now going on at our Temple of Liberty, where post-offices are handed over the counter at the rate of two hundred per day, to say nothing of the clerkships in railway-mail cars, for which the civil-service rules were suspended from March 15 to May 1? O shade of William Henry Harrison, how art thou vindicated as a prophet in the person of thy grandson!

It is true, as the Philadelphia *Telegraph* says, that the people who believe in civil-service reform have not "made Rome howl" over the shameful removal of Postmaster Pearson in order to make room for one of the Republican "Boys"; but we feel more and more persuaded that the indignation over this outrageous treatment of an old and faithful public servant by an Administration pledged to reform, is more general and deep than may appear on the surface. A gentleman who has long had practical knowledge of public affairs writes regarding it: "Had Mr. Pearson been in the army or the navy, and had he fallen wounded and bleeding upon the field in defence of his country, and, *because* he was wounded, had he been put to death by the orders of his own Government, the infamy of ingratitude could not have been more horribly expressed and illustrated than it has been by the Harrison-Wanamaker execution of the decree of the spoilsmen."

It is, by the way, most extraordinary that the public mind should ever have come to accept the curious distinction which exists between the attitude held as decent and essential in the case of an officer in the military or naval service and in the case of one in the civil service. Everybody takes it for granted that a man who enters the army or navy ought to be promoted and honored for efficient discharge of his duties, and any display of favoritism is resented as an outrage. But a man who enters the civil service, and devotes to it all his energies for many years, is not held to have any claim even to decent treatment in the matter of removal. The official guillotine does its cruel work in full sight of the public, and only a small class of thoughtful people seem to see anything repulsive in the spectacle. How did it ever come about that a nation which prides itself upon its common-sense view of looking at things got into this most preposterous attitude?

The *Sun*, which has apparently some sort of relations with the Tammany Democrats, protests against the Albany "deal" between Tammany and the Republicans on the—for the *Sun*—curiously good ground, that when Tammany has got the power, it ought to take also the undivided responsibility of the city government; and it points out that a deal of this sort led to the overthrow of the party under somewhat similar circumstances in 1868. This may be all true, but it is also true that Tammany will probably always find "a deal" with Republicans necessary as long as there are Republicans to deal with; and the reason is simple enough. An organization like Tammany, which lives by and for the distribution of offices as "spoils," is, and always must be, rent by internal dissensions, and must constantly throw off bodies of malcontents, called "Halls," or "County Democrats," or the like, owing to the impossibility of giving all the "workers" what they consider their due. This incessant and inevitable scission makes an occasional bargain of some sort with the Republicans for a division of the spoils absolutely necessary to the retention of power. Tammany would be ir-

resistible if it controlled the whole Democratic party, but it never does, and it is this fact which has called into existence the Republican Machine, and which makes the trade of a Republican "Boy" so profitable. So that Tammany might well reply to the philosophical remonstrances of the *Sun*, in the language of the editor of an indecent newspaper to somebody who offered to show him a more excellent way, "You are doing a noble work, but I have a family to support."

There is a very serious and even melancholy side to the affair, however, which is this: The Republican party in this city, it may be said without offence to anybody, contains a very large proportion of the intelligence and property of the community. It contains probably three-fourths of the voters who have a serious, permanent, and enlightened interest in the management of city affairs. To them these inevitable divisions of the Democrats give the balance of power at almost every election — that is, the power of forcing good candidates on one or other of the Democratic factions. This power, which might twenty-five years ago have begun to transform the city government in every department, and made New York, as a municipality, the glory instead of the shame of the continent, is, however, regularly, at every election, committed to a parcel of political adventurers, all unscrupulous and most of them needy, to trade with for their own gain and emolument, under the pretence or disguise of helping the party in the national arena. This, and not the wickedness or folly of Tammany, is to-day the most discouraging feature in New York city politics. Last year we had the same old game played over again, with the result that we see or are going to see. All the good Republicans, the business men, the clergymen, the editors, and the philanthropists, see the evil, and know well how it has worked in the past, but somehow cannot get past the open door. About election time they always have a feeling of "goneness" in their political stomachs, and think they must sneak in and take one drink more.

Unhappily, there is little ground for hope that Mayor Grant will be influenced much by the strong appeals which have been made to him to reappoint the present President of the Health Board, Mr. James C. Bayles. The men who have taken the trouble to make the appeals are the most competent authorities in the city to sit in judgment upon the value of Mr. Bayles's services. They are Dr. E. G. Janeway, Chairman, and Dr. R. H. Derby, Secretary, of the Committee appointed by the Academy of Medicine as an Advisory Board to consult with the Board of Health on questions touching the public health, and to keep watch generally over its doings. This Board was appointed soon after the appointment of Mr. Bayles, and at his request. It has had unusual facilities for observing the conduct of the Department, has improved these facilities to the utmost, and is decided in its opinion that President Bayles should be continued in his place, having received his appointment when bad management had reduced the usefulness of the Department, and having done so much to reorganize it. Mr. James Gallatin, who, as a member of the Tenement-House Commission appointed by Mayor Cooper, as Chairman of the Committee which secured the passage of the Plumbing Act of 1881, and in other capacities, has done a great deal towards the betterment of the sanitary condition of the city, is also anxious that no change shall be made in the head of the Board of Health. Mr. Gallatin has kept the closest watch over the Board under President Bayles's direction, and feels that it has done most thorough and systematic work, and that it would be unwise to make a change.

Now, under any rational system of responsible government, an official thus worthy and experienced would be continued in office without question. Mr. Bayles is undoubtedly one of the best officials that the city has had for years. When he was appointed by Mayor Hewitt, the selection was heartily praised in all quarters, for Mr. Bayles was then universally recognized as one of our highest expert authorities upon the subjects concerning which the Health Board has most to do. His career in office has demonstrated the immense value to the city of a thoroughly competent man in so important an office as the Health Board Presidency is. That is first of all a position requiring scientific knowledge, and nothing is more out of place in it than a mere politician such as Gen. Shaler, the predecessor of Mr. Bayles, was. It will be a great misfortune if Mayor Grant restores the old order of things, or if he makes any change whatever, for Mr. Bayles's experience in the office, added to his fitness, makes him by all odds the most desirable occupant of the place.

The City Reform Club has obtained at least a partial victory in one of its efforts to bring a liquor-dealing politician to justice. It has secured an order for the forfeiting of the $1,000 bail which was given in behalf of Strobel, a liquor-dealer who is one of John J. O'Brien's workers in the Eighth District, and whom the Club had indicted for perjury in swearing that his saloon was not open on election-day. In its recently published annual report, the Club gave a history of Strobel's case, in which it appeared that repeated efforts had been made to bring it to trial, but in each instance a postponement had been secured on the ground of the defendant's illness. The Club was informed that when the case was first reached early in January, the defendant was in Canada. After several adjournments, the case was set down peremptorily for the 27th February, the understanding being that if the defendant did not appear on that day, he should forfeit his bail. He did not appear, because, on the afternoon of the 26th of February, the Assistant District Attorney in charge of the case was relieved from duty in the court where the case was pending, and when the Club's representative inquired of him as to the disposition that had been made of the case, he was obliged to refer the inquirer to the District Attorney for further information. The District Attorney's explanation was that the case "was postponed, on motion of counsel for the defence, in order to secure the attendance of the defendant, it having been shown satisfactorily that Strobel was not in this city, but would return within a short period. On the return of the defendant, the case will again be called for trial." It was called again for trial last week, when the old motion for postponement was repeated, but Judge Gildersleeve refused to grant it, and ordered that the bail be forfeited. The perseverance of the Club was thus rewarded at last. The man who put up the bail was O'Brien's member of the Board of Aldermen, Goetz, who is also a liquor-dealer.

There is one profession which ought to have had a more prominent share in the present celebration than has been accorded to it, for none has made such advances since Washington's death, which it had a large share in hastening; we mean the medical profession. It is not now generally remembered, but it is literally true, that Washington was bled to death by his doctors. The first who was sent for found him, an old man of nearly seventy, suffering from cold and bronchitis, and, therefore, presumably weakened, or much "pulled down," as we now say. The doctor at once went to work and weakened him still further by taking from him eleven or twelve ounces of blood. Finding that the patient did not improve under this treatment, two others were called in, in consultation, and they at once proceeded to take from him between thirty and forty ounces more. As the loss of blood is the most exhausting process to which a man's frame can be exposed, the illustrious patient, naturally, sank under it rapidly, and in twenty-four hours from the beginning of his attack he was dead. He might have borne the loss with impunity had he been younger and in good health; but, being old and enfeebled by an acute disease, he went down under it.

The doctors were not to blame for this. They only did what their professional forerunners had been doing under similar circumstances for ages, and what Washington himself would probably have desired had he been caught without medical advice. But—we speak under correction in this—it is probably at least fifty years since any distinguished man has run any similar risk in the United States. In other words, within the past half century American, English, and French doctors have abandoned what for thousands of years they had treated as the sheet-anchor of their treatment, a remedy which they applied in nine out of ten cases that fell into their hands. A more striking illustration of the uncertainty of the medical art its revilers are not able to produce. It is true the doctors try to weaken the force of

the illustration by pleading that the characteristics of diseases have changed, that they are no longer of the inflammatory type as they used to be, or so much the result of plethora; but this does not make much impression. The practice is still kept up in those countries in which medical education has made least advances—Spain, for instance, and Italy. Within our own time, another great man of the Washington type, Count Cavour, has been slain by medical bleeding precisely as Washington was. The worse Cavour grew, the more his doctors bled him, and he finally succumbed under the treatment, in the flower of his age and in the midst of his usefulness.

Mr. David A. Gourick, a Washington attorney, has begun the publication of a monthly digest of the various decisions and opinions given in the offices and departments of the Government. This is a new and rich field, and it is to be hoped that it will be well worked. The number of persons in the executive branch of the Government who make decisions nowadays is astonishingly large. So great is the Federal business, and so immense is the corps of Government officials at this time, that we must not only have solicitors detailed to each department by the Attorney-General, but several law officers in almost every bureau. The newspapers tell of decisions of the comptrollers, the opinions of the Solicitor of Claims in the Department of State, the rulings of the Commissioners of Patents, of Pensions, of Customs, of Internal Revenue, of the Land Office, and many others, but there has been no one journal to give them all. These decisions and adjudications frequently affect large classes of persons, and are often of far-reaching importance, but the public is generally entirely ignorant of their promulgation. It is very much to be desired that some journal should not only record them, but fearlessly comment upon them as they appear. Nothing is more needed than a little light cast upon the workings of our departments, and strong, healthful criticism of their methods. A chief of a bureau or of a division who should have the temerity to disclose the defects of the methods in vogue, the absurdities of the rules of practice which have been adopted, and the circumlocutions—that heritage of the spoils era—by which public business is so unnecessarily impeded, would be more than a nine days' wonder among his fellows. During the days of President Grant, the departments were affected by militarism. The idea took root and spread in all directions that criticism meant mutiny. Strict discipline required not only obedience to superiors, but reverence for the red tape in which they wound themselves. So it has come to pass that arbitrary orders are issued, unjust decisions are rendered, imbecile opinions are given, and absurd practices recommended, and there is no one to report the matter truly.

The *Iowa State Register* says that there are fewer convicts in the Iowa penitentiaries today than there were three years ago, notwithstanding the increase in the population of the State. So large has been the decrease at Fort Madison, where the contract work is carried on, that more than two thirds of the State has to contribute to that prison in order to get enough men to do the work. Warden Crossley says that there has been a decrease of 25 per cent. in the number of prison inmates during the last three years. As there has been no appreciable difference in the vigilance of officers or the ratio of convictions to indictments, the manifest inference is that there are not so many crimes being committed in the State of Iowa as there were three years ago, and the *Register* attributes the change to the closing of the saloons through the prohibitory law. At the same time there are cities like Keokuk where, as a square test, a majority votes against enforcing the prohibition law. Evidently, then, a State law does not close the saloons everywhere. The moral of Iowa's experience, with no open saloons in four-fifths of the counties and open violation of the law in the other fifth, would seem to be that the true method of solving the liquor problem is through a local-option and high-license system, as Massachusetts decided last week.

The condition of the iron industry in this country and in England respectively has engaged the attention of *Iron*, one of the organs of the trade, published in Philadelphia. It appears that the condition of the trade abroad is highly satisfactory and that it extends to nearly all branches, from pig-iron up to steamships. The demand for pig has advanced the price in Glasgow 1s. 6d., and in the Cleveland district 2s. per ton. "Great activity prevails in the steel trade," says *Iron;* "in steel rails business is exceptionally active and brisk, and not only are makers fully employed, but they are in receipt of inquiries which will maintain the position throughout the year." The same is true in substance of blooms, ship-plates, and boiler-plates. Shipbuilding on the Clyde, the Tyne, and the Wear is brisk. Moreover, says *Iron*, "in the heavier forms of iron and steel prices are in many instances higher than at any time in 1888, *and above the prices that are in force in this country.*" Reviewing the home market, *Iron* says: "The improvement in the foreign iron trade has not in any way as yet affected the market here." Well, how should it? We have shut ourselves up by a high tariff. We have put a duty on iron ore to prevent ourselves from getting necessary raw materials at low rates. We have tariffed ourselves wherever possible, so that we have no foreign markets except for articles like locomotives and sewing-machines and some kinds of hardware in which we have a superiority of the inventive faculty. Consequently, when a new demand springs up in the world at large, we cannot share in the supplying of it. We are restricted to our own little market of sixty millions of people, while England has all the rest of the world for buyers of her goods.

Mr. Bates has hastened to justify our criticism of his appointment as a member of the Samoan Conference. The cable reports that on Saturday he explained to Prince Bismarck "that his article on Samoa in *The Century* magazine was written long before he was nominated a delegate to the Conference, and that after his nomination he tried to withdraw the article, but in vain, as thousands of copies had been printed." But what has this to do with Mr. Bates's acceptance of the position for which he found that he had thus unfitted himself? If he could not "withdraw the article," at least he could withdraw himself. And, if the article were sound, why should he be willing to withdraw it—in other words, how were its character and usefulness destroyed by the appointment of the writer of it to a little office? Prince Bismarck evidently was alive to the humor of all this, for we read that "the Chancellor was especially cordial to Mr. Bates." No doubt a man of the world would be "cordial" to anybody who provided him with such exquisite fun. But better yet remains:

> "Mr. Bates has explained to Count Herbert Bismarck that since the publication of the official despatches in the White Book, which showed the attitude of the German Government, his article in the *Century*, which he had written as a private and uninformed person, had lost all point. He said that he had the utmost esteem for Germany, to which country America owed much. Nothing was further from his thoughts than to wound either the German nation or the German Government. Mr. Bates said he desired that this statement be published, and he trusted that it would remove entirely any ill-feeling towards him."

What our representative wrote as an "uninformed person" has "lost all point" by publication of the facts in the case which he wrote about. But the "point" was that Mr. Bates was "uninformed." To prove that he was so he thinks clears him of blame. It is a strange contention that you may say what you like, provided that you don't know what you are talking about.

If the arrival of Boulanger in England, and his riding his black horse in Rotten Row, amid the applause of the bystanders, increases his popularity in France, it will greatly increase the pity of the intelligent portion of other communities for the French people. Wherever he goes he acts as a sort of proclamation of the imbecility and failure of the Government of his own country based on universal suffrage. He is not, like other French pretenders who have sought shelter in Belgium or England, the representative of a rival dynasty, or a Republican protesting against Cæsarism or royalty. He is a soldier expelled from the army for insubordination, who has made his fame by announcing that the representatives of the French people, assembled in a Republican Parliament, are a parcel of knaves and fools. That any considerable number of Frenchmen should follow the movement of such a preacher in foreign countries, with hope or sympathy or admiration, or with any feeling but shame and indignation, is surely a most unpromising symptom. It will make a great many foreign observers feel as if real national pride was dying out in France.

A CENTURY OF DEMOCRACY.

"It has been frequently remarked," said Madison, in the first number of the 'Federalist,' opening that masterly series of essays upon the Constitution then pending, "that it seems to have been reserved to the people of this country, by their conduct and example, to decide the important question whether societies of men are really capable or not of establishing good government from reflection and choice, or whether they are for ever destined to depend for their political constitutions on accident and force. If there be any truth in the remark," he continued, "the crisis at which we are arrived may with propriety be regarded as the era in which that decision is to be made; and a wrong election of the part we shall act may, in this view, deserve to be considered as the general misfortune of mankind."

This language was not too strong for the situation. It would, indeed, have been "the general misfortune of mankind" if the American Union had not been established. But it would be a vastly greater misfortune if the experiment of Democracy thus inaugurated were, after thorough trial, to prove a failure. If the United States never had existed, the world might still look forward to the realization of the grand conceptions which brought this nation into existence; but if the American Union shall ever fall into decay, the human race may well despair of its capacity for progress.

The completion of a century since the inauguration of the first President is an occasion for serious reflection on the tendencies of the times. The material progress which the hundred years have brought may be left out of the account in such an estimate, for it has no real bearing upon the underlying question. It is interesting to note the changes that have attended the development of the railroad and the telegraph, and to contrast the meagre resources of the few States along the Atlantic seaboard in 1789 with the vast wealth of the great nation of 1889; but it is not important. Nor need we stop to consider the fact that the delicate system of interdependent Federal and State governments has been found, after the most crucial test, to work successfully, and that the perpetuity of the Union, so far as this feature is concerned, seems assured. That is one of the greatest achievements in human history, but it is not the fundamental element in the problem. The vital question concerns the national character, for character is the supreme test of a nation, as of a man. Does a century of Democracy leave the American people possessed of more robust virtues, putting more of conscience into the work of self-government, than it found them?

Contrasts between different periods in a nation's history centre about the prominent individualities of those periods. Such a contrast on this occasion is certainly calculated to depress one. The celebration in the midst of which we write, occurs in the metropolis of the country, whose Mayor is Hugh J. Grant, and in the greatest State of the Union, whose Governor is David B. Hill; while the latest successor of George Washington is Benjamin Harrison. These three men represent theoretically the consummate flower of the national century-plant; presumably they are the three men whom the voters of city, State, and country have picked out as their first citizens.

Obviously the scheme for securing the best men within the range of choice to fill the highest offices has failed. The framers of the Constitution flattered themselves most of all upon the elaborate contrivance which they had devised for the choice of President. "The process of election," said Hamilton in the 'Federalist,' "affords a moral certainty that the office of President will never fall to the lot of any man who is not in an eminent degree endowed with the requisite qualifications. Talents for low intrigue, and the little arts of popularity, may alone suffice to elevate a man to the first honors in a single State, but it will require other talents, and a different kind of merit, to establish him in the esteem and confidence of the whole Union, or of so considerable a portion of it as would be necessary to make him a successful candidate for the distinguished office of President of the United States. It will not be too strong to say that there will be a constant probability of seeing the station filled by characters preëminent for ability and virtue." In so far as regards the impossibility of a man's capturing the highest office by talents for intrigue, the expectation has been verified thus far—we have never had a "Dave" Hill in the White House; but some of its occupants have made the expression about "characters preëminent for ability" sound like a sarcasm.

The attempt to secure a succession of ideal Presidents through a system of electoral colleges, composed of the best citizens of all the States and acting independently, was predestined to failure; but the substitute of really naming the chief executive in one or other of two great party conventions, composed of hundreds of men, surrounded by thousands of spectators, and often swept away by some sudden wave of excitement, has been an even worse failure. The mob may thus name the President. As Mr. Blaine says in his 'Twenty Years of Congress': "In a final analysis of the causes and forces which nominated Mr. Lincoln, great weight must be given to the influence which came from the place where the Convention was held, and from the sympathy and pressure of the surrounding crowd. Illinois Republicans, from Cairo to the Wisconsin line, were present in uncounted thousands. The power of the mob in controlling public opinion is unmeasurable. In monarchical governments it has dethroned kings, and in republics it dictates candidates."

The evil runs through the whole system, and renders possible the nomination, which in turn renders possible and often inevitable the election, of such men as Hill to positions which rank well up towards the Presidency in power. Here "talents for low intrigue" find ample scope, and their employment may even decide the Presidency itself. Everybody of sense knows that Hill was elected Governor last fall through the saloon vote, and that the same saloon vote was cast for Harrison, giving him New York State, and thus electing him.

Nearly fifty years ago, when this evil had not fully developed, Story wrote in his 'Exposition of the Constitution': "The President is in no just sense the unbiassed choice of the people, or of the States. He is commonly the representative of a party, and not of the Union; and the danger, therefore, is that the office may hereafter be filled by those who will gratify the private resentments, or prejudices, or selfish objects of their particular partisans, rather than by those who will study to fulfil the high destiny contemplated by the Constitution, and be the impartial patrons, supporters, and friends of the great interests of the whole country." So true is it that the President has come to be the representative of a party, and not of the Union, that Gen. Grant once used the expression "the party which I represent," without any apparent comprehension that there was the slightest impropriety in such an attitude; while his successor was roundly ridiculed for the suggestion that "he serves his party best who serves his country best."

Experience has more than justified Washington's insistence in his "Farewell Address" upon "the baneful effects of the spirit of party." He urged that "the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it"; and yet in his day parties had hardly come into existence. The development of the spoils system is due to party spirit, and it is party spirit which renders it so hard to overthrow that system. Such a system was never even contemplated as within the range of possibilities by the fathers. Read what Washington wrote to a friend regarding the subject of appointments a few days after his inauguration:

> "No part of my duty will be more delicate, and in many instances more unpleasing, than that of nominating or appointing persons to office. It will undoubtedly often happen that there will be several candidates for the same office, whose pretensions, ability, and integrity may be nearly equal, and who will come forward so equally supported in every respect as almost to require the aid of supernatural intuition to fix upon the right. I shall, however, in all events, have the satisfaction to reflect that I entered upon my Administration unconfined by a single engagement, uninfluenced by any ties of blood or friendship, and with the best intentions and fullest determination to nominate to office those persons only who, upon every consideration, were the most deserving, and who would probably execute their several functions to the interest and credit of the American Union, if such characters could be found by my exploring every avenue of information respecting their merits and pretensions that it was in my power to obtain."

Contrast this statement with the recent extraordinary revelation that the Republican Congressmen from Missouri had met as a board of patronage to divide the spoils in that State, in accordance with the President's own suggestion. Contrast, also, the confession that efficient men are discharged from office simply for political reasons, with Madison's declaration that one such removal would constitute good cause for impeachment. During the first Congress the question arose whether the President could remove an official without the consent of the

Senate. Madison held that such power was essential to efficient administration, and laughed at the suggestion that it would ever be abused. He said:

"The danger then, consists merely in this: the President can displace from office a man whose merits require that he should be continued in it. What will be the motives which the President can feel for such abuse of his power, and the restraints that operate to prevent it? In the first place, he will be impeachable by this House, before the Senate, for such an act of maladministration; *for I contend that the wanton removal of meritorious officers would subject him to impeachment and removal from his own high trust.* . . . Can we suppose a President, elected for four years only, dependent upon the popular voice, impeachable by the Legislature, little, if at all, distinguished for wealth, personal talents, or influence from the head of the Department himself—I say, will he bid defiance to all these considerations, and wantonly dismiss a meritorious and virtuous officer? *Such abuse of power exceeds my conception.*"

Nowadays such abuse of power is the most common thing in the world, and the worst feature of the case is that hardly anybody criticises it. Madison could not conceive that a President would ever be guilty of this offence, but he believed that, if such an event ever should occur, the offender would be promptly impeached. Now it is taken as a matter of course, and the person who objects is denounced as a "holier-than-thou."

The growing power of wealth and the growing worship of wealth must challenge the attention and arouse the apprehension of every thoughtful observer. Rich men now invest in offices as they do in horses or yachts, and millionaires are elected (because they are millionaires) who are so destitute of ability or merit that they would never be suggested except for their wealth. These abuses are not condemned by the press generally, because the press itself is afflicted with the craze for wealth. The conception of the editor as a public teacher, which Horace Greeley preached and exemplified, has yielded to the idea that a man may run a newspaper just as he would a cotton-mill, simply to make the largest possible dividends, and with no sense of duty towards the public. Worst of all, editors are becoming the most pertinacious of office-seekers, and many of the most prominent newspapers in the land are now muzzled through the appointment of their editors.

These are somewhat gloomy reflections—quite out of keeping with the roseate pictures of progress which the orators of the week have had to draw. But nations have fallen in the past because people were not content to accept such warnings as are contained in the impressive words with which Judge Story concluded his analysis of the Constitution in 1840:

"Let the American youth never forget that they possess a noble inheritance, bought by the toils and sufferings and blood of their ancestors, and capable, if wisely improved and faithfully guarded, of transmitting to their latest posterity all the substantial blessings of life, the peaceful enjoyment of liberty, of property, of religion, and of independence. The structure has been erected by architects of consummate skill and fidelity; its foundations are solid; its compartments are beautiful, as well as useful; its arrangements are full of wisdom and order; and its defences are impregnable from without. It has been reared for immortality, if the work of man may justly aspire to such a title. It may, nevertheless, perish in an hour, by the folly or corruption or negligence of its only keepers, THE PEOPLE. Republics are created by the virtue, public spirit, and intelligence of the citizens. They fall when the wise are banished from the public councils because they dare to be honest, and the profligate are rewarded because they flatter the people in order to betray them."

Happily, there is encouragement to be derived from the nation's triumph over threatening difficulties in the past. Nothing in the present situation is so depressing as was the outlook half a century ago, when the slave power dominated the land. Yet, even in such a gloomy epoch, that profound philosopher, Ralph Waldo Emerson, in his address on "Man the Reformer," delivered in 1841, uttered this hopeful forecast: "We complain that the politics of masses of the people are controlled by designing men, and led in opposition to manifest justice and the common weal, and to their own interest. But the people do not wish to be represented or ruled by the ignorant and base. They only vote for these because they were asked with the voice and semblance of kindness. They will not vote for them long. They inevitably prefer wit and probity." So, too, three years later, in his address on "The Young American," he said: "We cannot look on the freedom of this country, in connection with its youth, without a presentiment that here shall laws and institutions exist on some scale of proportion to the majesty of nature. To men legislating for the area betwixt the two oceans, betwixt the snows and the tropics, somewhat of the gravity of nature will infuse itself into the code." In like hopeful spirit spoke James Russell Lowell, when he said, in concluding his address on the assassination of Garfield in 1881: "I am not one of those who believe that democracy any more than any other form of government will go of itself. I am not a believer in perpetual motion in politics any more than in mechanics, but, in common with all of you, I have an imperturbable faith in the honesty, the intelligence, and the good sense of the American people and in the destiny of the American Republic." Perhaps more significant and encouraging is the more recent conclusion of another philosophical observer, whose judgment is not affected by any partiality of patriotism, Mr. James Bryce, who, in the introduction to his masterly discussion of 'The American Commonwealth,' notes "the existence in the American people of a reserve of force and patriotism more than sufficient to sweep away all the evils which are now tolerated, and to make the politics of the country worthy of its material grandeur, and of the private virtues of its inhabitants. America excites an admiration which must be felt upon the spot to be understood. The hopefulness of her people communicates itself to one who moves among them, and makes him perceive that the graver faults of politics may be far less dangerous there than they would be in Europe. A hundred times in writing the book have I been disheartened by the facts I was stating; a hundred times has the recollection of the abounding strength and vitality of the nation chased away these tremors."

"All forms of human government," said Machiavelli, "have, like men, their natural term, and those only are long-lived which possess in themselves the power of returning to the principles on which they were originally founded." The real question of to-day is whether the American people possess this power of returning to the principles which governed in 1789. We are bound to believe that this latent power still exists—if for no other reason, because the contrary conclusion would make all mankind despair of the world's future.

A STUDY IN MODERN GOVERNMENT.

ABOUT a month ago, after several weeks of more or less thoughtful discussion in the newspapers and elsewhere, there was presented to the Legislature at Albany a bill which embodied a plan for securing a comprehensive system of rapid transit for New York city. The measure had been drawn by the city's legal adviser, the Corporation Counsel, and was known to embody the views of the city's chief Executive. It was published in full in the newspapers, and its various provisions were closely examined and seriously discussed. It was introduced simultaneously in both branches of the Legislature, and its advocates made strenuous efforts to have it advanced as fast as possible. For several weeks the discussions upon this bill and the prospects for its final passage have occupied more space in the newspaper reports from Albany than any other topic of legislative interest. More leading articles have been devoted to it, and to the elements opposing and favoring it, than to any other one subject of public discussion.

It was declared early in what may be called the bill's "campaign," that Jay Gould was making the most insidious and unscrupulous efforts to defeat it. Whenever its advance in either body was checked, there would be an outcry that Jay Gould's grip was upon the Legislature. On one day the bill would go with unexpected ease through a committee, and hope of its triumphant passage through the Legislature would be high; but on the next day it would receive a setback in one house or the other, and again would be heard the uproar about Jay Gould's devilish proceedings. About a fortnight ago the bill suddenly became hopelessly blocked in the Senate, and though the Jay Gould bogey was "worked" as industriously as ever, it soon became known to everybody who was able to see behind the scenes at all, that the hand that was blocking the bill's progress was "Tom" Platt's. There was a tussle, lasting for several days, between the Lieutenant-Governor, who was supposed to be doing Gov. Hill's bidding in the chair, and the Republican majority on the floor, to see whether Platt's grip was strong enough to resist all efforts to loosen it. The conclusion apparently reached was that conciliatory methods would be absolutely necessary, for on Saturday week Gov. Hill suddenly left Albany for New York city, and the Lieutenant-Governor ceased to attempt to control the Senate by overruling the majority in spite of all parliamentary rules and usages.

On arriving in New York the Governor, with considerable ostentation, conferred with

some of the members of the Committee of Centennial Arrangements, and it was announced that this was the object of his visit. Afterwards he went into executive session with the Mayor and Richard Croker; and so loyal a friend of the Governor's as the *Sun* gave currency to a rumor that "Tom" Platt took some part or other in the conference, his views being there if he himself was not. On Monday, a bill which had been slumbering unnoticed in both houses since March 14, received a sudden impetus. It provides for a reconstruction of the Police Board in New York city, reducing the number of members from four to two, and requiring that one shall be a Democrat and the other a Republican. Under the present law, the Mayor can appoint all the members from one party if he chooses. There is to be a vacancy in the Board on May 1, owing to the fact that on that date the term of a Republican member, "Steve" French, is to expire. It has been an open secret that the Mayor has not wished to reappoint French, or to name any other Republican, but to put a Tammany man in the place. This bill, making it obligatory upon him to appoint a Republican, was taken up suddenly in both houses on the reassembling of the Legislature after the Governor's visit to this city, and its final passage, as well as that of the Rapid-Transit Bill, is now said to be certain. It has already passed the Senate.

The *World*, which is the organ both of the Governor and the Mayor, makes the announcement that "there is urgent need for reformation in the Police Department in this city." In the *Sun*, which is a more devoted Hill organ even than the *World*, we find this information:

> "The Albany situation is full of interest to local politicians. The two-headed non-partisan bills have slept so long in the Legislature that the activity now shown in pushing them is regarded as significant. The purpose of the Republicans to make use of the Democratic interest in Mayor Grant's Rapid-Transit Bill in getting them through and signed by the Governor is apparent. There is one thing certain, and that is that the Tammany people are feeling very comfortable over the Albany situation. They seem to think that the Mayor's Rapid-Transit Bill is coming out all right, and the prospect of the Police Commission being made two-headed, or the making of the Bureau of Elections a separate department with two Commissioners, does not disturb them."

Similar information appears in the *Times* and *Tribune*. The *Times*, which has had great faith in the Mayor's disinterested motives on the rapid-transit question, has very full and minute intelligence about the agreement or "deal," and says that Mr. Platt's associate in the negotiations in behalf of the Republicans was Mr. Van Cott, our new Postmaster, who is too busy with politics to assume his new duties.

Now, it is not our purpose to moralize on this "deal," but simply to call attention to it as an illustration of what government in the State of New York has come to be in this year of centennial jubilation. Here the newspapers have been discussing for a month or more a question of the greatest importance to this city. Some of them, at least, have been discussing it seriously, with no other desire than to have that result reached which should be most beneficial to the city's interests. Of what possible use has the discussion been? Has the Legislature listened to it at all? Have the members been influenced in the slightest degree by either that or by the arguments made in committee? Certainly not. The fate of the measure has from the beginning hung upon the will of two men, or possibly three —Gov. Hill, "Tom" Platt, and "Dick" Croker. These three get together and decide what shall become of it. Platt's terms are not known, of course, beyond that portion of them which is revealed by the Police Commission Bill. That bill will make a place for one Boy, and very likely will result in keeping O'Brien or another Boy in charge of the Bureau of Elections. Nobody will know till the Rapid Transit Commission is appointed whether Platt's terms include a share in that or not. Undoubtedly also the Governor has his terms, and what is left after he and Platt have received their share will go to Croker for Tammany Hall.

Could there be a greater farce than this under the name of legislation? Why put the State to the expense of keeping a body of 160 men in session at Albany for five or six months in order to have it do what three men agree upon at a "conference" of a few hours' duration? Why not make Gov. Hill, "Tom" Platt," and "Dick" Croker a commission of three to govern the city and State, and pay them for the service? That would be only formal recognition of what is really the government of New York to-day.

IN AND OUT OF OKLAHOMA.

Oklahoma will be known in history as the Territory that was settled in one day and very nearly unsettled again two days later. On Tuesday, April 23, something like 50,000 people, some of whom had been camping on the borders of the promised land for two years, made a wild rush into it and seized upon its soil. Ten or fifteen thousand of them squatted on one spot, called it the city of Guthrie, endeavored to establish a municipal government, opened a bank with a capital of $50,000, issued a newspaper—all between twelve o'clock noon and four P. M. They mapped out the city into squares, opened and named streets, and sold all the house lots, the corner lots bringing fine prices. At night they went to bed, some in tents, some on the ground. Oklahoma City was established in another part of the Territory in a similar way, and smaller towns were established and named under much the same circumstances. When night came at the end of the first day, it was estimated that every particle of desirable land among the 1,800,000 acres comprising the new Territory had a claimant. The country was settled. No less than three cities had been builded, not merely in a day, but in an hour, and there were more towns than can now be enumerated. It was said, with much eloquence, by a Chicago reporter who was there, that "Guthrie, which was at noon a name on the map, a little red station-house by the railway, was at nightfall a booming city of 15,000 inhabitants."

But daylight of the following day, coming after a night which had made painfully evident the fact that the changes of temperature from heat to cold were very sudden in the promised land, made many other depressing revelations. It was noticed that the soil was rich enough in the main streets of the city of Guthrie, but that the surrounding country was sterile, capable of bearing nothing more than buffalo grass and cactus. It was discovered that the water in the one neighboring stream was not abundant; that the stream itself was small, and that the water had an alkaline flavor. It began to be suspected that there never could be a great city in such a spot, and that somebody had been working up the price of town lots for selfish purposes. The second night came after a day of much suffering in body as well as in mind. There was scarcity of both provisions and water, as well as shelter. In the night a violent wind arose, filling the air with stifling alkali dust, and bringing in its train a pouring storm of rain. The next morning nothing except the lack of adequate transportation facilities saved the proud city of Guthrie, with its bank and newspaper, from instant depopulation. Everybody who could get upon a railroad train, either inside or outside the cars, got there, and started out of the promised land. Even the eloquent Chicago reporter lost heart and sent off this mournful tale: "Guthrie is without form. The original streets have disappeared, and new sections are being ploughed every hour. Values have fallen to practically nothing, and public confidence is at a low ebb."

The story of Guthrie is the story, with slight variations, of the other parts of the new land. The rush to get out became on the second day as violent and frenzied as it had been to get in, and it is continuing daily. It is now estimated that not more than one-quarter of those who went in will remain.

Was there ever a more extraordinary exhibition of the restlessness of the American character than this Oklahoma episode has furnished? For ten years a constantly increasing throng of persons, until they numbered 50,000, has been struggling to get into Oklahoma. Probably not one in a hundred of them knew why he wished to get in. All he knew was that he was not allowed to go, and he reasoned that the land must be an extraordinarily attractive and desirable one because he was kept out of it. There never was a more successful boom in politics than this of Oklahoma. It was started, as many a political boom has been, by the judicious use of money. There is little doubt that the first boomers were paid by the railway companies to break into the Territory and endeavor to establish settlements. Every time that they broke in and were driven out again, the knowledge of their exploits spread over a wider area and reached the ears of more people. Why were they trying to get in, and why were they so often baffled? That they were ejected because the land was reserved by the Government for the Indians, did not sufficiently explain the proceedings. There must be something wonderful in the country itself which caused such unusual struggles.

Without reasoning further than this, the

unsettled and roving dispositions of the whole country began to gather on the border and peer into the forbidden land. Every fresh raid had a larger number of participants, and the increased difficulty of ejecting them sent a louder rumor abroad. It even reached other countries, and recruits for the boomers began to come from Germany, England, and even Russia. Finally the politicians had to take a hand, and a law was passed decreeing that a portion of the coveted domain should be thrown open for settlement, and a date was fixed by Presidential proclamation when legal possession could be taken. The Boomer "cities" stretching along the border swelled into marvellous proportions after this was known, and on the date of entry they contained in the morning their thousands of souls, and at night not one. They were all deserted and their inhabitants had founded new cities.

Two days later they were reinhabited for a few minutes by the same boomers getting back as fast as possible to a base of supplies. They had gone into the promised land evidently expecting to find it literally flowing with milk and honey. They seem to have taken no thought as to what they were to subsist upon, how they were to be sheltered and clothed. They had rushed into a wilderness without stopping to think how they were to live when they got there. To reach the wilderness they had crossed over millions of acres of as good if not better land than they were to find there, which they could have had for a fraction of what they had spent to reach the wilderness, and upon which they could have established homes with the benefits of civilization within their reach, and the protection of organized State governments about them. But they paid no attention to that. They left all behind and rushed forward, to meet nothing but desert privation, hunger, thirst, and mob lawlessness. The only ones among the boomers who have profited by the expedition are the cool-headed scoundrels who went into it and kindled its excitement to fury for the gain which they could make out of it. Many of them are probably on the way out now with the money of their victims in their pockets.

THE MUSICAL DEPARTMENT OF THE NEWBERRY LIBRARY.

CHICAGO, April 14, 1889.

THE fundamental purpose of the late Walter L. Newberry, in his munificent bequest for the endowment of a library in Chicago, the nucleus of which has been already organized, was to make it an exhaustive reference library for the use of scholars and the general literary public. The trustees, Mr. W. H. Bradley and Mr. E. W. Blatchford, and the accomplished librarian, W. F. Poole, late President of the American Library Association, have kept this purpose steadily in view, and, in organizing and enriching its various departments, beginning with that of bibliography, which is becoming one of the most complete in the country, have aimed to make the collections in each notable for their original search documents, manuscripts, maps, charts, and books. In this important work, assisted by well-known experts, and having the advantage of the services of experienced connoisseurs and antiquarians, they have been remarkably successful, to the extent even that the library, though it will be in a formative condition for many years, has already acquired an international reputation.

The musical department of the library has made rapid progress, and, though yet but the nucleus of what it will be ere long, it can safely challenge any other collection of its kind in this country in its complete adaptation to the needs of musical scholarship, and in the number of rare works and original editions which it contains. The preparation of the list of books occupied several months of careful research, and it was then scrutinized by musical experts, both here and in the East, among them Prof. Paine of Harvard, who asked permission to borrow titles from it for the use of the University collection. It was then sent to Europe, and for nearly a year experienced buyers have been engaged in filling the orders. In the pursuit of some of the rarest volumes, the trustees were notified of an opportunity to purchase the library of Count Pio Resse of Florence, Italy, which contained among its other valuable books many unique musical works covering the most important period of Italian musical history. One score alone, the opera of "Euridice," by Peri, to which reference is made below, induced the trustees not only to take the whole collection, but to close the bargain by cable, lest this treasure should be lost to the library. When the books arrived, they were found to be even more valuable than the catalogue indicated, large numbers of them being original editions of the most famous writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

In scores the library is already very complete. It possesses the orchestral scores of nearly all the important Italian, French, German, and English operas (both the orchestral and piano scores of the Wagner music-dramas), of all the standard symphonies, and of the leading works of Berlioz, Liszt, Rubinstein, Dvořák, and other composers of the modern Romantic school; numerous editions of piano and organ music; the songs and ballads of various countries; the early music of the Roman Catholic and Anglican churches, the German chorales, and English and American psalmody; while a large collection of oratorios, cantatas, and chamber music is on the way, all of which is properly supplemented by a complete list of thematic catalogues.

A glance at some of the special editions among these scores will indicate both their excellence and completeness. They include the 34 volumes of the Bach Gesellschaft; the 48 volumes of Beethoven issued by Breitkopf & Härtel; the 16 volumes issued by the English Händel Society, and the 94 sumptuous volumes of the German Händel Society; the 73-volume Breitkopf & Härtel edition of Mozart, the 40-volume edition of Mendelssohn, the 29-volume edition of Palestrina, the 21-volume edition of Schubert, the 7-volume edition of Heinrich Schütz, and the 38-volume edition of Schumann, all by the same house. The 19 volumes published by the English Musical Antiquarian Society are particularly rich in early English music, including madrigals, motetts, songs, and fantasies by quaint old John Evelyn, Bateson, Bennett, Byrd, Orlando Gibbons, Hilton, Morley, Weelkes, and Wilbye (1589-1627); the songs of John Dowland, Shakspere's friend, whose "Lacrymæ" has been preserved for posterity in the plays of Ben Jonson, Middleton, Fletcher, and Massinger; the "Parthenia," the first music composed for the virginals; and Purcell's dramatic music to "Bonduca," "King Arthur," and "Dido and Æneas," this last being the first serious effort of the father of the English lyric drama. The "Musica Antiqua," a comprehensive selection of the motetts, madrigals, anthems, lessons, and dance tunes from the twelfth to the eighteenth centuries, arranged by John Stafford Smith, organist to George III., is a fitting companion to these volumes. In the same general line is the 'Publikation Älterer Praktischer und Theoretischer Musikwerke vorzugsweise des XV. und XVI. Jahrhunderts,' published under the auspices of the German Gesellschaft für Musikforschung at Berlin. Four elegant volumes, 'La Harpe d'Éole,' 'Les Sirènes,' 'La Danse Macabre,' and 'Les Cris de Paris,' by that indefatigable composer and littérateur, Georges Kastner, who died in Paris in 1867, are monuments to his industry, as they join to exhaustive and richly illustrated essays on these subjects elaborate musical settings of the same subjects in symphonic form for voices and instruments. Another extremely valuable work is the beautiful four-volume edition of Benedetto Marcello's 'Settings of the Psalms,' bound in vellum and issued in Venice in 1803, besides which the library also has the Milan five-volume edition of the same with Mirecke's piano accompaniments, revised by Cherubini. A rare novelty is the 'Sacred Songs of Francesco Soto,' published at Rome in 1588. Soto was the friend of St. Philip Neri, the father of the oratorio, and in 1575 had charge of the music in the oratory which the latter founded. Soto was also the founder of the first Carmelite convent in Rome, and a special favorite with Sixtus V., of whose chapel he was dean at the time of his death. Among the older Italian works are a set of canzonets and madrigals by Brunelli, chapelmaster to the Duke of Tuscany, Venice, 1614; canzonets by Cazzati, chapelmaster of San Petronio in Bologna, 1668; the sacred motetts of Cifra, a pupil of Palestrina, of whose music Milton was very fond, Rome, 1638; canzonets of Giovanni Battista of Gagliano, Venice, 1623; concerted pieces with organ by Vincenzo Pellegrini, Venice, 1619; and the madrigals of the Bolognese chapelmaster, Alessandro Spontone, Venice, 1585. There is also in the Italian collection a set of manuscript songs for alto with accompanying bass, beautifully written and adorned with exquisite initial capitals, which is claimed to have been the handiwork of Stradella. Its authenticity, however, has not yet been established. As an artistic work it is none the less unique.

The gem of the collection is the original edition of Jacopo Peri's opera, "Euridice," Florence, 1600, an edition which has now become so rare that only one other copy is supposed to be in existence. Its value is derived from the fact that it was the first opera which was ever publicly represented in the world. In 1597 Peri wrote the opera of "Dafne," set to a poem by Rinuccini, and the music composed in what was supposed to be the style of the ancient Greek tragedy. It was only privately performed, however, at the Palazzo Corsi; but its success was so great among the friends of Peri that he was induced to compose music in the same style to the poem of "Euridice," also written by Rinuccini, which was publicly performed upon the occasion of the festivities attending the marriage of Henry IV. of France to Maria de' Medici. In his exhaustive sketch of the rise and progress of "Opera" in Grove's Dictionary, Mr. Rockstro, speaking of the original edition, not only says that he has never seen a copy of it himself, but adds: "This score is now exceedingly scarce. Hawkins did not even know of its existence, and Burney succeeded in discovering one example only, in the possession of the Marchese Ri-

nuccini, a descendant of the poet at Florence; but a copy of the Venice edition is happily preserved in the library of the British Museum." The copy acquired by the Newberry Library is the Florence original edition (1600); that in the British Museum is the Venice reprint of 1608. It is bound in vellum and is perfectly preserved. The notation is in the old lozenge-shaped notes, the recitative being accompanied by the ordinary figured bass. A copy of the original libretto also came with it, bearing the same date and containing a dedication by Rinuccini to the Queen. Though considerably stained when received, it has been skilfully restored and is now in perfect condition. Query for the bibliographists: Is this copy the one which Burney saw, and is it not the only copy in existence?

The student of the science of music will not only find in this library the standard modern works, such as those of Ouseley, Lobe, Marx, Richter, Helmholtz, Judassohn, Hauptmann, Cherubini, Berlioz, and others, but he can fairly revel in original editions of unique works. Meibomius is represented by a fine copy of his great work, 'Antiquæ Musicæ Auctores Septem Græce et Latine,' 2 vols. (Amsterdam, Elzevir, 1652). There are also beautiful copies of Padre Martini's 'Storia della Musica,' dedicated to Maria Barbara, Queen of Spain (1757), and of his 'Esemplare di Contrapunto,' two works whose sumptuousness of print and pictorial embellishment put to shame the moderns. There are also the original editions of the three greatest treatises of the most learned theorist of his time, Gioseffe Zarlino, viz.: 'Dimostrationi Armoniche' (Venice, 1571); 'Le Istitutioni Armoniche' (Venice, 1558); and 'Sopplimenti Musicali' (1538). Of equal rarity are the splendid originals of the old Jesuit, Athanasius Kircher—the 'Musurgia Universalis' (Rome, 1650); the 'Phonurgia Nova' (Rome, 1673), an amplification of the 'Musurgia'; and the 'Ars Magnetica' (1641), a collection of songs which were supposed to be specifics for the cure of the bite of the tarantula. An extremely rare and curious work is the 'Tractatus secundus de naturæ simia seu technica macrocosmi historia' (London, 1624), by Robert Fludd, an English mystic and physician who has been credited with the invention of the barometer. There is a quaint chapter in the book on music. The oldest book in the collection is the "Musica" of Boethius, who died 524 A. D., and left behind him in this work the old Greek scales of Ptolemy and the theories of Pythagoras. The book was printed in 1491. There are also a perfect original edition in Latin of Fux's 'Gradus ad Parnassum' (Vienna, 1725), the text-book which Mozart and Haydn studied, and a fine copy of the great violinist Tartini's 'De Principj dell' Armonia Musicale' (Padua, 1767). In addition to these, there are such rare works as Rameau's 'Génération harmonique' (1738); 'Observations on the Chorus of the Papal Chapel,' by Andrea Adami da Bolsena (1711); 'Il Musico Testore,' by Zaccaria Teno (1705); 'Il Tesoro Illuminato,' by Aijquino Bresciano (1631); Berton's 'Traité d'Harmonie' and 'Dictionnaire des Accords' (1822); 'Historia Musica,' by Andrea Angelini Bontempi (1692); 'Canto Harmonico,' by Andrea da Modena (1690); and 'Trattato sopra le Fughe Musicali,' by Sabbatini, a pupil of Padre Martini (1802).

Among other works, though not in the above class, are Joaquin de Vasconcello's bibliography of Portuguese composers; all of Coussemaker's splendid volumes; Antoine Vidal's beautiful 'Les Instruments à Archet,' with Hillemacher's etchings; Jones's 'Bardic Museum' and 'Musical and Poetical Relics of the Welsh Bards'; all of Ritson's volumes on the early English ballads; Gerbert's famous 'De Cantu et Musica Sacra' (1774), and his 'Scriptores ecclesiastici de musica sacra' (1784); Gevaërt's works; the bibliographies of church music by Wackernagel, Clements, Winterfeld, and Herculeus; Czerwinski's 'Dances of the Sixteenth Century'; the standard biographies of every prominent composer and many curious old sketches of the ancients; a full line of histories in every modern language; the "gesammelte Schriften" of Berlioz, Cherubini, Wagner, Liszt, Schumann, Mendelssohn, Hiller, and other composers, including also their letters; and the dictionaries of Busby, Rees, Hiles, Smith, Jousse, Stainer, Brande, Browne, Grove, Rousseau, Choron and Fayolle, Fétis, Escudier, Coussemaker, Castil-Blaze, Forkel, Reissmann, Koch, Ambros, Riemann, Gerker, Bernsdorf, and Mendel, besides a good representation of the Spanish, Italian, and Flemish lexicons.

In the periodical department there are already on the shelves complete files of the *Allgemeine Musikalische Zeitung*, Scudo's *L'Année Musicale*, *Dwight's Journal of Music*, the *Harmonicon* (without which no library would be complete), the Hofmeister series, Chrysander's *Jahrbücher für Musikalische Wissenschaft*, Eitner's *Monatshefte für Musik Geschichte*, the London *Quarterly Musical Magazine*, the *Signale für die Musikalische Welt*, and the *Bayreuther Blätter*, and there are now on the way complete sets of the London *Musical World*, London *Musical Times*, Escudier's *L'Art Musical*, the *Berliner Allgemeine Musikalische Zeitung*, Schumann's *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, Hiller's *Wochentliche Nachrichten*, the *Musikalisches Wochenblatt*, and the *Gazette Musicale*, founded in 1845 by Ricordi at Milan.

In this necessarily incomplete sketch I have omitted all reference to the current publications and those of the last few years. My purpose has been to indicate the great value of the library already to the musical scholar, and to foreshadow the splendid collection which, in a year or two at most, will challenge any library in the country for completeness in every branch of musical research. And when I add that in all the other departments of the library equal taste, culture, and enthusiasm are at work to build it up, and that Mr. Poole is surrounded by a corps of expert assistants, its future usefulness can hardly be overstated. As the work of a single year, its growth is already remarkable.

GEO. P. UPTON.

THE ITALIAN FLEET.

LEGHORN, April 6, 1889.

"THE rise of iron-ship building in Italy is almost a romance," wrote the London *Engineer*, while Sir Charles Dilke, an expert in naval expenditure, is astonished at "how much Italy gets for her money," and shows "that Russia spends more upon her navy than Italy does, yet as a matter of fact the Russian navy is not worth counting by the side of the Italian navy of to-day; that Italy, in addition to the two splendid ships she has at sea, is building or equipping eight first-class sea-going iron-clads as against seven being built by France and eleven by England, and she certainly seems to have, as regards the material of her fleet, achieved remarkable results at a low rate of cost."

If Italy has succeeded in connecting "romance" and iron-ship building, the palm of poetry must be conceded to her in modern as in ancient times; and if this be due, the merit must be shared by all her best and wisest, without any distinction of party, of rank, or of wealth. Here in Leghorn, in the house of the Orlando brothers, where I am writing in the large, long dining-room, built in fifteen days for the guests—Queen Margaret included—invited for the launch of the *Lepanto*, the truth stranger than fiction is forced on one. Throughout 300 years of slavery, Italy's war and commercial navy had declined to zero. But for Nelson, the French fleet would have swept the seas and the Bourbons with their belongings into it: nor did the Revolutionary Government of 1848 realize that not until Italy should regain something of her former strength upon the sea could she hope to hold such liberty and independence as she might gain. Garibaldi's was a voice in the desert till Cavour heard and was penetrated by its urgency. In 1855 the four brothers Orlando, exiled for their participation in the Sicilian revolution, "while waiting for the next summons," set up business as engineers at Pila, between S. Pier d'Arena and Genoa, and in 1855 induced Cavour, then Minister of Public Works, to give them a commission to build an iron-clad. The first iron-clad built in Italy, the *Sicilia*, a paddle steamer, 108 feet long, displacement 200 tons, speed at trial ten knots, was launched successfully, and so pleased Cavour that when the numerous arrests for the Pisacane expedition were made, the Orlando brothers, though neck deep in the conspiracy, went scot free, though warned that "next time, iron-clads or no, they would be banished from the kingdom." Patriots first, then shipbuilders, three out of the four brothers were of the thousand who landed with Garibaldi at Marsala in 1860.

In 1865 they transferred their business to Leghorn, where their iron works now cover a surface of 93,000 square yards, the workshops 26,222, and the docks—constructed with all the latest improvements—50,000 yards. The dry-dock is 443 feet long, there are five building slips, two rail slipways that can launch a ship 333 feet long. Besides the workshops for shipbuilding and boilermaking, the brothers have a foundry with five furnaces, and cranes that lift 38 tons, and they can cast pieces of 40 tons weight. In the building-shop, which measures 440 by 73 feet, supplied with the most modern machinery, there are three travelling cranes of 40 and 20 and 10 tons, an enormous machine that planes a surface of 20 by 17 feet, and a large double lathe with four cutters which can turn a nine-foot diameter. The works are supplied with a large steam crane of 70 tons, 70 feet high, for laying on board boilers, engines, masts, guns, and armor. They employ from 1,200 to 1,600 hands, and the perfect union between masters and men is delightful to see.

In 1876, owing to the failure of the Trinacria company, the brothers had to offer a composition to their creditors. The majority agreed, and gave a long time to pay off the capital and interest, but the small fry refused, and failure seemed inevitable, when Garibaldi, who, to his grief, had accepted the national gift, insisted on their taking part of it as a loan—would accept no refusal, ordering Luigi "to be silent and obey." The firm was saved, and capital and interest were repaid years ago. A few years later the first-class war ship *Lepanto*, displacement 13,550, horse-power 18,000, speed 18 knots, length 400 feet, breadth 73, water draught 28, greatest thickness of armor (on towers) 19 inches, carrying four guns of 103 tons each, was launched triumphantly. Owing to the limited space of water and the great weight of the ship, the direst prophecies were in circulation. The Government quaked, the workmen trembled, their women folk spent treasures to secure the "Madonna's" protection, and during the ceremony said aves and paternosters

aloud. But the brothers—now aided by sons who are certificated engineers of the first class—had spent $60,000 to make all safe on the stocks, and the *Lepanto*, feeling that the future fate of private shipbuilders was at stake, behaved like a true daughter of the soil, quitting it with graceful ease for her native element. We have now just been over the *Fieramosca*, a seventeen-knot vessel of the type of the *Giovanni Bausan*, built by Sir William Armstrong & Co. at Newcastle-on-Tyne. She is to be armed with 25-ton Armstrong breech-loaders, mounted in an unarmored barbette, fore and aft, six 6-inch sponson guns, eight rapid-fire and machine guns, four torpedo tubes. This firm also built the *Clio*, the first torpedo boat built in Italy, and has launched five first-class torpedo boats, two armored gunboats (specially built for river service), the torpedo ram *Vesuvio*, with numerous steamships, gunboats, steam race yachts, despatch vessels, salvage boats, and fresh-water tanks, cutters, etc. And when one private firm has done all this, the rapid progress made by Italy is explained.

The necessity of being strong on the seas is now recognized by all, and can scarcely be expressed more strongly than in the words of Gen. Ricci, late chief of staff of the Italian Army, who in a speech to his constituents in 1887 made, for a soldier, the following remarkable statement:

"Our continental frontier is one of the strongest in the world, because the Alps, fortified as they are, and defended by 250,000 or 300,000 Italians, present an impassable barrier. I even dare say that we are too strong on the side of the Alps, and I wish to again ask the Chamber to economize here as much as possible in order to increase the naval budget, so that we may have enough ships to prevent attack on our coasts, *the weak point—the very weak point—of Italy.* . . . Every time that I, General of the Army and Alpine Deputy, appear in Parliament, I shall say 'All for the Navy.'"

But the country was slow in coming to this conclusion.

After the disaster of Lissa—due not solely to the blundering, irresolute, and timid Admiral, but also to the ignorance (in naval matters) of the Minister of the Navy, and the absence of unity in direction between the land and sea forces—Italian naval construction, instead of increasing, visibly declined. With Venice freed and Rome only to be occupied by "moral force," with crippled finances and universal discontent, the men then in power determined on "economy to the bone," utterly neglected the navy, and, to the disgust of the soldier King, cut down military expenditure to the lowest possible minimum. The Liberals (then in opposition) never ceased to insist on naval constructions and well-defended arsenals, always giving their support to the Minister of the Navy, even when hostile to the Cabinet as a whole. A remarkable instance of this was given in 1875, when the entire Liberal forces were combined to overthrow the Minghetti Ministry on account of its outrageous conduct during the recent elections. Garibaldi had just arrived from Caprera, appearing for the first time in Rome since 1849, and the terrified Ministry placed the city almost in a state of siege. Admiral Bon, who, from the time he assumed the naval office in 1873, had insisted on the inadequacy of the Italian fleet even to defend the coast, and on the insufficiency of the funds allotted, affirmed that the first step to be taken towards naval reform must consist in putting at least thirty-three out of the seventy-three men-of-war then kept in commission under the auctioneer's hammer, and to use the proceeds and the yearly appropriations hitherto uselessly spent in repairing wooden ships and converting iron guns in constructing steel and new iron ships and guns. Garibaldi, who had just taken the oath (the entire House, deputies and spectators, madly acclaiming him), stanchly supported the proposition, and Signor Bon's organic plan of reform was discussed and voted even by the most violent adversaries of the Cabinet.

When, in the following year, the Left seized the helm, the question of fortified arsenals, coast defences, naval constructions, combined with a total reform of the army system, was studied and discussed, and a certain progress was visible yearly—avowedly and actually for strictly defensive action. Italy, being at peace with all the world, calculated on devoting her time and money to internal reforms, to public works, to the development of her commerce and industries, but could not shut her eyes to the fact that republican France was even more hostile to her unity than monarchical France had shown itself, and as hostile to her rising power as the Empire had been after the consolidation of the nation by the conquest of Venice. This hostility was accentuated during the absolute dictatorship of M. Thiers, who had protested vehemently against the war of 1859, who had forced Rouher to the famous assertion that Italy should "never" rule in Rome, and who would willingly have done his very best to turn the Italians out of their capital. Hence a sudden fervor for fortifying Rome; but Garibaldi laughed the Government pretty well out of this absurdity, showing the impossibility of preventing a sudden descent on Rome when once an army had succeeded in landing:

"This army," he observed drily, "will not walk within range of your guns on Mount Mario! Hence you must fortify all the seven hills, and, when you have done this, must erect an outer system of forts. And even then? Think of the fortifications of Paris; of what use were they? And pray how long did the terrible fortifications of Nicopoli prevent the passage of the Danube? Your coast and islands are undefended, accessible to all who want to land. You must be able to blockade the enemy, to prevent him from issuing from his ports to attack yours, and this you can only do by creating a fleet worthy of our nation. You are ruining us by your useless army expenditure. The armed nation is your only resource, and until you *do* adopt the American or Swiss system, as long as you *will* have a standing army,* stick to short service and long reserves; don't keep a twentieth part of your men under the colors, stultifying them in barracks and depriving the soil of their labors, but give them military instruction in their own homes, drill and discipline them, encourage target-shooting, let every able-bodied male know how to handle a rifle or a carbine. This for the infantry. The 'special' arms—artillery, cavalry, engineers—must be brought to perfection; but remember that the *most special* arm for Italy is her navy. In neglecting her navy Italy is deliberately committing suicide."

Italy's political situation must be taken quite as much into account as her geographical configuration, when we come to examine the class of war ships which she has set herself to produce. While not pretending to dominate the Mediterranean, she cannot allow it to become a "French lake," must have a fleet sufficiently powerful to hold her own without allies against a French fleet which threatens her from Toulon, Corsica, and now from Biserta. Again, if, as at present, she be allied with great Continental Powers, her fleet is just as essential to prevent a foreign fleet from hindering her mobilization and from destroying her railroads, all of which can be reached from the sea. Hence, her resolve to possess a few first-class ships, with all-powerful ordnance, the utmost possible speed and utmost capacity of coal-bunkers. Her abandonment of side armor as a protection to stability has been severely criticised by some great authorities and highly praised by others. She believes that her monster iron-clads are the only true defenders of her extended, defenceless coast from bombardment or invasion, and counts not a little on her numerous torpedo boats for attacking the bottoms of the enemy's ships. Her first monsters were the *Duilio* and the *Dandolo*, central citadel battle ships of 11,000 tons each, speed fifteen knots, with four 100-ton guns in turrets. These ships are 346 feet in length, the armored belt 107 feet long. Later, the naval authorities demurred at the deficiency of coal endurance of ships of this type—a fatal defect this for *coalless* Italy, borne in later on their minds by England's rigid adherence to the laws of neutrality in refusing permission to France to coal at her coaling-stations during the war with China. So the *Italia* was planned, and is, with her successors, placed by Lloyd's in their Universal Register as "sea-going armor-clads." They carry lofty armored towers and a curved armor deck, "just," says Mr. King, "to keep out shot and shell from the engines and boilers, the magazines, shell-room spaces, and the channels leading therefrom to the upper deck, and to protect the guns in the casemate when not elevated above the battery and the gunners employed in firing them. But all other parts of the ship above the armored deck, all the guns not in the casemate, and all persons out of the casemate and not below the armored deck, will be exposed to the enemy's projectiles." This abandonment of side armor is defended by the majority of Italian naval authorities. The *Re Umberto*, *Sicilia*, *Sardegna* are identical. The attention Italy is paying to her torpedo fleet has called forth the following remark from a French retired admiral, who writes to M. Branda, author of 'Réformes Navales—La France sur l'Océan': "We are ready for nothing; we have nothing, not even twenty-five torpedo boats to range alongside our iron-clads, a kind of tortoise out of which we drag ten or eleven knots with difficulty, *and which are going to have to deal with the Italian fleet* backed by a hundred torpedo boats in fighting trim and steaming fifteen to eighteen knots."

To show Italy's progress in naval construction, we may put the situation of the royal navy at the end of 1886 thus: First-class iron-clads 18, second-class 3; first-class transports, store and troop ships 4, second-class 4, third-class 11; training ships 3; for local uses 11; gunboats 6; high-sea torpedoes 2; first-class torpedo boats 62, second-class 21; total, 179. During the year 1888 the following war ships were launched from royal dockyards and private home and foreign shipbuilding yards: *Principe Umberto*, first-class, 13,298 tons, built at Castellamare; torpedo ram, *Fieramosca*, 3,745 tons, Orlando brothers; torpedo ram, *Piedmont*, 2,500 tons, built by Armstrong, Newcastle; two torpedo cruisers, *Montebello* and *Monzambano*, 741 tons each, built at the royal arsenal at Spezia; five torpedo despatch-boats of 129 tons each, viz., *Aquila*, *Avoltojo*, *Falco*, *Nibbio*, *Sparviero;* the gunboat *Curtatone*, 1,050 tons, at Venice; 35 high-sea torpedoes, 85 tons each; 2 first-class coasting torpedoes, 34 tons each. Nearly completed, commenced in 1885, are the first-class iron-clad *Sardegna*, 13,860 tons, royal arsenal, Spezia; the *Sicilia*, 13,298 tons, laid down in 1884, royal arsenal, Venice; the torpedo cruiser *Confienza*,

* Such was Garibaldi's horror of standing armies that, even as he had watched with intense anxiety for the preservation of the Union and for the abolition of slavery, so, after the final triumph, he watched with equal keenness for the return to the *status quo ante bellum*. "If the United States maintain a standing army, it will be their ruin. Armed men want to fight for fighting's sake," he said.

745 tons, royal arsenal, Spezia. The *Doria* and *Morosini* iron-clads of 11,000 tons each, launched in 1888, are now arming. The following ships were laid down in 1888 and are on the stocks in the royal and private dockyards: torpedo despatch-boat *Marco Polo*, 3,759 tons; cruisers, *Lombardia*, *Liguria*, *Umbria*, and *Etruria*, 2,281 each; torpedo cruisers *Aretusa*, *Minerva*, *Urania*, *Partenope* A and B, 845 tons each, and a towboat.

Hence Italy last year launched 56 war ships of 26,300 tons total; 12 vessels of 18,021 tons were laid down; while seven ships of 50,129 tons laid down or launched before 1888 are being armed and equipped.

Side by side with her shipbuilding and gun fabricating, or purchasing, the Italians are paying the utmost attention to the enrolment and instruction of marines, and especially to the education and practical training of naval officers. In the Naval Academy, which we have just visited, 315 youths are distributed into five classes. Those who are to be naval engineers must pass two years in the University of Genoa. "Young Italy on the seas" may yet prove a trusty friend, a dangerous foe.

J. W. M.

BERNADOTTE'S QUEEN.

MARSEILLES, March 9, 1889.

THE recent death of Count François Clary, ex-Senator of the Empire, naturally brings up remembrances of the Clary family, which—except, of course, the Bonapartes—was, on the whole, the most distinguished of the new families created by the French Revolution. Its founder was also François Clary, a wealthy merchant of Marseilles who died in 1794, before the social fortune of his family had been dreamed of. He had two sons, one of whom succeeded to the business, and four daughters. Of these one married a member of the well-known family of Villeneuve; another, Baron Antoine de St. Joseph, a remarkable economist, who belonged to a family of magistrates, and had distinguished himself by travels and commercial combinations. He lived at Constantinople for ten years as head of a commercial house, and finally projected a commercial alliance between Russia, Poland, and France to develop French commerce with the Black Sea. The idea was warmly taken up by Catharine II., and was adopted by the French Government on the recommendation of the Abbé Raynal, with the aid of Count de Ségur; and it was successful. Timber and other merchandise were brought by the Dnieper, the Black Sea, and the Mediterranean to Marseilles in three months, which, by the old route of the Baltic and the ocean, would have taken three years to arrive. Antoine amassed a large fortune, and in 1786 was made a Baron. One of his daughters married Marshal Suchet, Duc d'Albuféra; the other, the Admiral Duc Décrès, Napoleon's Minister of Marine. François Clary's third daughter, Julie, married Joseph Bonaparte, and was Queen of Naples and of Spain. The fourth daughter, Désirée, married Bernadotte and died Queen of Sweden. His niece—the sister of the just deceased Count François Clary—married the Prince de Wagram, son of Marshal Berthier; and since then the Clarys have become allied with the Murats, the Niels, the Turennes, the La Croix-Lavals, and other distinguished families both of the Imperialist and the Legitimist aristocracy.

Baron Hochschild has recently published a little book, 'Désirée, Reine de Suède et de Norvège' (Paris: Plon, 1888). As the author had seen much of the Queen's circle at Paris when he was a boy—his father being Swedish Minister there under the Restoration—and as he was subsequently for many years her chamberlain, he is able from her conversations and letters to tell us much that is new and interesting. Bernardine Eugénie Désirée Clary was born in 1781, and was early sent to a conventual school; but her education was arrested by the suppression of the convents, and soon after her return home her father died. She had but slight recollections of her child-life at home, except when chance brought up some incident. On one of these she liked afterwards to dwell. There came one day to her father's house a quartermaster-sergeant with a billet for quartering soldiers. As her father hated the row and disturbance which soldiers generally made, he sent him off with a letter to his colonel asking for an officer or two instead. The sergeant thus turned off was Bernadotte. In 1794, after her father's death, her elder brother was arrested. Her sister-in-law was in despair, for the Revolutionary tribunals were terribly expeditious. She resolved, therefore, to go and see the Deputy Albitte; and, not wishing to be alone, took Désirée with her. There was a crowd of people in the waiting-room, and, owing to weariness, heat, and emotion, the little girl fell asleep. When she woke up at the noise of a door being shut, she found herself in total darkness, except for a lantern shining from the adjoining room. As it turned out, her sister had hesitated to awake her when she went in to see the Deputy; and then, being in a great hurry to deliver the order for her husband's release, had left her, thinking she could easily find her way home.

"Meanwhile, I was somewhat frightened, not understanding at all my situation, when I perceived that I was no longer alone. At the movement which I made, a man, who came out of the Deputy's room, approached me, and, looking at me with surprise, asked how I came to be there all alone at that hour. When I explained to him what had happened, he reassured me about the fate of my brother, and added: 'A little lady like you cannot go alone in the streets at night, so I will walk home with you.' On the way home we talked so much that we became very good friends. As he went away, I said that my mother would certainly like to thank him herself for the care he had taken of me, and begged him to call upon her. 'Then you will present me to your family one of these days?' he said. 'With pleasure,' I replied; 'meanwhile I should like to tell them the name of the gentleman who has protected me this evening.' 'That is perfectly right—you may tell them that my name is Joseph Bonaparte.'"

The call was made the next day: Bonaparte soon became intimate with the Clary family, and before many weeks had passed was engaged to marry Désirée as soon as she should reach the age of sixteen—she being then only about thirteen. Joseph often spoke about his brother Napoleon, who had just drawn attention to himself at the siege of Toulon. When, soon after, he came to Marseilles, he was taken to see the Clarys. He was at that time full of noisy gayety and quite a good fellow.

"His arrival," Queen Désirée related, "soon brought about a change in our plans for the future. We had not known each other long when he said: 'In a good household one of the married pair ought to yield to the other. Now, Joseph, you have an undecided character, and it is the same with Désirée; while Julie and I know what we want. You would do better, then, to marry Julie; and, Désirée,' he added (taking me on his knees), 'she shall be my wife.' And that is the way that I became betrothed to Napoleon."

Joseph and Julie were married soon after; and before Napoleon's departure from Marseilles—where he had excited against himself great difficulties, and had even been called to appear before the bar of the Convention—Mme. Clary had consented to his marriage with Désirée as soon as she should be sixteen. Napoleon and Désirée at first wrote often to each other; but of this correspondence there are preserved only the drafts of some of her letters. He was taken up with his affairs at Paris, and his letters to his fiancée became less frequent, though he never wrote to Joseph without mentioning her. She had then gone with her mother to stay with Joseph, who had been charged with a Government mission at Genoa. Meanwhile, Napoleon had fallen in love with Mme. de Beauharnais, and his letters to his brother showed more indifference to his little Désirée—or his Eugénie, as he preferred to call her. At the same time he had a little pique because, in 1795, during a journey in Liguria, she, either offended by his apparent neglect or alarmed at reports of his intimacy with Mme. de Beauharnais, had for a time ceased writing to him. He asked Joseph in one letter whether one passed the river Lethe in going to Genoa; and advised him not to give the portrait which he had sent "to one who seemed to have forgotten him, unless she asked for it again." Désirée, however, was not as inconstant as Napoleon imagined. She told afterwards how much she had suffered from his abandonment of her; and her young friends, to whom she had evidently communicated her sorrows, were satisfied of the same thing. When Napoleon married Josephine, Désirée, who was only fourteen, wrote him a touching letter, such as an older person would probably not have written:

"After a year of absence, I thought I was nearly happy, and was hoping to see you again soon and become the happiest of women in marrying you. But no! your marriage has made all my felicity vanish. It is true that I was in the wrong towards you; but you would have found me again so tender, so constant, that I was daring to flatter myself that you would pardon me everything. The day of your leaving Marseilles was very painful for me; but at least I had the hope of being one day married to you. Now the only consolation that remains to me is to know that you believe in my constancy; after which I desire only death. Life is a frightful torment to me since I can no longer consecrate it to you. I wish you all sorts of happiness and prosperity in your marriage; and hope that the wife you have chosen will render you as happy as I purposed to do, and as you deserve. But in the midst of your happiness do not altogether forget Eugénie, and pity her lot."

Wounds of the heart—especially at that early age—are soon healed; but although Désirée forgave Napoleon, she always kept a little grudge against Josephine, who had taken him from her. Sixty years afterwards she says:

"For a man of genius like Napoleon to let himself be subdued by an elderly coquette of notably doubtful repute, proves him without any experience of women. Even after his second marriage, Josephine made herself talked about, and it was not without good reason that her husband required her to join him during the Italian campaign, and that on his return from Egypt he determined to separate from her."

Mme. Clary and her daughter continued to live in Genoa as long as Joseph Bonaparte remained there, and Désirée became very intimate with Mme. Faipoult, the wife of the French Minister, who had a charming salon, frequented by all well-bred French who had taken refuge in Genoa, and by many officers of the army of Italy. Here General Duphot paid court to her, but his addresses were rejected. Faipoult, who was interested in Duphot, was anxious to forward his prospects by a marriage not only brilliant from a pecuniary point of view, but on account of the relationship to Bonaparte, and succeeded in having Duphot attached to Joseph Bonaparte's embassy to Rome, besides obtaining a promise from Désirée to

receive him politely. Duphot had meanwhile communicated to Napoleon his hopes and wishes, and the latter—doubtless desirous that his old love should marry as soon as possible—wrote to his brother: "General Duphot will deliver to you this letter. I recommend him to you as a very good fellow. He will speak to you of a marriage which he wishes to make with your sister-in-law, an alliance which I think to her advantage; he is a distinguished officer."

Whatever might have happened—and there were serious obstacles in the shape of an illegitimate child of Duphot—his death put an end to everything. The arrival of an embassy from the French Republic caused a crowd to assemble in the neighborhood of their palace and make manifestations against the Papal Government. On the evening of December 27, 1797, the Papal troops interfered and fired on the mob. Joseph Bonaparte, Duphot, and Adjutant-General Sherlock went out to stop the conflict. Duphot was simply massacred by the soldiers; the others had barely time to reënter the house. His body was afterwards recovered and brought in. Joseph Bonaparte, in describing the event to Talleyrand, says: "My wife and her sister, who was going to be next day the bride of the brave Duphot, were forcibly carried away by my secretaries and two young artists." Baron Hochschild in 1856 read aloud to Queen Désirée the correspondence of Joseph Bonaparte, and the Queen interrupted him with: "But that is not true; Joseph merely wanted to make a fine phrase. I should never have married Duphot, who did not at all please me." Désirée left Rome with Joseph Bonaparte immediately afterwards. Her stay there had been so short that she had not even had time to go to St. Peter's; and her sole recollection of Rome was the terrible scene she had witnessed from the top of the staircase of the French Embassy, when the mangled body of Duphot was brought in.

On her return to France, her beauty, her wealth, and her connection with the Bonapartes brought her numbers of admirers. One of the proposals for her hand is charmingly told. After his return from Iceland in 1856, Prince Napoleon came to Stockholm accompanied by the Duc d'Abrantès (son of Junot), who asked for a private audience of the Queen Dowager Désirée. When it was over, Hochschild found her thoughtful and dreamy. "To think," she said, "that I could have married his father! There was a time when Junot proposed to me, but he was awkward about it, and asked Marmont to do it for him. Ah! if Marmont had spoken in his own name—who knows? I should perhaps have said 'Yes'; he was so handsome."

In 1798, Bernadotte, who was then a general of division, had been Ambassador at Vienna, and was soon to be Minister of War—no longer the Sergeant Bernadotte who had knocked in vain for lodgings at the door of the Clary house at Marseilles, but who was now intimate with Joseph Bonaparte—proposed to Désirée. She did not know him well, but, as she said, "he was something different from the others I had refused, and I consented to marry him when they told me that he was a strong enough man to hold his own against Napoleon." The marriage took place on August 17, 1798. Napoleon was in Egypt, and used no influence in the matter. When he heard of it he wrote to Joseph: "I wish happiness to Désirée if she marries Bernadotte, for she deserves it."

The Bernadottes settled in Paris, and the next year their only son was born, who was afterwards known as King Oscar I. Happy, both as a wife and mother, Désirée saw Napoleon, after his return from Egypt, without embarrassment, and their relations always remained very cordial. She several times had the power of warding off his wrath from men who, he thought, opposed his plans. But Bernadotte, being a good general, had frequently to be absent; and Désirée would have passed a lonely time had she not, in addition to her child, had the society of her sister Julie. The letters of Bernadotte to his wife, written when he commanded in La Vendée, are interesting, because they show him rather as a paternal friend and counsellor—he was twenty years older—than as a husband, although there is occasionally noticeable a little marital jealousy. Bernadotte himself gave no cause to his wife to be jealous, which seems to have piqued Mme. Récamier, to whom he was apparently devoted. "Explain to me," she said one day to Mme. Bernadotte, "how it happens that whenever your husband chances to be alone with me in the woods, he always talks about politics." It is amusing, too, to find that, three years after her marriage, Mme. Bernadotte was taking music and dancing lessons, to the great delight of her husband, who was anxious to have her complete her education.

The proclamation of the Empire and the promotion of Bernadotte to be Marshal made little impression on his wife. She had seen so many extraordinary things since she was a child that everything seemed natural. So also, when he was made Prince of Pontecorvo—though she feared for a moment that it would be her duty to settle in Italy, according to the wish of a deputation from the little principality, until she was told that it was merely a title, without responsibility. When Bernadotte was sent as governor to Hanover, and afterwards to Hamburg as commander-in-chief, they were separated for a long time, but they were in constant correspondence, and she was able to keep him informed of everything going on in France. At this time she lived quietly in the hôtel which they had bought in the Rue d'Anjou St.-Honoré, and enjoyed the society of sisters, nieces, and other friends who, for political and various reasons, did not care to frequent the gayeties of the Tuileries and St. Cloud. Although her relations with Napoleon were always pleasant—he even gave her one of the three splendid fur cloaks presented to him by the Czar Alexander at the interview at Erfurt—her antipathy to the Empress Josephine and to Queen Hortense kept her from the Tuileries except on official occasions. She had parted regretfully from her sister Julie on the latter becoming Queen of Naples, but as Julie refused to follow her husband to Spain, the intercourse of the sisters was constant till 1814, when the Bonapartes were expelled from France.

After the battle of Wagram, Napoleon openly showed his dislike to Bernadotte; but a partial reconciliation was patched up, and the latter was appointed Ambassador to Rome in order to get him out of the way. Before he had started for his post, however, he was elected Crown Prince of Sweden. His wife received the news with perfect indifference; she had never interested herself about foreign countries except Italy and Spain, and would probably have been puzzled to tell where Sweden was situated. "I thought," she said, "that it was like Pontecorvo—some place of which we were merely going to take the title." She was in despair when she found that she was to go and live there and be separated from her family and friends. Nevertheless, she resigned herself, and arrived at Stockholm soon after her husband. Although she was touched by the old King's reception of her, yet she could not resist the temptation of returning to Paris, especially as none of her French ladies were willing to stay in Sweden. Bernadotte did not oppose her departure. We do not know his exact reasons: he may not have felt sure of his position in Sweden so long as the dispossessed Prince of Vasa was alive and the political relations of the Continent were unsettled; but we know that he felt sure that the Empire of Napoleon would not endure for long. He may have had some ambition to be Napoleon's successor; at all events, Bourrienne says that the Emperor Alexander gave him to understand at the interview at Abo in 1812 that the fall of Napoleon would not necessitate the return of the Bourbons, and that if Frenchmen should offer him supreme power, he could count on the assistance of Russia.

The Crown Princess, under the name of Countess of Gotland, returned to her old hôtel in Paris, which she continued to occupy for thirteen years. She received not only her old friends, but all the Swedes of distinction who passed through Paris. She was in constant correspondence with her husband, informed him of what was going on, and was on several occasions intermediary between him and French political men. Her position in 1813-14, after Bernadotte had alienated French sympathy by taking part against Napoleon, was a difficult one. The person whom she saw with most pleasure, outside of her intimate circle, was the Queen of Westphalia, "who was," she used to say, "a good-hearted woman, always ready to sacrifice herself to duty. Although our husbands were in opposite camps, she never ceased showing to me her sympathy and friendship." When, after the Restoration, Louis XVIII. had expressed a desire to be agreeable to her, she thought she might interfere in favor of her sister, the ex-Queen of Spain. But the King was inexorable.

Charles XIII. died in 1818; but the new Queen constantly saw reasons for adjourning her departure from Paris. She said one day, speaking of music: "I was playing the overture to the 'Caliph of Bagdad' when the death of the King was announced to me; since then, I have never touched my piano, thinking that when one is Queen one ought not to play badly." In 1822 she went to Aix-la-Chapelle to meet her son Oscar, who was then travelling on the Continent; it not having been considered best for him to enter France. She had not seen him for twelve years, and found him a handsome young man. The few days they passed together probably hastened her departure for Sweden. She then went to Brussels to meet her sister Julie Bonaparte, who had obtained especial permission to come there for the marriage of her daughter Zenaïde with her cousin Charles. As she wished to prolong her stay there, the Queen of Sweden wrote to Mme. de Récamier to use her influence to that end with her friend Mathieu de Montmorency, then Minister of Foreign Affairs. Before returning to Paris, she went to Switzerland and stayed some time at Prangins. While there, she received the news of the betrothal of her son with the Princess Josephine de Leuchtenberg, the eldest daughter of Eugène Beauharnais. The marriage by proxy took place at Munich; and at the same time Queen Désirée left Paris so as to meet her daughter-in-law at Lubeck and arrive at Stockholm with her. Josephine was at that time barely sixteen years of age, and took with her her favorite doll.

The Queen had had every intention of returning to Paris, but the King would not allow it. Although they had been separated from each other during nearly the whole twenty-five years of their wedded life, the King had a great respect and affection for her. He was,

however, unaccustomed to family life; and although Prince Oscar and his wife inhabited the same palace, they all had separate suites of apartments. Gradually she accustomed herself to this life of isolation, which she felt all the more on account of her ignorance of Swedish, and of the lack of French society. A southerner of southerners, she could not find the persons who surrounded her sufficiently sympathetic; and her great resource was to think and talk of her dear Paris, where her hôtel stood ready to receive her at any moment. The birth of numerous grandchildren gradually filled the void of her life; but once, after the death of her husband, she actually started to return to Paris on a frigate commanded by her grandson the Duke of Ostragothia, the present King Oscar. But, after getting a few leagues from Carlscrona, she felt herself unable to leave her land of adoption and returned. She afterwards pretended that this was only due to sea-sickness. Although she knew that she never should see Paris again, she became much alarmed by the plans of Baron Haussmann for the embellishment of the city. She could not bear the thought that the house where she had spent the pleasantest years of her life should be demolished. The Emperor Napoleon, hearing of her anxiety from his Minister at Stockholm, gave orders that her house should be respected until her death. This occurred peacefully and quietly on December 17, 1860, after she had already seen her grandson crowned King of Sweden. E. S.

Correspondence.

SOUTH CAROLINA CONVICTS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comments on my reply to your article, "Negro Convicts in South Carolina," after remarking that no one should "be sent to prison for even five years for stealing ten pounds of flour or a suit of clothes," you ask, "Can our correspondent point to the case of any white man receiving such a punishment?"

In answer to this inquiry, I send you, enclosed, a brief statement of such cases, given me by the Superintendent of the Penitentiary of this State. Among these cases I call your special attention to three: (1) John G. Jackson is sentenced to the Penitentiary for life for burglary, although in the act of burglary he succeeds in stealing nothing but a fiddle; (2) Thomas Cullen receives the same punishment for the same offence, though he succeeds in stealing only a pair of pants and $27; (3) P. B. Chappell, for stealing grain not yet severed from the freehold, is sentenced to one year's imprisonment. He is "said to have stolen twelve ears of corn from his own land which he had rented out to a colored man."

These, and all the cases given in the Superintendent's letter, are white men, and go to show that white men suffer the penalties of the severe laws against burglary and arson as well as the negroes. Whether these laws are too severe, I will not undertake to say; that question is foreign to my present purpose. Each State, in the light of its own experiences, will have to settle such questions for itself. South Carolina, for example, has very rigid laws governing the marriage relation—laws so severe that it is certain no Northern State would put up with them. We are "amenable to outside criticism of a disinterested and friendly kind." Unfortunately, not very much of this sort of criticism comes to us from the North; and even when it is of this character, it so often utterly ignores the conditions under which we live, that it is of no practical worth to us.

My remark about the gradual diminution of crime had reference only to the period between 1876 and 1883, as you will see by referring to my article. My object was to show why, in the latter year, the laws were relaxed and the punishment mitigated. But since about that time, crime seems to have increased—whether in consequence of such relaxation and mitigation I do not know. Certainly "the matter deserves further investigation." Such "further investigation" might reveal the fact that the punishments inflicted have no great terrors for the negroes. It might be discovered that a little Delaware justice (the whipping-post) would be more effectual than imprisonment in the Penitentiary. It is certain that some negroes have committed crimes *in order to* go to prison, where they might be fed and clothed without care to themselves, and might be relieved of the responsibility of providing food and clothing for their wives and children.

And there are other things that deserve "further investigation." Among these is the fact that insanity is increasing among the negroes, the increase in insanity being almost parallel with the increase in crime. There is no lack of phenomena in this race that "deserve investigation," and we welcome all investigation and criticism, "of a disinterested and friendly kind," that will enable us to do what is best for the collective interests of the people of our State.—Very respectfully,

W. J. Alexander.

University of South Carolina, April 24, 1889.

HIGH LICENSE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the issue of the *Nation* for April 25, you say, in reference to the operation of the so-called high-license law of Pennsylvania, "The single fact that there are in a city like Pittsburgh eleven wards almost entirely without a liquor saloon, is of itself an unanswerable argument in favor of the high-license principle as an effective agency for restricting the liquor traffic." This statement unless explained is calculated to create a false impression, and do not a little harm at the present time, when the merits of high license and prohibition are being contrasted in so many minds.

The Brooks law of Pennsylvania is not called a high-license law, and does not diminish the saloons upon "the high-license principle." The amount of the license fee is comparatively low, being $500, as compared with $1,000 and $1,200 in certain Western States. The amount of the license fee does not in the least degree act as a check to the increase of the saloons in Pennsylvania. The notable decrease of saloons in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh is due to the operation of certain prohibitory features engrafted in the law. The chief of these is the discretionary power given to the judges to refuse a license to a man even when he is able and willing to pay the license fee. The judges in Philadelphia are hearing the applications for licenses at the present time, and a far greater number of applications are being made than there is any prospect of their granting. It seems evident, then, that this diminution of the saloons of Philadelphia and Pittsburgh cannot be said to be "an unanswerable argument in favor of the high-license principle," when the law is not known in its title as a high-license law, when, as a matter of fact, it does not call for a high-license fee, and when, also, it is apparent that the amount of the fee has nothing to do with the diminishing of the saloons.

It could be shown that in other portions of Pennsylvania this same Brooks law has, in the hands of judges who favored the liquor interests, actually increased the number of the saloons; and it could be further shown that in Nebraska, where the license fee is twice as large as in Pennsylvania, the saloons have flourished under it, and grown to be a controlling influence in certain portions of the State. My contention at present, however, is, that the operation of the Brooks law in Pennsylvania cannot be fairly quoted as an argument in favor of high license.

I trust that you will give to this letter the same publicity that was given to the statement that called it forth.—Yours respectfully,

Alex. Henry.

Frankford, Pa., April 25, 1889.

THE THREE-MILE LIMIT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The comment of "R.," of Halifax, on my little paper on the so-called three-mile limit caused that natural and proper sense of mortification when one has ventured to be a teacher, however humbly, and finds he was entirely ignorant. On reading the comment, and assuming the quotations correct, I saw their inconsistency with the passage I had quoted. I knew there could be none, and that it was my incapacity to harmonize them. It would never occur to me in the height of my presumption to question the correctness of such men as Sir Alexander Cockburn as a lawyer because I cannot understand him. To men of the class of Eldon, Kingsdown, Wensleydale, and Cockburn, etc., I bow as a devout Catholic before an inscrutable dogma. My experience is that ultimately I am rewarded by the full fruition of understanding. I have meditated for twenty years over one of these men's sayings before I fully appreciated their profound meaning.

Judge, then, of my gratification at finding that the excerpts establish my position, if read as I read them, and as I am quite confident they should be read.

Sir Robert Philimore's remark, p. 81 (2 Ex. Div.) refers to the neutral zone of three miles about which no one ever questioned. It is a limit within which warlike operations are forbidden because of the risk to the neighboring land and its inhabitants.

The quotation from Sir Alexander, p. 205, is a statement not of the law as it is, but of what it *would be* if there was the jurisdiction assumed by "R.," but which Sir Alexander is then denying. This is perfectly clear if the context is looked at. He is explaining why the arrangements about fishermen have always been made by treaty—because it is proper that there should be such a power to regulate, *but there is none*, and hence the treaty.

The citation from 208 is odd if "R." be a lawyer, whether English or American. The Chief Justice says no more than, If Parliament sees fit to legislate, of course we the judges will obey. He is referring then to the English doctrine of the omnipotence of Parliament. And please observe, the point under discussion was the intention of the law. Could it be supposed that the criminal law of England governed a foreigner in a foreign ship, because she was within three miles of the coast? He was pointing out that Parliament might so enact, and if it did, the courts must obey—for it was for Parliament, and not the courts, to say whether England would enact a law that would give a just cause of war to Germany.

I think any one who will reflect must see (which was my point) that the existence or non-existence of the criminal law of a country at a particlar place depends entirely and absolutely

on jurisdiction—and C.-J. Marshall has said *this is of necessity exclusive.* R. C. W.

PHILADELPHIA, April 27, 1889.

MR. PEARSON'S TREATMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You speak of the minuteness of your article on Henry G. Pearson in the *Nation* of this date. Forgive me for saying it is not nearly minute enough, because it fails to set forth in detail the manner in which "he was left to struggle and perish." Pray resume the subject, and tell us all you know about it, for you will thus render a service not only to your immediate readers, but to the whole country that is still waiting to be trained in civil-service reform. SAMUEL ELIOT.

BOSTON, April 25, 1889.

[Our knowledge of Mr. Pearson's trials was in large part communicated to us orally by himself. To reproduce them in detail would require access to his correspondence, official and private. Even if we had this now, it would hardly do to anticipate the memorial of his life and services which we trust his family will some day give to the public. It is a duty which we hope his father-in-law, Mr. James, and his widow will not neglect. —ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A SECOND series of papers by Sir John Lubbock, entitled 'Pleasures of Life,' and a new volume, 'London Life, and Other Stories,' by Henry James, will be published directly by Macmillan & Co.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have ready for immediate publication 'The Beginnings of New England: The Puritan Theocracy in its Relations to Civil and Religious Liberty,' by John Fiske; 'Washington as a Statesman,' in two volumes of the "American Statesmen" series, by Henry Cabot Lodge; and 'The Cup of Youth,' a new volume of poems by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell.

Longmans, Green & Co. will shortly publish the life of C. B. Vignoles, an English civil engineer who was assistant surveyor in South Carolina in 1817-20, and who surveyed and mapped Florida a little later. He aided Ericsson in building the *Novelty* as a rival to Stephenson's *Rocket*, and he became one of the foremost of English railway engineers.

Ginn & Co. have in preparation for their "Classics for Children" series 'Heroic Ballads and Poems,' and 'The Two Great Retreats of History,' viz., Xenophon's (in Grote's narrative) and Napoleon's from Moscow (as related by the Comte de Ségur).

Our countryman, Dr. L. H. Mills, 19 Norham Road, Oxford, England, is to issue by subscription his work on the Gâthas of Zoroaster, during the present year or early in 1890. The price of the book, delivered in the United States or Canada, is $7.50.

A new 'Deutsches Wörterbuch,' by Prof. Moriz Heyne, in three volumes, is about to be issued by S. Hirzel, Leipzig (New York: F. W. Christern). It will be more handy and less discursive than Grimm or Sanders, and proposes to itself to fill the place of Webster in English lexicography. It has been ten years in preparation.

Alphonse Daudet's 'Recollections of a Literary Man' ('Souvenirs d'un Homme des Lettres'), translated by Laura Ensor, and published by George Routledge & Sons, is a collection of pieces of which, we think, none are new, and most are from ten to twenty years old. There are sketches of Ollivier and Gambetta, both very slight, and of various actors and actresses, still slighter in texture; some account of the genesis of 'Numa Roumestan' and 'Les Rois en Exil'; some war sketches; and an account of a morning reading at Edmond de Goncourt's, which is much the best thing in the book. But there is nothing in it that seems to us nearly so good as the best parts of 'Trente ans de Paris,' and especially nothing to approach the immortal history of that first dress-coat. Nevertheless, the reader is permitted to see, even in this volume, some of those traits of Alphonse Daudet which have made him to be loved by his friends even more than he is admired.

Under the punning title of 'La Divine Comédie . . . Française,' M. Maxime Boucheron has recently published (Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: F. W. Christern) a lively little book about the Théâtre-Français, its organization and its artists. It is gossip set down by a writer not without the critical faculty; and it has scattered through its pages a host of amusing little cuts, most of them with a taste of not unkindly caricature.

'In Memory of John McCullough' is the title of a thin volume recently printed by the De Vinne Press in an edition of 500 copies. It contains a sketch of the actor's career and character by Mr. William Winter, who contributes also two poems. The funeral oration of Mr. Harry Edwards, the address of Mr. W. F. Johnson, and the oration of Mr. Steele Mackaye at the dedication of the monument are also included. There is a photogravure from life for a frontispiece. Altogether, the volume is a worthy and dignified memorial of an actor of high ambition and strenuous endeavor.

A very neatly printed volume contains five 'Short Comedies for Amateur Players,' adapted and arranged by Mrs. Burton Harrison (De Witt Publishing House). It is to be regretted that the titles of the French originals are never given, and the names of the French authors only once. The proof of the amateur play is in the acting; and these little pieces have been repeatedly performed by the amateur players of New York and elsewhere. Quite the best of them is "Weeping Wives." As there has been no attempt to localize its story, the duel which unties the knot at the end of the play is quite natural, while that supposed to take place in New York in "Tea at Four o'Clock" is not.

Mr. Charles Thomas Jacobi has followed his 'Printer's Handbook' with 'The Printer's Vocabulary' (London: The Chiswick Press), which he declares to be a collection of some 2,500 technical terms mostly relating to letter-press printing, "many of which have been in use since the time of Caxton." Mr. Jacobi's book lacks the pleasant literary flavor of M. Boutmy's 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Verte Typographique,' and it is British and insular to the last degree. We find, for example, the absurd word *forme*, which seems to be the new-fangled English fashion of spelling *form*. We understand that Mr. Theodore L. De Vinne has revised and set in order the printer's vocabulary for the new 'Century Dictionary.'

That there is not honor among thieves is well known, and it is equally indisputable that piracy leads to cutthroat competition. The latest instance of this is to be seen in England, where the shilling reprint of 'John Ward, Preacher,' issued by F. Warne & Co., has been followed up by a sixpenny reprint issued by Ward, Lock & Tyler. As a rule, the British pirate, if less numerous than his American fellow-craftsmen, is also less scrupulous; but Messrs. Warne & Co. followed an American precedent, and acknowledged the author's moral rights, by sending a check to Mrs. Deland, who promptly forwarded it to Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co., the authorized English publishers of 'John Ward, Preacher,' requesting that they send it back at once to Warne & Co.

It is several years since we noticed among the American novels of the day 'Divorce,' by Margaret Lee. A new edition of it comes to us from Frank F. Lovell & Co., and is accounted for by a laudatory notice of it by Mr. Gladstone in the *Nineteenth Century* for February last. Mr. Gladstone even prompted an English edition. Nothing is more curious than the rôle which European statesmen now play as promoters of the fortunes of books—Mr. Gladstone in particular, and Bismarck also, as in the case of the 'Buchholz Family.' We have in vain asked ourselves what American statesman could send people in shoals to the circulating library for a work of fiction, or would be thought a competent critic in belles-lettres. By this remark we intend nothing disparaging. We remember once to have had our literary censure controverted by a Philadelphian, on the ground of the favorable opinion entertained of the book in question by the late Mr. Horace Binney. This seemed to us then a note of provincialism, the book not being in the line in which Mr. Binney had won a very enviable distinction.

The only fault we have to find with the guide-book called 'The New Jersey Coast and Pines' (Short Hills, N. J.: Gustav Kobbé) is, that it stops short, so far as the coast is concerned, with Atlantic City, leaving the reach from that point to Cape May without a chronicle. But this lower portion is rather in the province of Philadelphia than of New York, Mr. Kobbé's point of departure. The little book has been carefully prepared from personal visitation and from historical research, and is very interesting reading. Its road-maps are based on the great Atlas of the State Geological Survey. There are a number of "process" illustrations, which we could wish the success of the guide-book might some day replace with photographic views. In fact, an interleaved edition, to accommodate local scenes caught by amateurs with the camera, would, we think, prove to be very taking.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s 'Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe' anticipates its twentieth edition by a fresh rewriting and resetting in smaller type, so that a good deal more matter is contained in about the same number of pages as heretofore. It has cover-pocket maps of London and the British Isles, besides folding maps of Paris, Switzerland, Holland, etc., stitched in.

Prof. J. H. Chapin's 'From Japan to Granada' (Putnams), a collection of notes made in a tour round the world, seems to have been suggested as much by the author's previous reading as by his actual view of the places described, except in the frequent references to the geological phenomena of the countries visited. It lacks that outdoor freshness which ought by nature to belong to a traveller's sketches. The threshing of old straw continues through three hundred and twenty-five pages, and pitiful indeed is the grain to be garnered at the end. The heavy and monotonous pages are seldom relieved even by a quotation. Still, the author insists that his book is "not intended in any sense as a substitute for the guide-book." In the title-chapter on Japan, despite the voluminous library containing fairly accurate information which the author

might have consulted while correcting proofs, as he certainly read widely and uncritically before writing himself, we find a swarm of errors. Fugiyama, Yeddo, Yezzo, *hari-kari*, Keigé, instead of Fujiyama, Yedo, Yezo, harakiri, Keiki, are bad enough, as is *habisha* for *hibachi*. Concerning the death of Mr. Richardson, an Englishman, whom Prof. Chapin speaks of as "an American citizen," the facts are better known than he imagines, as a dozen volumes will testify. The story told about the pony on page 43 shows how easily travellers are taken in by local guides, especially when pullers of *jin-riki-sha* act as ciceroni. A chance bit of geological information will here and there reward "the kind reader," to whom the author bids farewell from the Washington Irving hotel in Granada, on his closing page.

Dr. J. S. Sterrett sends us the 'Leaflets from the Notebook of an Archæological Traveller in Asia Minor,' published as a pamphlet by the University of Texas. They are jottings of the experiences of himself and others in getting at and transcribing inscriptions in the land of the "unspeakable Turk," extremely interesting in themselves, and told in a manner that well sets forth the romantic side of archæological field work.

The centenary of the Republic, now being celebrated in this city, is attested by a number of publications on our table, beginning with the Catalogue of the Loan Collection of Portraits, Relics, and Silverware at the Metropolitan Opera-house—a surprisingly large exhibit, particularly in the line of Washington portraits. The "Nugget Series" of the Messrs. Putnam makes a pretty volume, in large print, of the Declaration, the Constitution, Washington's inaugurals and Farewell Address, Lincoln's inaugurals and Gettysburg Address, an appendix by Paul Leicester Ford, and an index to the Constitution. The portraits of the two Presidents do not enhance the attractiveness of the setting of these 'Ideals of the Republic,' as the publishers choose to call the collection. Mr. Frederick Saunders of the Astor Library has issued 'The Washington Centennial Souvenir' (Thomas Whittaker), a "little garland of graceful and enthusiastic utterances of eminent personages from all nationalities, in honor of the Founder of the Republic." It is a good-sized string of his own, however, with which Mr. Saunders connects other men's posies. The pamphlet is illustrated in a quaint way. Mr. Benson J. Lossing prolongs his 'Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution' in 'Hours with the Living Men and Women of the Revolution' (Funk & Wagnalls)—an illustrated pilgrimage of forty years ago. The last chapter is on Alexander Anderson, the father of American wood-engraving. 'Uncle Sam's Diary of a Hundred Years' (A. M. Ernsberger) is a somewhat crude pocket medley of history and statistics, which celebrates all the Presidents and ladies of the White House with portraits, gives an account of the several administrations, borrows a map or two from the Census of 1880, serves as a guide to New York, etc., etc.

The Albertype Co., 58 Reade St., send us the most appropriate souvenir of the centenary fête of the present week—a very large albertype print of Ward's statue of Washington before the Sub-Treasury on Wall St. The view is directly in front, showing most clearly the pedestal with its inscription, the image (nine and a half inches high), and the flanking columns of the portico.

Sun and Shade for April (Photo-Gravure Co.) is invested with a sad interest by reason of its views of the three American men-of-war lost at Samoa. For the rest, this monthly issue has the usual variety of photographic prints, including a Washington portrait, to be in the fashion.

The Ethnography of Macedonia and Old Servia is the subject of a paper in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March, illustrated by a map so colored as to show the position and extent of the various nationalities. It is the result of investigations made for the purpose of demonstrating the injustice of the claims of Servia upon this territory. To the writer's great surprise, he found that "the majority of the Slavs inhabiting Macedonia are not of Bulgarian but of Servian descent." His proofs are drawn from an examination of their language, customs, dress, songs, history, and origin. He estimates the whole population at nearly three millions, of whom almost two-thirds are Serbs, while the Bulgars number only 176,200 and the Greeks 171,200. Other interesting statistics are given as to the religion and political proclivities of the people, the Turkish party far outnumbering the aggregate of the others, and the Greek coming next in importance. This is followed by an interesting description of an ascent of Kilima-njaro by Otto E. Ehlers in November, 1888. The greater part of the way he was accompanied by an American naturalist, Dr. Abbott, who was hunting and collecting in the region at the base of the mountain. Herr Ehlers with great difficulty climbed to the top of the ice-wall upon the summit, but could discover no signs of a crater. At a height of over 15,000 feet he found traces of elephants, buffaloes, and antelopes in the snow. At this same elevation was the last vegetation, a species of everlasting (*Strohblume*).

The most interesting paper in the April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is on Formosa, by Mr. Geo. Taylor of the Chinese Customs Service, in which he has gathered an unusual amount of information on the customs and folk-lore of the aboriginal inhabitants, whom he divides into four races. The earliest settlers, the Paiwans, have retired to the inaccessible mountains of the interior. They are inveterate head-hunters, some tribes using the heads "as public offerings at seed-time and harvest, and yet others bury the heads, erecting over each a small stone tablet. Each year a counting of tablets takes place, and the village possessing the most is awarded a handsome prize." They, in common with the other aborigines, have the same custom which prevails in parts of Central Africa, of keeping in one large house the youths of the village from the time they attain puberty until married. If their quarrels, which arise on the slightest provocation, interfere with their agricultural work or their fishing, they "appoint a day and place and fight a pitched battle. About nightfall each side counts its killed and wounded, and the one that has the most declares itself vanquished and indemnifies the victors. Amicable intercourse follows, and the matter is considered at an end." A folk-lore story of a land-crab and a monkey, who assume human shapes in order to court a village girl, told by Mr. Taylor, is characterized by the same humor as those of our Southern negroes. The greater part of the original inhabitants are fast amalgamating with the Chinese and are losing their distinctive traits, even rivalling their conquerors in astuteness. "The Chinese have a proverb to the effect that, when the savages take to wearing trousers, there is no opening left for a Chinaman."

Miss Hapgood, writing from St. Petersburg under date of April 9, reminds us that the extract from Tolstoi recently taken by us from the *Week* (*Nedyéla*) is not new, but may be read in that author's 'Life' published here in her translation about a year ago. The thing to be noticed is, that 'Life' is officially interdicted in Russia, yet extracts from it are allowed to appear in the *Week*, and eventually subscribers to that journal will get nearly the whole book.

The American Library Association will hold its annual meeting at St. Louis on May 8–11, the Southern Hotel being headquarters. A river excursion to New Orleans is on the post-conference programme, with a return by way of Mobile, Atlanta, Nashville, the Mammoth Cave, and Cincinnati.

—Historical students will welcome a new and revised edition of President C. K. Adams's 'Manual of Historical Literature' (Harper & Bros.), which has been out of print for some time. The revision has consisted in bringing up to date the bibliographical details of works previously mentioned, in adding to the main lists, in revising the critical comments, and particularly in adding to the different sections name-lists containing some eight hundred titles of recent works. An examination of the new edition reveals that this last is its most valuable feature, and students are thereby placed under renewed obligations to the author. As is perhaps inevitable in a work of such detail, not all the new nor the best editions are mentioned, and some errors still remain in the critical comments. Michelet is still described as a "monarchist and a Roman Catholic," which would have made him "stare and gasp." We had hoped to see the unworthy fling at Von Holst omitted from future editions, but it still remains as a mortification to all Americans who appreciate the German scholar's services to American history. We feel sure that Dr. Adams does not realize how it sounds. A somewhat fuller treatment of the History of Israel and of the Eastern Question would be desirable. To the works on the former should be added, at least, Wellhausen's 'Prolegomena,' Kittel's 'Geschichte der Hebräer,' and Schrader's 'Die Keilinschriften und das Alte Testament,' and either Hausrath or Schürer on the New Testament times. On the Eastern Question we miss Laveleye's 'Balkan Peninsula' and Minchin's 'Growth of Freedom in the Balkan Peninsula.' On French literature, Saintsbury is not mentioned. Probyn's 'Italy from 1815-78' should have been included. But the most puzzling omission is that of Prof. Tuttle's 'History of Prussia,' a work issuing from Cornell itself. In the classification, Creighton's 'History of the Papacy' should be under Italian, and not English history. Under recent works of importance on Spain is the entry: "B. de Sahagun's Histoire Générale des Choses de la Nouvelle Espagne, Paris, 1800 [read 1880], a work of originality and ability"—an instance in which Dr. Adams has probably relied on some undiscriminating assistant. Two pages before this, it seemed incongruous to find: "Crawfurd's Portugal is a recent book, combining description and history in an agreeable manner. Cervantes's view of Spanish manners has the high endorsement of Prescott." In works of this kind it is the hard fortune of the author to be exposed to error almost in proportion to the efforts he makes to be helpful. The more titles he gives, the more particulars about the works, the greater are the opportunities for slight errors to creep in. Consequently, such works should be judged by what they give us more than by what they fail to supply. Judged by this standard, President Adams's Manual deserves a renewed and even more grateful reception from students of history.

—In the work of the societies for the prosecution of psychical research, the study of fraud and of self-illusion proceeds *pari passu* with

the study of the manifestation of mysterious forces. Now one and now the other seems to get the upper hand. The best evidence that the English society had for the existence of thought-transference came from certain daughters of a clergyman, and a servant-girl in the same family, who have since been found out to be plain impostors. As Professor Newcomb pointed out at the time, it was so improbable as to amount to an absolute impossibility that a power rare enough to have been detected not a dozen times in all should have descended upon the children *and the servant-girl* of a single family. But if the daughters of a clergyman can be so wicked as this, what confidence can one place in clergymen even? Is not any degree of unexpectedness in lying a far less extraordinary circumstance than would be the truth of telepathy? And, more than this, if simple girls can successfully deceive these investigators, how can one believe that the investigators are possessed of those rare powers of thought and of intuition combined which are essential to the detection of intricate cases of fraud? The President of the English Society, Professor Sidgwick, says, in his last address, that the special point of their investigation has been the care with which unconscious signalling has been excluded; but it looks as if that care were not yet quite sufficiently rigorous.

—It is nearly fatal to the rather strong evidence in favor of telepathic hallucinations at the moment of death, that evidence almost as strong has been collected in favor of premonitions. For to believe that one can receive intimation in a dream of an event that is to happen five years hence, is to throw away in a moment all the knowledge of nature that has been painfully acquired by the generations that have preceded us. But if these queer tales (which are admirably commented upon by Mrs. Sidgwick, in her report on the Evidence for Premonitions) are all capable of being explained by coincidence and illusions of memory, then these same hypotheses, by putting a little harder strain upon them, may suffice to account for the other cases also. One thing which is greatly in need of explanation is the fact that the existence of the Society seems to be causing the extinction of death-wraiths. Professor Sidgwick himself considers that the Society has now reached a crisis in its history; it was hoped that the publication of 'Phantasms of the Living' would result in securing a good number of fresh cases of spontaneous telepathy recorded in writing at the moment of their occurrence, and hence before there could be any knowledge of their appositeness. But such cases have not been forthcoming, and, "as time goes on, the absence of such evidence will constitute an argument of continually increasing strength against" the Society's conclusions. It is plain that a single case of an absolutely unimpeachable kind would be worth more than the volumes that have been published of evidence that is a little less than convincing. There is no kind or degree of illusion that the best of us may not at any moment be subject to, and the only thing that is impossible is that two people in different places should have the same illusion at the same moment. If the committee could obtain two written accounts of a single scene, one by a person who was present and one by a person who saw it telepathically, and if these accounts should be found to resemble each other closely—and if in addition it was absolutely certain that they were written without collusion—then, indeed, the question of telepathy would be put upon a different footing. What mystic is preparing himself to furnish the Society with this much-longed-for evidence?

—Early in the month of March, Dr. Dujardin-Beaumetz, the eminent director of the Hôpital Cochin, read before the Board of Health of the Department of the Seine his yearly report upon cases of hydrophobia occurring in the department during the year 1888. This report has since been published in the *Bulletin Médical*, and contains much interesting information and many statistics. It appears that nineteen persons died last year of rabies in the Department of the Seine. This number is relatively considerable if it be compared with the figure for the years 1880, 1883, 1884, and 1885, in each of which there were only three such deaths. But it is, on the other hand, a shadow less than the figures for 1881 and 1886, which are twenty-one and twenty-two respectively. Of the deaths in 1888 four were due to bites of cats, and sixteen to bites of dogs. In two of the cases there was, strictly speaking, no bite at all, the virus being conveyed by the tongue of the animal in licking. The period of incubation of the disease was in these nineteen cases from twenty-five to forty days. The longest of these is a much less period than has sometimes been observed, since incubation has been known to last 139, 143, and even 245 days. Of the reasons why these periods vary, nothing is certainly known. It is probable, however, that their duration may depend upon the number of wounds received, and the quantity of the virus, and also, perhaps, upon the situation of the wounds. Contrary to what is generally thought, the diagnosis of rabies is not a simple matter. In four out of the nineteen cases the doctors went entirely wrong. In one case the disease was held to be tetanus; in three others, angina, diabetes, and delirium tremens.

—The last half of M. Dujardin-Beaumetz's report is devoted to a consideration of the treatment of rabies by the method of M. Pasteur. In the year before last, 1887, there were 306 persons reported in Paris as bitten. Out of this number the madness of the biting animal was demonstrated by experiment, or testified to by veterinaries, in 263 cases. Out of the 306 cases three only were fatal. That puts the mortality at .97 for each 100, if all the cases are included; or at 1.14 for each 100 if only the cases in which the biting animal was surely mad be taken. The above 306 cases were treated by Pasteur's method. There were also reported during the same year 47 cases of persons bitten who did not receive treatment by inoculation. Out of these seven died. So that, in round numbers, it may be said that M. Pasteur can show a death-rate of only one in 100 among his patients as against a death-rate of sixteen in 100 of those treated by the old methods. The figures for last year, 1888, tell almost exactly the same story. During the year 385 persons were treated at the Institut Pasteur. In 105 of these cases the madness of the biting animal was demonstrated; in 231 it was testified to; while in regard of 49 there was no information. Out of these 385 persons 4 died, which equals 1.04 per cent of the whole number bitten, or 1.19 per cent. of those bitten by animals that were surely mad. During the same year 105 cases were reported of persons who did not receive inoculation. Of these 14, or 13.3 per cent., died. In reference to this death-rate among those not inoculated, it is interesting to note that it closely agrees with the rate of mortality in rabies—14 to 16 per cent.—set by Bronardel and Leblanc before the method of M. Pasteur came into use. It may also be noted that severe cases of wounds by biting are more likely to be taken to the Institut and slighter ones neglected. On the whole, then, it is to be said that any person who has been bitten by a mad animal has many more chances for his life if he submits to the treatment of M. Pasteur than if he neglects it.

—M. Dujardin-Beaumetz ends his report by recommending a measure of precaution. The number of rabid animals reported in Paris increases every year. It has grown by a regular and large increment each year from 182 in 1883 to 863 in 1888. Even these figures are much within the actual number, for many such animals escape, or are not noticed and reported. The number of persons bitten is, of course, in direct proportion to the number of rabid animals, and this naturally suggests restriction of such animals as are most liable to madness from going at large. Last year, on the 8th of June, an order was published forbidding for the space of six weeks dogs to appear in the streets of Paris unless they were held in leash. The effect of this order was immediately apparent. Cases of rabies diminished in number so rapidly that for a while the Institut Pasteur almost found its occupation gone. This order was kept in force till the 1st of November, but was not thereafter renewed. Almost at once the old condition of things came back again. M. Dujardin-Beaumetz urges that this, or some more stringent regulation, shall be again put in force, and points out that in Berlin, where rigorous and persistent measures to stamp out the disease have been taken, rabies has almost, or quite, disappeared from the mortuary lists.

—The black and yellow fogs which are commonly associated with the weather of London and some other English towns have been made the subject of considerable investigation during the last few years. It is now known that these are largely the result of smoke; the black or darker variety being almost entirely so, according to the dictum of Sir Douglas Galton. Those on this side of the Atlantic who look upon London as an exceptionally healthy city —as perhaps the healthiest large town in the world—will probably be surprised to learn that these fogs are highly deleterious to health, and that the death-rate in the towns rapidly increases during the season of their prevalence. But this fact is rendered intelligible when account is taken of the quantity of carbonic acid that is thrown into the atmosphere—and retained there during heavy weather—as the result of soot-combustion. Dr. W. J. Russell found a few years ago that on a single day this quantity had increased to more than three and a half times the average amount present in the atmosphere. The question naturally suggests itself, How healthy would London be without the fogs, or to what extent is the mortality-rate diminished by special habits of its citizens? In an interesting paper recently published by Mr. Hargreaves Raffles, the author gives some curious statistical facts regarding the London fogs. It was found that during the 152 days which were comprised in the months of November and December, 1887, and January, February, and March, 1888, neither Christ Church, Lancaster Gate, nor St. Mary Abbot's Church, Kensington, was once seen from Primrose Hill, although the distance of removal was only two and three miles respectively. The same was true of the Clock Tower of the Houses of Parliament, the Scotch Church, Regent's Square, and St. Paul's Cathedral, along other lines of vision, at distances of three, one and three-quarters, and three and a quarter miles respectively. On nine days included within the same period objects were not visible at a distance of over one hundred yards, while on four days the limit of vision was fixed

at five yards. The records of the Gas Light and Coke Company show that between the 16th and 24th of November, 1887, not less than 710,251,000 cubic feet of gas, representing the carbonization of 71,000 tons of coal, were distributed, for which the public paid at the rate of £490 per hour.

PROFIT-SHARING.

Profit-Sharing between Employer and Employee: A Study in the Evolution of the Wages System. By Nicholas Paine Gilman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

MR. GILMAN has done a very good turn, both to workmen and employers, by putting into a compact and very readable form the results, up to the present, of the experiments made in various countries in the matter of sharing profits with laborers as an addition to their wages. The information he furnishes has hitherto been scattered through a considerable number of books and periodicals, most of them in French or German, and not readily accessible to the general reader. He shows the extent to which profit-sharing has been tried in agriculture, in fisheries, and in a great many other industries, and summarizes the whole in a very interesting table. From this it appears that it has been tried and has failed, or has for some reason been discontinued, in thirty-six cases in various kinds of industry. On the other hand, it has been tried, and is now in more or less successful operation, in 137 cases in this and other countries. Of course, in nearly every case of success there is a different mode, as well as different rate of division, but the object aimed at and the results attained are very much the same. A share in the profits in addition to wages results, on Mr. Gilman's showing, wherever the system has succeeded, in securing greater diligence and fidelity and economy on the part of the workmen, and consequently a larger quantity or better quality of the product, and, what is of more value than anything else, a friendlier feeling on the part of the employed towards the employer, and a more complete identification of their interests.

The causes assigned for the thirty-six failures are instructive. In twenty-five cases the failure was due to some sort of shortcoming or misconduct on the part of the men. Either the payment of the bonus failed to increase the quantity or improve the quality of the product, or it failed to improve the relations of the employers and the workmen, or was, after trial, despised and rejected by the workmen, or produced on their part undue interference with the conduct of the business. Corresponding explanations with regard to the successful cases Mr. Gilman does not give, but the stress he lays all through the book on the importance of faith and good-will and humanity on the part of the employer, points to the conclusion that in most if not all of these cases there has been in the concern some man of great force of character, and of dominating importance to the business, who has in a measure imposed the system on his partners and on the workmen, and has watched the working of the experiment with something like paternal interest. Even under these conditions, however, as Mr. Gilman admits, complete success is hardly attainable without a high degree of responsive intelligence on the part of the workmen. In a curious exhortation which he addresses at the close to employers and employed respectively, he recommends the system only in part on business grounds. He advises employers to try it, because it will give them better profits, but also because, in trying it, "they will be doing a man's part towards a rational solution of existing troubles," and because, if they succeed, it will give them, besides profits, "the consciousness of having helped mankind nearer to the kingdom of God." He urges newspaper editors to take the matter up, because "the facts and arguments of profit-sharing have a novelty, interest, and value which entitle them to the widest dissemination and discussion." He appeals to the clergy of all denominations to preach profit-sharing, as a means of procuring "industrial peace," and abating class selfishness, and "socializing Christianity."

Mr. Gilman is very careful to guard himself against the charge of formally offering profit-sharing as a solution of the "labor problem"; and yet it is easy to see that he has not rid his own mind of the notion that it is in this way the discontent of the laboring class is to be met. He says: "The wages of the laboring class have undoubtedly risen steadily within the last fifty years, but they have not kept pace with the demands, just or unjust, of those who have labor to sell. The constant cry is for higher wages and fewer hours of work." This is all true, but the force of the observation lies in the application of it. It is quite evident that he reminds us of this with the view of showing that profit-sharing is one way out of the difficulty. There is no doubt that it is an excellent thing for both employers and employees to try, and for clergymen to preach, and that a general determination to try it would have an ameliorating effect on the condition of a certain number of laborers. But to suppose that it would solve "the labor problem" is to mistake the nature of the labor problem.

The labor problem is now, and has always been, not how to reconcile labor and capital, but how to make the earth support its rapidly growing population—a population which everywhere closely follows up all improvements in the means of production, and follows them up with increased demands in the way of comfort. No way of dividing the product will ever greatly, or for any great length of time, produce content as long as new-comers are constantly pressing for a share, not on the best possible terms, but on any terms. No matter how many laborers you cover with profit-sharing, there is soon a very large body without the gates who start the labor problem afresh, and are eager to have it solved at once, so far as they are concerned—not in the way that will most hasten the Kingdom of God, but in the way which will most speedily put them in possession of food and clothing; and that way is the receipt of fixed wages. If laborers were a fixed, or even a slowly increasing quantity, there would, with no improved powers of production, be but little difficulty in satisfying even their unreasonable desires. What makes all the industrial trouble is, that wherever they collect in masses, their number soon surpasses the demand for them, and if some are maintained in a high degree of comfort, others must live in a corresponding degree of penury. This is the labor problem in London, in Paris, in New York, in Chicago, and in every place else in which there is much writing or preaching about it. Coöperation and profit-sharing are both devices simply for putting a small minority of the laborers, of unusual intelligence and self-restraint, into the category of capitalists. They do not provide for the surplus of labor which is sure to flow to every place in which large masses of capital have accumulated and are seeking investment.

Nor does Mr. Gilman take into sufficient account the fact, which he does not conceal, that his examples of successful profit-sharing are all drawn from prosperous concerns, while the truth is, that the majority of concerns are not prosperous. It has been said that ninety-five per cent. of those who go into business as employers of labor fail. If this be an exaggeration, it is certainly not an exaggeration to say, as M. Levasseur does, that ten per cent. succeed, fifty "vegetate," and forty go into bankruptcy. The reason of this is obvious, and is very concisely stated by Mr. Gilman himself, viz., "executive talent is one of the rarest of human endowments." Consequently it may be said that in ninety cases out of a hundred there would be no profits to share, and the experiment would be abandoned in disgust by the workmen in the first or second year. To sum up: Profit-sharers among workingmen, like coöperators, will always be a sort of *corps d'élite*—an aristocracy, that is to say, of talent and character, whose condition will have no perceptible effect on the "labor question," but whose numbers, nevertheless, every lover of his kind must wish to see increase. We can no more by profit-sharing escape the working of the law of population on subsistence than we can by taking thought add one cubit to our stature.

THE LAST WAR IN AFGHANISTAN.

The Life and Opinions of Major-General Sir Charles Metcalfe Macgregor, K.C.B., C.S.I., C.I.E., Quartermaster-General in India. Edited by Lady Macgregor. 2 vols. London: Blackwood & Sons. 1888.

ALL who like to read of deeds of personal daring will find ample store of such in the early military life of Sir Charles Macgregor. That degree of courage which will carry a man without discredit through the incidents of a battle is common enough; not so the absolute fearlessness which was the great distinguishing characteristic of Macgregor. In the commerce of ordinary life, silent, reserved, almost repellent in his manners, the approach of danger had the effect of transforming him into a genial and joyous companion. He seems to have positively relished danger. "He was," says an early comrade, "the only man I ever met in actual service who really liked fighting." He sought out occasions of single combat with as great an eagerness as a knight of the Middle Ages. To lead a handful of irregular cavalry against desperate odds was the supreme delight of his young days.

There are, however, many excellent fighting soldiers who, except in the midst of battle, are good for very little. Sir Charles Macgregor did not come under this category. He was an indefatigable student of his profession in the widest sense—diligent in all knowledge which can be extracted from books, and even more diligent in that knowledge which comes from a careful study of the actual ground on which campaigns have been or are likely to be fought. Thus it was that, while yet quite a young man, he ranked second to none in the British Army in India as a soldier of knowledge, experience, and judgment. He had paid especial attention to the advance of Russia in Central Asia towards the Himalayan frontier of India. Over a large part of the country traversed or still to be crossed, he had himself travelled, and he, perhaps more than any of his contemporaries, has given shape and direction to the Afghanistan policy pursued by the Indian Government from the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton down to that of Lord Dufferin. It is on this account that the publication of his 'Life and Opinions' possesses an interest and importance greater than

could belong to the mere story of a brilliant and daring soldier. It lifts the veil, so to speak, from the inner history of Lord Lytton's abortive invasion of Afghanistan, and shows—though this is far from Lady Macgregor's intention—how blindly and completely the Indian Government has been playing, at immense cost, the game of Russia, if it be true that that Power meditates an invasion of India.

British India is governed by a Viceroy, who, of necessity, knows nothing of the people or the country until he begins to govern them. He is assisted by five officials—Members of Council—who are not chosen for this duty for reasons of exceptional fitness, but merely arrive at it by way of seniority. The supreme difficulty which affects this singular government is that of "getting into touch" with the people. And to make this difficulty as great as possible, it is the practice of the Supreme Government to migrate for six months of every year out of India altogether to Simlah—a station lying deep in the folds of the Himalayan Mountains. This also is the headquarters of the Commander-in-Chief. Here, if we except the writers and native clerks in the Government offices, there are no natives to trouble the serenity of the high official world. Simlah is the chief resort of all the pleasure-seekers and office-seekers of British India. Every one who can get a few days' leave from the burning heat of the plains hurries thither. All the pretty women, with or without their husbands, are eager to partake of the sunshine of the Viceregal presence, to dance at the balls and eat of the dinners of Viceroyalty. And for six months of every year, what is officially described as "the Government of India" is carried on in the midst of a saturnalia of balls, picnics, lawn-tennis tournaments, social scandals, and a ceaseless babel of gossip. It is needless to say that India is not really governed from Simlah. The Government would go on without any appreciable shock to its existence if Simlah and all its inhabitants were to be suddenly transferred to another planet. What actually proceed from Simlah are the great schemes of conquest, the wars and annexations, for which India has to pay. Russophobia was hatched in Simlah so far back as 1838, prior to the first war in Afghanistan; and to Russophobia in Simlah belongs the credit of hatching and nursing into maturity the second war also.

Among the Anglo-Indian Russophobists, none of his day took the disease in a more acute form than Sir Charles Macgregor. The great end and aim of an Anglo-Indian Russophobist is to precipitate a collision between Great Britain and Russia in the desert of Central Asia, and the case of Sir Charles Macgregor is instructive as showing how a man is brought into this peculiar condition of mind. Macgregor was a soldier to the backbone. Military glory was that which he valued beyond everything else in the world. In India itself he saw, or thought that he saw, that opportunities no longer existed for the winning of such a fame as he coveted. He longed for a larger field, a more worthy adversary, and discovered both in the rapid advance of Russia in Central Asia. Macgregor was unquestionably sincere when he urged the Indian Government to cross the deserts of Afghanistan and attack Russia in her own territories; none the less was the wish the father to the thought. In the event of such an enterprise being undertaken, Macgregor was himself certain of employment in a war such as he had dreamed of and longed for all his life; and it is impossible to read his biography without feeling that his passion for military distinction had gone far to warp and pervert his military judgment. When war broke out between Russia and the Ottoman Empire, consequent on the massacres in Bulgaria, Sir Frederick Roberts (the present Commander-in-Chief in India) was at the head of the Quartermaster-General's department, with Colonel Macgregor as his assistant. Under their joint auspices a plan of campaign was drawn up, to be carried into effect if Great Britain (as all Simlah society hoped and expected) took the field in order to repeat, as the ally of the Turks, the monstrous insanity of the Crimean war. The object of this plan, as stated by the authors, was to "checkmate the advances of Russia on the north of Persia, the northwest frontier of Afghanistan, and in Central Asia," and the way in which all this was to be accomplished was by taking possession of Afghanistan, driving out the reigning family, and sending a British force right through Afghanistan—a march of 900 miles across a desert and unpeopled country—to occupy Herat as a base of offensive operations against Russia.

This plan was really quite as impracticable as a scheme for the occupation of the moon. Nevertheless, on the strength of it, a quarrel was literally forced upon the unfortunate Amir Shere Ali, and three divisions of British troops, under the command of General Donald Stewart, were started from Moultan in the forlorn hope of getting to Herat somehow. Although they encountered no resistance, the impossibility of finding food for their baggage animals destroyed the mobility of these divisions by the time they got to Kandahar. They lost thirty thousand camels on the march. The animals which survived were too much exhausted to proceed further. Food for so large a force could not be found in and around Kandahar; and, after existing for a time on half rations, one-half had to be sent hastily back to India in order to keep the other half alive. This unmitigated failure left the Viceroy, Lord Lytton, and his advisers without either plan or policy in Afghanistan, except to get out of the country with as little ignominy as possible; and although the war was prolonged for more than a year after the first occupation of Kandahar, the British operations, from first to last, were governed by no higher object than to obtain a decent excuse for getting away without a public confession of failure. Macgregor acted as chief of staff to Sir Frederick Roberts when that officer marched to Kabul after the attack on the British Residency and the slaughter of Sir Louis Cavagnari and his escort. He was, therefore, behind the scenes all along, and has recorded his experiences in a diary kept from day to day. Lady Macgregor, as in duty bound, has very severely "edited" this diary before giving it to the world, but enough remains to show that, in the records of human folly, England's last war in Afghanistan will always retain a very distinguished place.

Macgregor survived the war only a few years. As a soldier in the field, he had, in the course of it, exhibited the courage and capacity which characterized his military career throughout, but—and this certainly is strange—he lived to the end of his life a Russophobist. Almost his last work was to draw up an elaborate statement on "The Defence of India" against an inevitable Russian invasion. This is too minute and technical to be discussed in a notice of the author's life; but one statement may be noticed. The second war in Afghanistan demonstrated, as, in truth, the first had already done, that it is impossible to move large masses of troops in Afghanistan. The impossibility is occasioned by the total want of forage for the baggage animals within any measurable area of country. Camels, which must constitute the greater part of the transport of troops operating in Afghanistan, need, if they are to be kept alive, to graze at large; but when, about sunset, the encamping ground is reached, and the animals unloaded, how is it possible to allow thirty thousand camels to graze at large in a desert country, with gangs of thieves ever on the watch to snatch up unconsidered trifles? The thing is impossible; consequently the British camels in Afghanistan marched all day and starved all night, and died by tens of thousands. Oblivious of this circumstance, Sir Charles Macgregor, in his "Defence of India," assumes that Russia, when she delivers her attack, will enter Afghanistan, in three columns of the collective strength of 95,000 men! That means, at a moderate calculation, two hundred thousand camels. If Russia attempted anything so wild as this, it is needless to say that the whole army, men and animals alike, would infallibly be starved to death long before they reached the heads of the Khaibar and Bolan passes.

The Life of Young Sir Henry Vane, Governor of Massachusetts Bay and Leader of the Long Parliament, with a Consideration of the English Commonwealth as a Forecast of America. By James K. Hosmer, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. 588.

"THE English Commonwealth as a forecast of America"—in these words lies the key to Prof. Hosmer's life of Vane. It is not a mere biography, but is written with a purpose; and if the reader of its pages is sometimes tempted to think that the American bearings of Vane's career are insisted upon overmuch, and are sometimes a little far-fetched, the closing chapter, "Why the Story of Vane is Timely," sets this all right. Mr. Lowell said to M. Guizot (p. 561) that the American Republic "will last just so long as the traditions of the men of English descent who founded it are dominant there." Wiser and more pregnant words could not have been uttered; and the book before us is a weighty contribution to this result—that the traditions of our English ancestors shall continue dominant among us.

How can this be done better, we are asked, "than by setting forth the career of some one great man, if such a one can be found, who was at once an Englishman and an American?" Such a figure was Sir Henry Vane the younger:

"We have seen him begin his public career in 1636 as a citizen of Massachusetts, where, in the position of Governor, he fought stoutly against the other colonial magnates for a free toleration of all religious beliefs. Returned to England, we have seen him, at the outset of the Long Parliament, the chief reliance of Pym in bringing Strafford to destruction. In 1643 he brought the Scots to help the sinking cause of the Parliament. As much to him as to Cromwell was due the victory of Marston Moor, perhaps also the victory of Naseby—successes which in the Civil War turned the scale against the Stuart despotism. He was the heart of the Rump and the Council of State when Cromwell smote Ireland and won the fields of Dunbar and Worcester. He reorganized and administered the Navy when Van Tromp and De Ruyter were on the point of sweeping it from the seas—standing back of Blake when England won the empire of the deep, as the elder Pitt stood back of Wolfe and the younger Pitt back of Nelson. First of men, we have seen him, in 1656, recommend the expedient of a *Constitutional Convention*, that the *People*, after the American fashion, might lay down for themselves the 'fundamentals' of a proper polity" (p. 566).

Even if Vane's claims to recognition, as pre-

sented in this sketch, may be somewhat exaggerated, there are enough here of unquestioned services of the highest value to raise the question why he has fallen, as our author admits, into a degree of obscurity. Students, perhaps, would rank Vane, among the men of his age and party, next to Cromwell, Hampden, and Pym; but, to the majority of careless readers, his name probably hardly calls up any distinct memory or association. His activity, nevertheless, extended more than ten years after the deaths of Hampden and Pym, and he alone, of all men of equal eminence—unless we except Hampden's death upon the battle-field—stands by the side of Eliot as a martyr for his cause. Surely the heroic death upon Tower Hill should have guaranteed his memory against even the degree of oblivion into which it has fallen.

The cause, no doubt, of the measure of forgetfulness of which he has been the victim is twofold. While Pym and Hampden lived, Vane's youth placed him quite in their shadow; in the maturity of his years and powers it fell to him to cross the purposes of the man of destiny, and the growing recognition of Cromwell's greatness has made it appear that the Parliamentary leader who ventured to oppose him was, of course, in the wrong. At any rate, from this moment he withdrew into private life, and only emerged from it three years later (1656) to be thrown into confinement by the dictator. Perhaps we can see, at the present day, the signs of a reaction from the exaggerated hero-worship of which Cromwell has been the object since Carlyle's collection of his letters and speeches. Recent scholars have pointed out serious flaws in Carlyle's work, resulting from his overweening admiration of power and success, and exhibiting an astonishing lack of critical acumen and historical accuracy. For our part, we are profoundly convinced that if Cromwell made mistakes, it was chiefly in those points in which he differed from Vane. There is no more melancholy chapter of failures in history than Cromwell's fruitless efforts to establish a form of free government in England after the fatal act of the dismissal of the Rump by the armed hand.

The first step in this direction, the exclusion of the eleven members—an act as lawless and unjustifiable as King Charles's attempt to seize the five members—is passed over by Mr. Hosmer with only a brief paragraph (p. 269), and with no comment upon its policy and no intimation as to whether Vane opposed it, as he did Pride's Purge and the dismissal of the Rump. But this was the act of violence that began the series of acts by which the military authority finally placed itself above the civil.

We cannot agree with Mr. Hosmer that the act of attainder by which Strafford was punished "was just, since Parliament could make laws for every case" (p. 131). Of course Parliament had the *power* to "make laws for every case," but that does not make a procedure *just* which sets at naught all the safeguards of the English law, and deprives a man of life without calling upon the judgment of his peers. With good reason the American Constitution has prohibited this iniquitous procedure; and we cannot think that anything in the long run was gained, in Strafford's case, by substituting this for the more equitable procedure of impeachment. On the other hand, we agree on the whole with Prof. Hosmer in his defence of Vane against the accusation of dissimulation. Like an even greater man, against whom the same charge is made, William of Orange, he had to deal with unscrupulous antagonists, with whom it was a first principle that they were under no obligation to keep faith with their opponents. Both of these distinguished men showed themselves "wise as serpents," a match for their antagonists in astuteness and the use of devious methods. We do not assert that they never went beyond what was right and justifiable in this; but their shrewdness and sagacity as men of the world were qualities needed at the time, and implied no moral obliquity.

The chapters which touch upon Vane's religious beliefs are very valuable. Clear-headed and sagacious in political matters, he is shown to have been visionary in questions of religion. Especially after he was forced from public life, his mind, in retirement, found employment in religious speculation, and occupied itself with those theories, so popular at the time, which seemed to undermine the foundations of society. Here may perhaps be found one cause of his separation from Cromwell.

The book is a thick one, and its dimensions are in great part due to its being not merely a life of Vane, but a history of the times. But this is generally justified by the plan of the work; and certain chapters, which seem almost digressions, are shown to be necessary parts of the author's theme—the development of the English Constitution upon American lines, under the influence of this Massachusetts Governor. The volume is handsomely printed, with an index, a portrait of Vane, plans of Marston Moor and Naseby, and a copy of the great seal of the Commonwealth. The personal reminiscences of the author, in visits to Edgehill, Marston Moor, Naseby, and Raby Castle, add greatly to the interest of the book.

The Philobiblon of Richard de Bury, Bishop of Durham and Chancellor of Edward III. Edited and translated by Ernest C. Thomas, Barrister-at-Law, late Scholar of Trinity College, Oxford, and Librarian of the Oxford Union. Lockwood & Coombes. 1889.

It is singular that so early and interesting a monument of English literature as the 'Philobiblon' of De Bury should have waited until this late date for proper editing. It was written in 1344, and was sufficiently popular to be many times copied, so that at present no less than thirty-five manuscripts of it are known. The first edition was printed at Spires in 1483; but no English edition appeared until 1598–99, and no English translation until that of Inglis in 1832. Paris gave us the first critical text as late as 1856. The present editor, however, having examined nearly all the manuscripts, is obliged to discredit both the Paris edition and Inglis's translation as being inadequate, and gives us the results of his own exhaustive labors in so beautiful a work of the bookmaker's art that we may well be content to accept this as the first standard issue of De Bury's celebrated essay on the love of books. He has established a Latin text, accompanied with full and careful notes of readings and interpretation, and added a translation, in excellent and fitting English, which retains the flavor of old books; and to these he has prefixed biographical and bibliographical introductions which leave nothing to be desired.

Richard de Bury belonged to that class of mediæval ecclesiastics who were more concerned with the State than the Church. At the first the tutor, he was afterwards the friend and counsellor of Edward III., and spent his life in works of diplomacy and government. He rose by the holding of great offices, and received his bishopric as a reward for political service. He himself admitted the superiority of the learned and pious Graystanes, who was elected to the see, and was forced to abandon it by the King's will and in accordance with the Pope's promise of the next vacant episcopal chair to De Bury; and on hearing of the death of his rival in retirement, being so much touched that he wished the messenger to withdraw, he is said to have answered his companions, "If you had known his worth as I do, I believe you would grieve as much as I; for he was fitter for the Papacy than I or any of my fellows for the smallest dignity in Holy Church." De Bury, however, had the redeeming grace of a love for scholars and learned men, with whom he surrounded himself, and he had a passion for collecting books, to which circumstance we owe his essay and he owes his fame. He lays down the principle that "no dearness of price ought to hinder a man from the buying of books, if he has the money that is demanded for them, unless it be to withstand the malice of the seller or to await a more favorable opportunity for buying." He had, too, unusual opportunities for collection in consequence of his high position at court and of his frequent travels on the Continent. He confides to the reader that "we were reported to burn with such desire for books, and especially old ones, that it was more easy for any man to gain our favor by means of books than of money"; and he adds, of those who employed this means, "In good-will we strove so to forward their affairs that gain accrued to them, while justice suffered no disparagement." One of the abbots of St. Albans bought favor in this way by presenting him with a Terence, Virgil, Quintilian, and Hieronymus against Rufinus, selling him besides thirty-two other volumes for fifty pounds of silver; but it is recorded that De Bury was smitten with conscience, and afterwards restored some of the books to the library, although he had carried out that other part of the contract which was not included in the pounds of silver. In one way and another he thus gathered his precious library, which he destined not for himself, but for Oxford. At the close of his life he drew up the rules for the custody and use of the collection, and it was as a sort of prologue to these regulations and commentary upon his gift that he wrote the brief essay which was his only literary work.

The treatise itself is entirely ecclesiastical in its Latinity, the style being described by the editor as, "like that of many among the mediæval writers, 'made of the Scripture.'" It is, nevertheless, very agreeable reading, and affords several piquant illustrations of the state of the clergy with respect to books. The description of the condemned brother who has fallen into evil courses, and is saved from impending punishment by proving his "benefit of clergy" by reading in the book, and that of the Oxford scholar who uses the precious volumes only to defile them by his uncleanly habits, are passages that will stick in any reader's memory; and the entire tract glows with the enthusiasm of the book-hunter. Paris was naturally a Mecca for the Bishop, but one is hardly prepared for such an outburst as that with which he greets the hearth of a then decaying scholasticism: "O Holy God of Gods in Sion, what a mighty stream of pleasure made glad our hearts whenever we had leisure to visit Paris, the paradise of the world, and to linger there!"—and this was a Paris without boulevards! That is a heartfelt prayer, too, which he puts up in the "Complaint of Books against Wars": "Almighty Author and Lover of peace, scatter the nations that delight in war, which is above all plagues injurious to books!" But the volume has already passed, even in the imperfect form in which we have hitherto possessed it, into the list of those half-dozen defences of books which, like the de-

fences of poetry, are fiery effusions of the literary passion.

But did De Bury write the essay that bears his name? There is a tradition that Robert Holkot was the author, doing it in De Bury's name and at his order, and in seven manuscripts it is ascribed to Holkot. This claim was formally put forth by Altamura and Echard on the authority of Laurentius Rignon and Lusitanus. The editor had decided that little weight was to be given to these authorities, a century later than De Bury and Holkot, or to the notes of the manuscripts, and he was disposed to conclude that Holkot, who was De Bury's chaplain, had at most the part of a secretary in the preparation of the work. He is forced to acknowledge, however, at the very end, that the question is made more doubtful by a passage which a friend has just brought to hand from Adam Murimuth, the canon of St. Paul's, a lawyer and diplomatist. This has never been published or referred to, and is a very unfavorable view of De Bury's character by a man who had "ample opportunities of collecting trustworthy information as to the leading men of his time." He describes De Bury as a man who owed all his benefices to the solicitation of the great and to ambition, prodigal in extravagance in life, and at his death disclosing the greatest poverty. Although only "mediocriter literatus," he says, he wished to be reputed a great scholar, and hence collected a great number of books by gift and purchase. The traits here indicated support an adverse view, and the "account of De Bury's poverty," says the editor, "agrees only too well with several significant indications in Chambre's life, and in the Durham records: *sub judice lis est.*" It seems certain that his library was dispersed immediately on his death, probably being used to liquidate his debts.

It hardly need be added that recent attempts to make De Bury out a scholar, and, as Dr. Creighton calls him, a man "penetrated with the principles of humanism," have nothing to go upon even in the text of the 'Philobiblon.' He had met Petrarch, it is true, and their common taste as collectors might draw them together; but Petrarch complained that he would not answer his letters. It is perhaps best to regard him as an ecclesiastical man of affairs, with liberal tastes and the passion without the knowledge of books; and whether he or his chaplain wrote the words of the work that bears his name, it is hardly to be questioned that it was the spirit of De Bury that gave it life and still breathes in its pages.

Essays Religious, Social, Political. By David Atwood Wasson. With a biographical sketch by O. B. Frothingham. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1889.

MR. FROTHINGHAM'S volume is in three parts. We have first an autobiographical fragment covering Mr. Wasson's childhood upon a seacoast farm in Maine, Brooksville, near Castine, where he was born in 1823. We have next Mr. Frothingham's biographical sketch, and then eight essays on different but related subjects, political, sociological, and religious. The autobiography is an interesting bit of personal experience related in the sincerest possible manner, somewhat too hortatory in spots. Mr. Wasson's recollection of his early religious training could never be described as "emotion recollected in tranquillity." It always exasperated and excited him; always loaded his style with epithets of indignation and contempt. Work and religion were the two enemies of his childish peace, but religion was the more dreadful of the two, and his treatment of it is the more exhaustive. Mr. Frothingham's sketch is an elaborate and somewhat redundant characterization rather than a distinct account of Mr. Wasson's life. The circumstantial element is very slight, and is presented for the most part in the way of passing allusion. Mr. Frothingham has great sympathy with his subject, and seizes clearly on the salient points of Mr. Wasson's character and thought; but it is the history of a mind and not the history of a person that he has given us. No doubt the limitations of Mr. Wasson's health were such that his biography is resolved into the history of his mind to an unusual degree. But there is a remoteness in Mr. Frothingham's treatment which is eloquent of a literary and not a personal relation to the man. Mr. Wasson was a writer of letters of uncommon brilliancy, few of which are so much as quoted here. He was so much of a poet that the absence of any mention of the fact (it is once implied) is a remarkable defect, probably to be explained by Mr. Frothingham's regarding his volume as supplementary to the volume of poems published a few months ago with Mrs. Cheney's introduction. Whatever the explanation, the circumstance must be regarded as unfortunate.

Mr. Wasson was one of a group of men who occupied a distinct and prominent position in the later stages of the Transcendental movement. The most obvious members of this group were Samuel Johnson, Samuel Longfellow, John Weiss, T. W. Higginson, and O. B. Frothingham. Deeply affected by Emerson and Parker, they were obliged as they went on to reckon with the scientific movement that came in with a flood. Mr. Frothingham went over to the enemy; the others all stood fast, taking up into their thought much from the scientific movement, but denying the inferences of its expositors upon the psychological and theological sides. Evolution found with all of them a ready acceptance, but they held fast to the idea that nothing is evolved which is not involved. Mr. Wasson entered Bowdoin College in 1845, but did not complete his course. He studied theology at Bangor, and in 1851 was settled as pastor of an evangelical society in Groveland, Mass. In a year a council dismissed him because of various heresies. A liberal society was organized for him, and the most of his little preaching was done there in two years, six months at Worcester, Mass., for T. W. Higginson, and two years, from 1865 to 1867, for Theodore Parker's Society in Boston. Increasing invalidism was the occasion of this contracted span of pulpit work. In 1840 he had thrown his antagonist in a wrestling match at the cost of his own back. The hurt was dreadful at the time, and spinal disease declared itself definitely about ten years later. During his last years he was almost entirely blind. Mr. Frothingham cannot sufficiently praise the cheerfulness with which Mr. Wasson bore his physical ills. But we are obliged to wonder, as we read his essays, if we are not dealing largely with a sick man's thought. In its higher ranges it is always optimistic. It is extremely pessimistic when it confronts the problems of our industrial life. This is the tone of a recluse, of a man anxious to serve, and yet compelled to stand and wait. Evidently Mr. Wasson was a man of active spirit. If action had been permitted him, he might not have been so much oppressed by circumstances on which he is compelled to brood in silence and apart.

As the names of the eight essays printed here are not in the brief list of Mr. Wasson's Essays on pp. 391–393, we are left to infer that they have not been before published. They are given without note or comment, or any indication of the time when they were written or the circumstances which called them forth. They are very attractive and inspiring in their religious bearings. These are most evident in the essays "Nature the Prophecy of Man" and "Unity." Though Mr. Wasson did not look to science for his fundamental truths, its enrichment of his thought is evident on every page. His theism is clearly distinguished from the deism of Voltaire and Rousseau, with whom he often breaks a lance. The sociological and political essays have for their burden the foolishness of democracy and individualism. For republicanism and individuality Mr. Wasson had a sufficient admiration. It is impossible not to feel the influence of Carlyle on his secluded thought, though he often differs from him frankly, and was one of his sternest critics at the time of Carlyle's utter blindness to the issues of our civil war. Something of physical violence in the style is also suggestive of Carlyle. There is much in these essays that is striking and important. The style, though full, is not diffuse, but packed with careful meaning. They suffer from the time that has elapsed since they were written. In "The New Type of Oppression" the absence of any mention of trusts is eloquent. One gets a very different impression from Mr. Bryce's treatment of our social and political situation; more hopeful and, we are inclined to think, more just.

The First Ascent of the Kasaï: Being Some Records of Service under the Lone Star. By Charles S. L. Bateman. With 57 illustrations and 2 maps reproduced from the author's original drawings. London: G. Philip & Son. 1889. Pp. xx, 185, 8vo.

THE Belgian expedition for the exploration of the Kasaï, the largest of the southern tributaries of the Congo, reached Stanley Pool in July, 1885, having made the descent of the river from its head-waters. It was under the command of young Lieutenant (now Captain) Wissmann, and was accompanied by some two hundred Baluba, a race of negroes dwelling in the region between the upper courses of the Kasaï and Sankoro. The carrying back of these natives to their homes was the main object of the expedition of which this attractive volume is the account; Mr. Bateman (then in the employ of the Congo Free State) being in command of one of the two steamers used for this purpose. The voyage up the river was marked by no noteworthy incident, save the regrettable destruction of several villages on the lower Kasaï, deemed necessary as a punishment for an unprovoked attack on Lieutenant Wissmann's party during their descent. Like Stanley on the Congo in 1877, he was obliged for eight days to keep up a continuous fight with the hostile natives, who literally barred the river with their canoes.

At the point at which the Baluba were disembarked to continue their homeward journey overland, Mr. Bateman was directed to establish a station, which was named Luebo, after the stream on which it was placed. He gives a clear and entertaining account of the manner in which the site was prepared, the buildings erected and plantations made, as well as of the daily routine of station life, a principal feature of which was "Zanzibari drill," the station being under military discipline. "On Sundays no working parties were detailed, . . . and on Saturdays from two P. M. the men had their time to themselves, and the rations were paid in cowries." The natives of this district were the Bakèté, a somewhat effeminate race, but with singularly regular and refined features.

They are agriculturists, and cultivate a great variety of plants "arranged in symmetrical plots and beds, and separated by wide, perfectly straight alleys, weeded, swept, and maintained in the greatest neatness and order." The settling of a trader, Senhor Carvalho, at the station enabled the author to learn the Portuguese methods of business, which he characterizes as an "unostentatious species of slave-dealing." Slaves were bought from one tribe for "six yards or under of cotton cloth" and sold to another for ivory. This trader gave for a slightly damaged tusk "two young girls, five crosses of copper, 5,000 cowries, 200 twisted Venetian beads."

In June, 1886, Mr. Bateman made a land journey to the station Luluaburg, about one hundred and twenty miles to the east, in the heart of the Baluba country. He had for a companion Lieutenant Wissmann, who was on his way to the East Coast, his second journey across the African continent. At this place a native chief who had defied the authority of the King and the commander of the station, made his submission in a manner which reminds one of a scene in Gulliver:

"After protesting his entire devotion and absolute service, poor Congolemosch retired to a distance of some five or six yards from us, and, throwing himself down on his face, rolled himself towards Lieut. Wissmann's feet. There he licked the ground with his tongue, and, covering his extended hands with dust, raised them in a suppliant manner towards Lieut. Wissmann, who, at this point, lifted him up, and the ceremony came to an end."

The Baluba are in some respects a remarkable people. A few years ago their king abolished fetishism, and they "are in reality without a religion." In its place there has been formed a secret society under the name of "Lubuku, *i. e.*, friendship," into which both men and women are initiated, the chief rites of which seem to be hemp-smoking and the promiscuous intercourse of the sexes. At all the cross-roads there are priapean figures about a foot in height on a round pedestal raised upon a pole. "In front, a flat stone supports a basket, into which passing market-people, and all who have concluded a bargain, make a point of dropping grain or other food, which any starving or destitute person is at liberty to eat; but no prayer or supplication whatever is offered before these fetishes, so far as I know."

Mr. Bateman, who was relieved of his command in December, 1886, carefully abstains from any comments on the present condition or future prospects of the Congo Free State. He is not so reticent in regard to the value of missionary labors among the natives, but gives an unfavorable opinion, not of the zeal of the missionaries, but of their capacity to influence the negroes permanently for their good. It should be noted, however, that he speaks hopefully of the Roman Catholic missions. He has very fully illustrated his narrative, some of the chromolithographs and etchings being excellent specimens of their kind. We can heartily recommend this volume as an interesting account of African life—the first, if we are not mistaken, written in English by an officer of the Congo State; of course, excepting Mr. Stanley.

A Genealogy of the Van Voorhees Family in America; or, The Descendants of Steven Coerte Van Vorhees of Holland and Flatlands, L. I. By Elias W. Van Voorhis. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888. Large sq. 8vo, pp. 725.

THIS carefully prepared and handsomely printed volume is in some respects disappointing. In the first place, it is only an index-genealogy, by which term we mean one which merely records the names and dates of births, marriages, and deaths, without any attempt to give interest to the matter by biographical details. Such a genealogy, however well done and however useful to the family, is distinctly second-class. In this case, we are satisfied that the plan chosen has done great injustice to a family which may not have produced any great men, but has undoubtedly had many members worthy of some slight commemoration at least.

We are greatly disappointed in the arrangement, which is on some plan not elsewhere in use, and which does not enable the reader to understand the relationship of the various persons. It cannot be too often repeated that the standard plan adopted by the New England Historic-Genealogical Society is not only the best, but the only sensible, clear, and practical mode. Every deviation from it is an unnecessary freak of ingenuity, always productive of regret. After mankind has settled upon one way of arranging the alphabet, what is the use of printing it in any different collocation of letters? Again, an unnecessary diffuseness of type, however grateful to the printer, adds to the difficulty of comprehension of the subject, as well as to the cost. This book, on a proper system, could have been printed in half the number of pages, and been, moreover, doubled in usefulness.

On the other hand, we desire to give the author full credit for his evident care, thoroughness, and liberality in preparing his book. Dutch genealogies are hard to compile, owing to the scantiness and obscurity of the records, and the excessive variations of the names in the various branches. The ancestor here was Steven Coerte Van Voorhees, son of Coerte Alberts, and grandson of Albert —— (possibly Van Voorhees).

An engraving of the Van Voorhees coat-of-arms is given, without any proof that it belonged to any progenitor of the emigrant. In fact, we presume that, at the period of the emigration, Dutch surnames were in a transition state such as had ceased long before in England, and probably in Scotland and Wales. In that stage of development the surname changed at each generation. William was the only name of a man—his son Steven was Steven Williamson, and *his* son John became John Stevenson. After a few generations, the last accidental surname became hereditary; but own cousins might start two families entirely distinct in name. Then, as the Williamsons, Stevensons, Johnsons, etc., became too numerous for comfort, other special names were adopted: Williamson from Leyden became Van Leyden; from or near Hees, Van Voorhees, etc. But we suspect that, just as in England, a name derived from a place is no warrant of descent from the lord or owner of that place. When Boss Tweed was complimented with the arms of the Marquis of Tweed-dale, he was soon told that the shield bore quarterly the arms of Fraser and Gifford, surmounted by the arms of Hay, but that Tweed had no part therein.

We have written thus fully about a book deserving of much praise, because we have noticed lately a tendency to substitute the splendors of typography for the more humble results of genuine devotion to genealogy. A mere calendar of names is of little worth, but a record preserving even a slight memorial of individuals, however obscure in position, may hereafter be of interest to many. Some of the less pretentious genealogies contain admirable biographies, and where they record only the story of enterprise and struggles, they give life to the picture. Often, indeed, the character of an entire tribe will be shown by the lives of the scattered members. In one the impulse is to action: soldiers and sailors abound. In another the tendency towards the bar, the pulpit, or the medical profession, or a love for mechanics or trade, will be the main feature. Such results may yet justify the time given to the fascinating but often tedious study of family history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, W. C. A Dictionary of Law, consisting of Judicial Definitions and Explanations of Words, Phrases and Maxims, and an Exposition of the Principles of Law. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.
Arnold, Matthew. Reports on Elementary Schools. 1852–1882. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Baldwin, W. J. Hot-Water Heating and Filtering; or, Warming Buildings by Hot Water. Engineering and Building Record.
Barnard, C. My Handkerchief Garden. 25 by 60 feet. E. H. Libby. 25 cents.
Cornaz, Suzanne. Nos Enfants et leurs Amis. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Darling, C. J. Scintillæ Juris. London: Stevens & Haynes.
Davidson, T. Prolegomena to In Memoriam, With an Index to the Poem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Facts about the Salvation Army. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Guimps, Baron R. de. Pestalozzi; his Aim and Work. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Hathaway, W. Living Questions: Studies in Nature and Grace. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Hildreth, C. L. The Masque of Death, and Other Poems. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Lee, Margaret. Marriage. George Munro. 25 cents.
Meldola, Prof. R. The Chemistry of Photography. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Mitchell, S. W. Far in the Forest: A Story. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Newell, C. M. The Isle of Palms. Boston: DeWolfe, Fiske & Co.
Oman, Prof. J. C. Indian Life, Religious and Social. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $1.75.
Perrin, Prof. B. Homer's Odyssey. Books I—IV. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Preston, G. Exercises in Latin Verse. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Quilter, H. Is Marriage a Failure? Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Rees, J. R. The Brotherhood of Letters. Lockwood & Coombs. $1.25.
Raue, C. G. Psychology as a Natural Science Applied to the Solution of Occult Psychic Phenomena. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $3.50.
Rolfe, W. J. Fairy Tales in Prose and Verse. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Schmidt, F. L., Jr. An Object in Life and How to Attain It. Fowler & Wells Co.
Volsin. Rented—A Husband. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 9, 1889.

The Week.

THE charge which has been made or hinted against Bishop Potter, apropos of his centennial address, that he hurt President Harrison's feelings by being too pointed, has been disposed of by President Harrison himself, because as soon as he got back to Washington he gave his brother an office, and, it is said, invited Dudley to the White House. These things he would hardly have done if he had been touched by the Bishop's remarks, or cared particularly about the example of George Washington. With Col. Elliott F. Shepard at his back, he can well afford to despise the criticisms of other theologians. Nevertheless, the theologians seem to be rousing themselves and getting on his track. Bishop Huntington of Central New York has given his view of the manner in which Washington would behave, were he alive and in office to-day; and we are bound to say it is a view which can hardly fail to be offensive to the friends of the Administration.

The President gave on Tuesday the first tangible indication of a desire to redeem the pledges of his letter of acceptance, in the matter of civil-service reform, by appointing Messrs. Hugh S. Thompson and Theodore Roosevelt to the vacant places in the Civil-Service Commission. Mr. Thompson is a South Carolinian, who was at one time the Governor of his State, and was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under President Cleveland, but had, we believe, neither act nor part in Mr. Maynard's little game and is entirely devoted to the reform. Mr. Roosevelt is well known in this State. He is erratic and impulsive, but he is enthusiastic, energetic, and honest, and may be relied on to see that the law is faithfully executed. In fact, the Commission as now constituted is the best we have had, and makes one feel as if the Potter sermon were really beginning to tell. It is noteworthy, too, that Mr. Thompson, the Democrat on the Commission, is the very Democrat selected by the Democratic President for the same place, and not a dummy nor a weakling.

The Senate investigation into Canadian railroads and their operation in the United States has been made interesting by the presence, as witnesses, of Mr. Albert Fink and Mr. John King. The drift of their testimony is to the point that the prohibition of pooling in the Inter-State Commerce Act is injurious, that it has not cured any of the evils that it was intended to remedy, and that it has introduced some that did not before exist. Upon the general effect of the act, taken as a whole, their testimony was less decisive. Mr. King said that one good result of it had been the revelation to the railroads that there was a power superior to themselves. This he considered a benefit to society, although his road would have got $500,000 more money last year if the Commerce Act had never been passed. The competition of Canadian railroads was not necessary, in his opinion, to keep down rates in the interest of the shipper; there would be enough for that purpose without them. But the Canadian railroads were doing useful work, and it was only necessary that they should be brought to the same judgment-seat and held to the same rules as the American roads with which they compete. This strikes us as the keynote of the subject in hand. We have certainly the power to compel observance of our laws by any person or corporation operating in our territory. We have that power under existing laws, if the Commerce Commission's decision in the recent case at Buffalo is sound. If the Grand Trunk Company has suddenly picked up 39 per cent. of the trunk-line business at Chicago, there must be a reason for it not known to the public or to the competitors of that road. Of course, the Commerce Commission is not bound to ferret out that reason: the Commission is already overworked. Perhaps Senator Cullom's committee may throw some light upon this mystery before the investigation is concluded.

An excellent bill requiring the sworn publicity of election expenditures by campaign committees and candidates, after election, is before the Massachusetts Legislature. It is, we believe, the first measure of the kind which has appeared in any of our Legislatures. There have been measures introduced similar to the one which Mr. Crosby presented in the New York Legislature, requiring candidates to publish, after election, sworn statements of all expenditures for campaign purposes. The Massachusetts bill requires publication by both committees and candidates, and is therefore much more comprehensive and desirable. It provides that every political campaign committee, State, city, town, or district, which expends over $100, shall have a treasurer, through whose hands shall pass all the money received or expended, who shall keep a detailed account of all receipts, and of the manner of all expenditures, and who shall, within twenty days after election, "file with the Secretary of the Commonwealth a return, setting forth all of the Committee's receipts, and a detailed statement of all its expenditures and disbursements." Any member of the Committee who receives or disburses any money for political or campaign purposes, is required to give the Treasurer a detailed account of the transaction, and the latter must include it in his return. Whoever shall be elected to Congress or to any State office is compelled, within ten days after election, to file with the Secretary of State a detailed statement of all "moneys contributed, disbursed, or expended by him in attempting to secure, or in any manner in connection with, his nomination or election to such office, provided that all such moneys shall exceed in the aggregate one hundred dollars." An important provision of the bill is one declaring illegal the expenditure of money to influence the action of a caucus or convention, or the result of an election, or the vote of any person in caucus, convention, or election, except by certain legitimate means like circulating printed matter.

The Massachusetts Legislature has passed an act forbidding the docking of horses' tails and punishing it by fine and imprisonment—a very praiseworthy piece of legislation, which we should be glad to see copied in this State. The President of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals sends us a "plea for the horse" on this subject which he addressed to the Legislature, and which is for the most part very sensible and forcible. But it is marred, as some of the documents of our temperance friends are, by trying to prove too much. For instance, when Mr. Angell says that "the Almighty gave the horse his tail that he might protect himself from tormenting insects," he asserts something which he cannot possibly know. No one knows why the Almighty gave the horse his tail any more than why he gave man his eyebrows or his beard. If he gave the horse his tail to protect him from the flies, for what purpose did he give him his mane? The mane does not keep off the flies, and, as a matter of fact, neither does the tail, as any one may see for himself by turning a long-tailed horse out in a field in August. A horse's worst suffering from flies, as everybody knows, goes on in places which the tail cannot reach. Moreover, if the tail is a divinely ordained instrument of protection, it must be sinful to cut the hair of it short, although when kept long it is apt to be both dirty and troublesome, and disfigures the horse, in the opinion of a large number of owners. If, too, every appendage an animal has is sacred and has a final cause, is it right for a man to cut his hair or his beard? The truth is that, although docking, like all mutilation, ought to be prohibited because it is cruel, it is absurd to attack it on the ground that horses have a divine right in long tails. On the other hand, a long tail rapidly becomes a great repository of mud and other filth, which somebody has to keep clean; so that if the Almighty meant the horse to have his tail long, he would, in our opinion, to which we challenge contradiction, have given him the means of washing and combing it out. There is, in truth, no better defence for long tails in horses than long hair on man.

Nobody knows how many horses went down on our wretched pavements during the recent parades, because those cases only were reported which resulted in serious injury. But the number was very great. All

along the lines horses were falling, for the reason that we have not in New York a pavement fit for them to travel over—a fact which seems peculiarly absurd when taken together with a glorification of the material progress of a century. No doubt the streets of New York were fitter and safer for horses when Washington was inaugurated than they are now, after a hundred years. No skill of horsemanship avails to keep a horse upright on them if anything goes wrong with him. Inspector Conlin, who was thrown and bruised in Fifth Avenue on Tuesday of last week, is an accomplished horseman, and Mr. Nyegaard, to whom a like accident happened in the same street on Wednesday, breaking his leg in two places, is head riding-master at the largest school in New York, and can save a horse from falling where anybody can. Yet his horse, though prepared carefully for the known dangers of our pavements, went down under him when barely in motion. A horse in harness does somewhat better if, like the cab horse in 'Pickwick,' you "bear him up werry tight and take him in werry short, so as he can't werry well fall down," yet fallen horses in harness are a common enough sight, while saddle horses, which are a good deal more "abroad," never are safe anywhere in the streets. It happens very oddly that almost all the casualties during our celebration of a century of progress should come from the want of decent roads, which are of the rudiments of civilization.

The Thomas Iron Company on Monday made another cut of one dollar per ton in the price of pig-iron, the new rates being $17 for No. 1 and $16 for No. 2. The price in England has been advancing lately, having reached 40 shillings in the Middlesboro District and 44s. 2d. in Glasgow. The state of the iron industry, both here and abroad, is exactly the opposite of what was predicted by the supporters of Harrison in the campaign of last year. If Harrison was elected, we were to have good times in manufacturing circles, and good wages and active trade. If Cleveland was elected, we should have bad times and reduced wages and dull trade. England, according to the same prophets, was looking on with intense anxiety and pouring out her money for the Cleveland ticket, hoping to "deluge" us with iron if he were elected. Well, the Harrison ticket was successful, and what do we see? England is so driven by the demand for iron that all her works are *fully* employed. She could not supply any considerable American demand, even if there were no tariff on iron, without disappointing her present customers. On the other hand, our works are either reducing wages or closing up, and prices are falling. What *would* have been said by our tariff friends if all this had happened under a second Cleveland Administration?

The copper market abroad is slowly returning to the normal conditions of supply and demand. For the first two weeks of April the arrivals at the principal English ports were only ninety-one tons in excess of the sales for consumption. The statistical position on the first of May showed, for the first time in eighteen months, a diminution of the stock on hand. The price in the English market is £38 per ton for "good merchantable," which is 17 shillings lower than the price ruling before the French Syndicate, under the leadership of M. Secretan, began operations. The public, however, look for still lower prices, the stock on hand being so disproportioned to the ordinary conditions of the trade. This is estimated at not less than 125,000 tons, but is probably greater—the London *Economist* of April 20 says 175,000 tons. The fact that this large stock is now in strong hands counts for nothing unless the mining companies can be persuaded to restrict their output for a long time. The *Economist* of the 20th says that "some of the people principally interested in the syndicate, including the liquidators of the Comptoir d'Escompte, have been in London this week endeavoring to patch up an arrangement with the producing companies, but we understand that the difficulties in the way of a settlement appear to be increasing rather than diminishing. The European companies seem to be willing to accept any terms the representatives of the syndicate choose to offer; but the American and Cape companies, which really hold the whip hand, have adopted a firmer attitude." It is one of the humors of the copper situation that M. Secretan, after having been fined his entire fortune for his participation in the syndicate, is now under prosecution in the courts for an additional fine of 50 to 10,000 francs for violation of an article of the Penal Code on forestalling and regrating.

There seems to be no doubt that the American Congress of next October will be at least well attended. The invitation to be represented at it has already been accepted by Mexico, Columbia, Chili, Ecuador, the Argentine Republic, and the Central American republics, and they will, unquestionably, be joined by the other countries invited. The only possible exception is Brazil, from which empire no intimation has yet come. The attitude with which the Spanish-American representatives will come to the conference may be inferred from a most suggestive article in *Las Novedades* of April 26. That paper is the official organ in this country of Spain and Spanish America. It refers to the almost absolute indifference of the South American press to the coming Congress—an indifference which our own observation, as far as it goes, fully corroborates. Nothing but the vaguest references to the matter are to be encountered, and these, while expressing an amiable desire for political friendship with the United States, do not at all contemplate any efforts to promote our commercial interests. *Las Novedades* itself has all along maintained that little is to be expected from the conference except empty talk, and significantly says to those who think they see such a "good thing" in it for American trade: "The Congress will not be a bed of roses, and even may turn out to be a free fight as soon as it is proposed to the representatives of Spanish America to virtually reëstablish, in favor and for the benefit of the United States, the colonial system which they destroyed in 1810."

It goes on to quote from a private letter written by a man who, it says, is "one of the most eminent of the public men of South America," as follows: "I do not believe that the Spanish-American republics will fall into the snare prepared for them in the projected Continental Congress. Uniformity of weights, measures, and coinage; better postal facilities; subsidies to new lines of steamers engaged in the South American trade—all this would be possible and useful; but unification of tariffs, or anything like it, never. They propose, for example, that we should admit their cotton and woollen goods free of duty, in exchange for a similar concession to our products, such as coffee, tobacco, cocoa, copper, etc. But this would imply the destruction of our customs revenue, two-thirds of which comes from duties on precisely those fabrics." Such remarks as these are only samples of what we are likely to hear in the future. Our public men and merchants are destined to have their eyes opened most disagreeably, if they persist in our old mistake of regarding the political leaders of South America as children in arms, just the persons to be taken in by a little Yankee smartness. They will find that the republics to the south of us have as well-settled a commercial policy as our own, and at least as intelligent. They will have to encounter a sentiment of nationality as proud and strenuous as our own, quick to resent any attempt to disregard or override it. They will meet delegates fully their equals in education, skilled in diplomacy, versed in economic law, and far from proposing to take the iron by the hot end. In short, they will probably get another chance to learn the simple lesson they seem to find it so hard to master—that talk and tricks cannot circumvent the natural laws of trade.

As soon as the news of Mr. Blaine's selection as Secretary of State reached Spain, it caused a sensation in that country. The newspaper *El Imparcial* at once declared the announcement of the name of the new Secretary to be of the gravest importance to Spain. The Minister of Foreign Affairs said the same thing in the Cortes, and promptly moved that the squadron in the West Indies be immediately strengthened. It seemed to be generally felt that there was danger of the loss of Cuba, and patriotic talk about there not being money enough in the world to buy that island grew to be the common thing. But our portentous Secretary roared most gently in response to Spain's ruffling, and hastened to assure the haughty Dons, so the cable shortly told us, that they would find him the quietest and most peaceable man in the world. As to Cuba, his intentions were of the most honorable sort; all he wanted was to buy her sugar, not herself. Chili will doubt-

less take courage at this and dismiss her fears. The *Estandarte Católico*, a paper published in Santiago, referred in its issue of March 4 to the probable accession of Mr. Blaine, "the famous ex-Minister and ex-candidate who gave us so much trouble in former years. We learn from private advices that Blaine, who makes no concealment of his hatred of Chili, perhaps on account of the unpleasant memories which the name suggests, will do everything possible, if he succeeds to the Secretaryship, to show us hostility." But this is to forget that Mr. Blaine has grown older in the past eight years, and is no longer the fighter he once was.

The opening of the Paris Exposition is so much like other events of the kind with which the public are now familiar, that there is little to be said of it from the mechanical or the artistic point of view. Notwithstanding the abstention of the great Powers of Europe and the temporary withdrawal of their ambassadors, the Exposition is a success. The action of the Powers in this matter will probably strengthen the republic as a form of government, since the alternative to it is some form of monarchy, Cæsarism being one of the forms. It is perhaps natural and excusable that the great Powers should decline to take part in the celebration of an event which cost them millions of lives and hundreds of millions of money. It is still an open question whether the French Revolution was a good thing or a bad thing for the world—whether the undoubtedly good results that flowed from it might not have been gained with less suffering and cost. But it is not doubtful that to the reigning families, the governing classes, and to Order as it is now represented and defended in Europe, the Revolution was hell upon earth. Therefore they need not be expected to show it any welcome to-day. To do so would be a false pretence. But the temporary withdrawal of their Ministers, lest their ears should be saluted with the music of the "Marseillaise," is a small business. No disturbance will grow out of it, but the effect of it on the French mind will probably be to confirm their attachment to the principles of the Revolution and to the Republic as the outcome of it.

Another stage has been reached in the German system of compulsory insurance for workmen. Our readers will remember that the legislation as it stands now provides for insurance against sickness and accident; the next step is to bring about compulsory provision for the care of permanent disability from old age or other cause. We have noted in these columns the first shape of the bill by which this part of the system is to be established, and in the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics* we find an account of the measure as it stands at the present session of the Reichstag. The original bill introduced by the Government was first modified by the Government itself, and has been further modified in the committee to which it was referred by the Reichstag. All the modifications are in the direction of more liberal provision for the workmen; and as the beneficiaries continue to pay only a third of the contributions (the other two-thirds being paid by the employers and by the Imperial Treasury, respectively), this means that a still heavier levy is made on the rest of the community for their advantage. The scheme has become more top-heavy, in that the pensions for the aged or disabled workmen are graded, varying according to the wages they have been earning. It remains entirely bureaucratic—the Government runs the machinery throughout; the approach to Socialism is nearer and nearer. Later advices inform us that the committee has completed its labors, and that its amended draft of the bill is ready for action by the Reichstag. The chances are that the measure will be passed, perhaps with more modifications. It will form the last important part of this gigantic scheme for help to the poor.

The *Indépendance Belge* recently published a report of a speech made in the Italian Parliament by Count Giusso, ex-Mayor of Naples, and now a deputy from that city, which sets forth in strong terms the great depression in agriculture, and the critical condition of the public finances, brought about by the new policy of protection and militarism. The Count recites the disastrous exhibit made by the foreign trade of Italy in 1888—exports decreased by $24,000,000, and imports by $42,000,000. He admits that some new branches of manufacture have become flourishing at the expense of the people, saying: "We have preferred the shop to the land; we have preferred the coal which we do not possess to our Italian sun; we have preferred the motive force of steam to the most powerful motive force in the universe—the sun; and we are naturally suffering the sad consequences." He makes a moving recital of the alarming distress existing in the agricultural provinces of the South, affirming that "the Utopian idea of creating an industrial Italy on the ruins of agricultural Italy, has been a colossal error, big with disastrous results." From one end of the Peninsula to the other the cry is, he says, "Give us the means of selling our products, and we will pay the taxes." All this certainly seems to be borne out by the late report to Parliament of the Chairman of the Budget Committee, Signor Luzzatti. He shows that the floating debt of the Treasury will be $100,000,000 by June 30, while the deficit for the current year will not be less than $46,000,000 if the increased military expenditures are put through as proposed. That Crispi shares the common opinion that the trouble is largely due to the abrogation of the French commercial treaty, is shown by his having got himself authorized by the Parliament to open negotiations with France for a new treaty. Yet there is a strong war party urging the Government to seize upon the chance for conquest just now offering itself in Abyssinia, and it is hard to say what the result will be.

Mr. Parnell's admission, before the Commission on Friday, that he had declared in a speech that the Land League had suppressed secret societies in Ireland, when he did not himself believe it, and had uttered the falsehood with the deliberate purpose of deceiving the House of Commons so as to prevent the passage of the Coercion Bill, is the most extraordinary and least comprehensible incident of the Irish trouble. It hardly needs examination from the moral side, but as a matter of policy it is a singular blunder for an astute man to commit. More flagrant fibs for the purpose of deceiving Parliament have been told by distinguished Englishmen—more flagrant because they concerned matters within their personal knowledge. The most noted was Lord Salisbury's in 1877, when he denied, in the House of Lords, the authenticity of the published copy of his secret understanding with Russia, with naked intent to deceive; but he did not afterwards get up and acknowledge that he had lied, and chuckle over it. Disraeli was a dexterous practitioner of the same mode of catching Parliamentary votes, but neither he nor Salisbury lost character with his party through his departures from truth, because he showed some respect for public opinion by keeping quiet after he was found out. Mr. Parnell had far stronger reasons for caution than either of them, as he spoke before a hostile or prejudiced community which already doubted his word, and because the fortunes not only of the Irish party, but one may almost say of the English Liberal party, depend on his coming well out of his present ordeal.

The explanation offered by Parnell on Tuesday only makes the affair more mysterious than before. On examining the speech, out of which the Attorney-General sought to prove him guilty of self-contradiction, he now says he discovers that what he said in the House of Commons was quite true—namely, that the League had extinguished "Ribbon Societies." So that it was when he said that he had deliberately tried to deceive the House of Commons that he was saying what was false. How so astute a man as he failed to examine the speech before answering the Attorney-General's question, and how, without examining it, he promptly confessed that in making it he asserted what he knew to be untrue, is, of course, inexplicable at this distance. His election as a life member of the National Liberal Club and his receiving the freedom of the city of Edinburgh since the affair occurred, seem to indicate that the Liberals explain it by some sort of nervous breakdown under the strain of a prolonged and trying cross-examination. The cross-examination ended on Wednesday morning, and, but for the above-named incident, without doing him any damage. Probably the slight importance apparently attached to it is in part due to the fact that the object of the proceeding is to connect Parnell with the promoters of crime and outrage; and this being so, the revelation that he told fibs in the House is deemed of comparatively small importance.

NATHAN AND DAVID.

BISHOP POTTER'S address at St. Paul's on April 30 was remarkable in two ways. It was the first, and, indeed, we may say the only public and official attempt to call attention to the moral lessons of the occasion. It was he alone who reminded the public that the Constitution was not an automatic thing; that it did not work of itself; that the manner of its working and the results of its working depended on the moral and intellectual quality of the men behind it; that in a voyage in the "Ship of State" we are as much dependent for a happy and prosperous issue on the men who watch and steer, as in a voyage in one of the "ocean greyhounds." All, or nearly all, other commentators on the great anniversary have told us over and over how rich we have grown under the Constitution; how many miles of railroad we have made; what the increase in hogs, cattle, grain, banks, and coasting steamers has been since George Washington assumed the Presidency. Bishop Potter took on himself the solemn and salutary duty of asking whether, besides growing in wealth, we had in the last hundred years grown in grace; whether the statesmen of to-day were of the same type as those of Washington's day; whether they were living up to the standard of public duty which Washington set up; and in short, whether the Government was really travelling in the road on which the framers of the Constitution started it.

These questions have often during the last few years been put in books and pamphlets and addresses of one sort or another, but have for the most part wasted their force on the desert air. Bishop Potter has rendered us all the inestimable service of putting them, in church, in full canonicals, to the audience which they most concerned. The imaginary picture which he drew of Washington dealing with an office-seeker who asked that public office should be treated as "spoils" for his benefit, was as impressive—considering the surrounding circumstances—as anything recorded in literature since Nathan reminded David of all the trust the Lord had placed in him, and of the gross and shameless way in which he had abused it. The enterprise in which the people of the United States are engaged is, in truth, a moral far more than a commercial enterprise. Its final success depends far more on moral than on material conditions. The "business" view of it has a thousand trumpeters. Our politics is full of "business men," with their clubs and their organs. The last campaign was "a business" canvass, we are told, and the Cabinet is full of "business" men seeking and giving "business." The land is filled with the voice of the drummer proclaiming to all the world what a "business" country this is. Let us, therefore, be grateful to the preacher who rose up in his place in the pulpit, on the most solemn of our anniversaries, to remind us that nations do not live by "business" alone, but by recognizing and encouraging in the public service the qualities which alone make private life respectable or useful.

The second service which Bishop Potter has rendered to the community is in reminding the practitioners of the spoils system that they cannot in our day get rid of Mugwumpery and all that the term implies. They are constantly flattering themselves, especially when they win an election, that the Mugwumps have disappeared, and that their ears will be no more troubled by protests against gambling in the public offices and stealing money out of the Treasury as salaries for party hacks and adventurers. They are in this like the Indians on the plains, who, in former years, whenever they cut off a detachment of troops, thought they had killed all the white men there were, and that they should thereafter possess their hunting-grounds in peace. The spoilsmen have chosen to give the name of Mugwumps not only to everybody who finds fault with their system and exposes their little games, but to every office-holder who, by refusing to be active in politics and by displaying marked diligence and capacity in the discharge of his official duties, establishes a claim in the public eye to the permanent retention of his place. It was for this reason solely that they hated Mr. Pearson and hunted him to death. They are intent to-day on warning every man in the public service that he must not make himself conspicuous by his devotion to his duty, or in any way make himself a contrast to the general run of political "workers." They flatter themselves that by these and similar processes they will stamp out the pestilent notion that the Government is entitled to the same faithful service as the private employer, and owes its faithful servants the same confidence and rewards which the private employer owes to his.

Bishop Potter's utterances will do them a world of good in showing them that they are never safe from Mugwumps, and never will be safe as long as there exists in America a man or woman who hates fraud and injustice and cruelty. Probably the last place in the world in which they expected to see a Mugwump start up and warn them of the wrath to come was the pulpit of St. Paul's Church on the thirtieth day of April. It seemed even more unlikely that they should find their Nathan there than at a Plummer or Wanamaker "banquet;" and yet there he was, in prophet's robes, pouring on them a prophet's blasting scorn.

DISMISSAL OR REMOVAL.

THE *Watchman*, the Boston Baptist organ to which we referred last week as asking for a suspension of judgment with regard to President Harrison, has since then initiated a fresh wriggle touching Postmaster Pearson's removal. Admonishing the *National Baptist* on the sin of talking of Pearson's having been "displaced for political reasons during the closing hours of his life," the *Watchman* says, with an air of sadness:

"We have noted not a little said in the same strain of remark with the above, but chiefly in the secular press. For the most part it is not difficult in all this to detect a spirit of a partisan, at least of a political animus quite akin to that spirit, which, in the same breath, is unsparingly condemned. 'Displaced,' as in the foregoing, 'removed,' 'turned out,' are the words used to characterize the matter of Mr. Pearson; all of which fail utterly to meet the case. Mr. Pearson was not 'removed' nor 'displaced.' He had served faithfully two successive terms, of four years each, the second term having expired with the advent of April, as his father-in-law, ex-Postmaster-General James, had served—with Mr. Pearson as his assistant—since 1873; an administrative term never, certainly in New York, paralleled as to its length in the same family. He was simply not reappointed for a third term."

We wonder whether the writer of this has ever asked himself why four years or eight years should be considered long enough for an able and competent man to remain in charge of an important business. Has it ever occurred to him to inquire whether the Superintendent of the Adams Express Company or the Manager of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company every year calls into his presence those of his subordinates who have held their places for four years and addresses them as follows?—"I have, gentlemen, the highest appreciation of your talents and character. You have done your work admirably and the company is much indebted to you. But you have got to go. Every one of you has held his place for four years, and some of you, by an extraordinary stretch of indulgence, for eight years. You know as well as I do that four years is the American business cycle—that is, the period for which an American ought to stay in any one place. No one ought to keep a business place on a salary more than four years, because the object of the business is, of course, to give the largest possible number of persons a hack at the salaries. There are now many applicants for each of your places, who have been for some time urging me to dismiss you at once, in order that they might have their turn in carrying on our business; but I have shown them the absurdity and unfairness of dismissing you until you had served four years, and they have generally acquiesced in my reasoning. The fact is, when you go at the end of four years, or at the end of eight, you are not dismissed at all, or displaced either. You simply fail to be reappointed. You might say you were discharged, or removed, if you had to go at the end of two years, or three years, or six years; but I challenge any man within the sound of my voice to say whether he thinks he is removed when he goes away at the end of a quadrennial term. Doubtless those of you who have spent eight years in our service may find it difficult to get other employment, and your families may suffer in consequence, but no right-minded man will repine under this when he remembers that he is cast on the world under the quadrennial rule. He suffers from this as he suffers from cold in winter, but no one is to blame because winter comes."

The editor of the *Watchman*, if he were present at such a scene as this, would be both amused and indignant, and yet its absurdity in the case of Postmaster Pearson is just as great as it would be in the case of the railroad employees. Such is the effect of long usage in blunting even the commonest business perceptions. The four-year term, when enacted in 1820, was simply meant

to provide a period at which officers intrusted with the public funds would necessarily have to make an accounting. It was found that, owing to a faulty system of inspection, or the absence of any system, officers who were in default were frequently allowed to run on for years without being brought to book. So it was provided that every such officer's term should legally expire in four years from the date of his appointment, so that at that date he would be compelled to make an accounting. When the spoilsmen came into power under Jackson, this act was eagerly seized on as a good mode of applying the hog theory to the public service—the theory, that is, that the public service is a fund paid out in salaries which a certain number of individuals are entitled to share in their turn. So they soon made it appear that, at the end of four years, not only should an officer make an accounting and submit to an audit, but should vacate his place, so that somebody else might get some of the "pap" he had enjoyed during this period. This doctrine has through mere familiarity permeated the intellectual apparatus of great numbers of good people, like the editor of the *Watchman*, until at last they have come really to believe that there is some principle of government which requires that an efficient and experienced officer should be dismissed, by not being reappointed, at the end of four years, although, if they heard of a railroad president or the superintendent of an express company carrying on his business in this way, they would think him crazy.

"THE TOBACCO FRAUDS."

On the 25th of February last, Secretary Fairchild wrote a letter to the United States District Attorney in this city, submitting certain "facts" to him to see whether "therein there was sufficient evidence to convict certain guilty parties of violation of the statutes" against fraud in collection of the revenue on Sumatra tobacco. He then continued:

> "This I leave to your better judgment; but I consider that Assistant-Appraiser Sturges and Examiner Hammill knowingly aided in admitting this tobacco to entry upon false classification, and upon payment of less than the amount of duties legally due thereon, and I have therefore caused their dismissal from the service. Appraiser McMullen's attitude towards the whole matter was one of such indifference and inefficiency, and this was so in accord with much of his conduct heretofore, that I procured his dismissal; but I am not disposed to believe that he wilfully aided in this attempted fraud, and therefore I do not ask you to prosecute him. Upon consultation with the Collector, you may determine that you can also make a case against some of the owners of the tobacco."

It will be seen that he here charges two of his subordinates with an indictable offence, finds them guilty himself, and inflicts on them the terrible punishment of dismissal in disgrace, and in the same breath asks the District Attorney to see whether there was "sufficient evidence" against them for an indictment. Be it remembered, "sufficient evidence" to warrant their dismissal with public opprobrium must be sufficient evidence to warrant their indictment and trial. If Mr. Fairchild's "facts" justified his inflicting this frightful injury on two officers of long standing in the service, on his own mere motion, they must necessarily have justified the submission of the charge to a jury. When a grand jury finds an indictment, it does not say that the charge is proved. It simply says that there is good ground for judicial inquiry.

We felt sure all along that there was no more substance in these "tobacco frauds" than in the "sugar frauds"; that they were both concocted in support of a scheme of long standing for getting rid of Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, and of as many of his Republican assistants as possible, so as to leave Assistant-Secretary Maynard a clearer field for his peculiar operations. We were, therefore, not at all surprised to learn last week that District-Attorney Walker had reported to the Attorney-General, that there were no facts sufficient to maintain an indictment, and that nothing more would be heard of "the tobacco frauds." So far so good. But this failure to indict, this confession that there was no evidence which the Grand Jury would consider reasonable ground for suspicion, does not redress the great wrong of which ex-Secretary Fairchild has been guilty. He has printed in a public official executive document (No. 142), thus making it a privileged communication and putting himself beyond the reach of legal punishment at the hands of his victims, a charge of the most disgraceful character, which they have no opportunity of answering, and which must for ever remain a deep injury and mortification to themselves and their children. He has added injury to the insult, so far as lay in his power, by dismissing them from the service a few days before he himself went out of office. Should a public officer be allowed to commit acts of such atrocious cruelty and injustice, and then quietly escape into private life with the reputation of a reformer? We think not, and there are few honest and intelligent men who will not agree with us. Mr. Sturges, the Assistant Appraiser, who has been stigmatized in this outrageous way, and in nineteen years of service has borne an excellent character, did not actually examine the bales of tobacco in which the alleged frauds occurred. The actual work was done in the usual course by an examiner, and yet throughout Mr. Fairchild's letter, line after line, and paragraph after paragraph, the whole work is described as having been done "by Sturges," with the obvious intention of representing him as the direct perpetrator of the alleged fraud.

What aggravates Mr. Fairchild's offence is the peculiar nature of the duty on Sumatra tobacco. Sumatra tobacco consists of large, strong, flexible leaves, which are imported into this country solely for the purpose of making cigar wrappers. The law under which duty is levied on it makes it liable to 35 cents per pound if the pound contains less than 100 leaves; to 75 cents per pound if the pound contains more than 100 leaves. It will be readily seen from this that it must often depend on the weight of a single leaf whether any particular pound pays 35 cents or 75 cents. Moreover, the tobacco in the bale is more or less charged with moisture, and a pound drawn out from the bale, which, when first exposed to the air is only liable to 35 cents, may, after fifteen or twenty minutes of desiccation, become liable to 75 cents. The bales, too, are examined by sample. A few "hands" or bunches of the tobacco, each fastened with a string, are drawn forth, and the whole bale is assessed according to their weights. The temptations to fraud created by this ridiculous mode of levying the duty are plainly great; but so is the liability to honest error. Both facts have to be borne in mind by any one proposing to attack the character or livelihood of an appraising officer.

In the present case the amount of which the Government, according to Mr. Fairchild, was defrauded was $6,354.52. The number of bales on which the alleged fraud was perpetrated was 275. To assess the duty on these, 29 were examined by sample in the manner described. Of these latter, 24 were reëxamined, also by sample, by the Secretary's order, in order to detect the fraud.

The samples drawn per bale weighed from 2¼ to 3¼ pounds, or about 1½ per cent. of the weight of the bale. The number of leaves drawn from each bale ranged from 220 to 359. The general range of count of leaves was from 5 to 0 above and below the dividing line between the rates of 35 and 75 cents; the extreme departure from that line being 12 above and 14 below. The weight of the "hands" ranged from 2 19-32 ounces to 6 24-32 ounces. A single bale taken at random shows the following departures from the dividing line for the ten hands drawn, in their order: 6 leaves below, 11 above, 2 above, 3 below, 2 above, 1 below, 9 above, 5 above, 6 above, and 3 above. Taking these facts together, it is perfectly safe to say that the bales in both importations run exceedingly close to the dividing line, and that two successive drawings of samples for classification would be as little apt to produce the same result as would two successive turns of a kaleidoscope.

The most important fact in this connection is that a slight fluctuation in the examined samples between the first and the second inspections is quite sufficient to account for even a much larger discrepancy in results, as regards amount of duty, than is shown in this case; for it must be borne in mind that a change from 35 cents to 75 cents in the rate is an advance in duty of over 114 per cent. upon all the tobacco affected by such change, and *that a single leaf in the count may produce that change for an entire bale;* or say 180 pounds at 40 cents (the amount of advance) would give an increase in duty of $72. That this is not fanciful can be shown by practical illustration from the statements in the document before us:

Lot No. 1, *ex P. Caland*, contains twenty bales, weighing 3,373½ pounds, all originally classified at the 35 cents rate, but reclassified—80 per cent. at 35 cents and 20 per

cent. at 75 cents—giving aggregate amounts, viz.:

First classification	$1,180 67
Second classification	1,450 51
Difference in duty	$269 84

Upon a reference to the statement of details relating to the examined bale No. 579, it will be seen that in the count of 304 leaves drawn, the transfer of a single leaf from one hand to another would increase the above difference 50 per cent., making it $404.76, instead of $269.84.

We might carry these illustrations further, but the above is sufficient to show the extraordinary recklessness with which Mr. Fairchild acted in attacking the character of his subordinates and driving them from the service. There ought to be some legal remedy for such gross abuses of power. A civil service worthy of the country will not be obtainable until such a remedy is provided.

CANADIAN AND AMERICAN RAILROADS.

A COMMITTEE of the United States Senate, in pursuance of a resolution of that body, has commenced an inquiry to learn whether any railroad lines located in the United States are owned, operated, or controlled by the Grand Trunk Railway Company, the Canadian Pacific, or any other company or corporation; whether commerce originating in the United States is diverted from American to Canadian lines, and if so to what extent and by what means; and whether there is any discrimination in the charges made for tolls or otherwise against American vessels which pass through the Welland and St. Lawrence Canals. The Committee are charged also to "inquire fully into the question of the regulation of the commerce carried on by railroads or water routes between the United States and Canada, and to represent what legislation, if any, is necessary for the protection of the commercial interests of the United States, or to promote the enforcement of the Act to Regulate Commerce, approved February 4, 1887"; the act referred to being the Inter-State Commerce Act.

The phrase "protection of the commercial interests of the United States" has an ominous sound, because the accepted meaning of protection is to give one citizen or class of citizens an advantage over others, both being Americans. Commercial interests always include two parties, sellers and buyers; but when we talk of protecting commercial interests we always mean the interests of the seller. For all purposes of legislation the buyer is completely ignored, and mainly for the reason that he does not take pains to make himself heard and felt at Washington city. Government is a corporation in which the only effective shareholders are those who stir about and make a noise and a fuss. This, we judge, is what certain railroads have been doing. They are sellers of transportation, and they want protection against the competition of the Canadian railroads that enter our territory.

Mr. Joseph Nimmo, Jr., has been firing off pamphlets on this subject at intervals for two or three years, in which the grievance of competition with the "subsidized" Pacific Railway of Canada is set forth in a glaring way. "From the very beginning," says Mr. Nimmo in his latest essay, "the projectors and promoters of that enterprise, in making a commercial survey of this country from the Atlantic to the Pacific, were in the habit of using expressions which seemed to say: 'Moab is my washpot, over Edom will I cast out my shoe.'" If anything of this sort can be proved before the Committee, means must be found, of course, to improve the ideas of the Canadians and their manner of putting them to us. The particular expression which brings Moab and Edom into Mr. Nimmo's recollection is found in an official publication of the Canadian Government, in which it is said: "Already notes of alarm have been sounded by the American press at the manner in which the Canadian Pacific Railway is cutting into the business of the transcontinental roads of the United States." Now, cutting into the business of a railroad can only be accomplished by doing it at lower rates. This is especially true where the cutting road is a longer and more roundabout route. The Canadian Pacific Railroad, for most purposes of competition with our lines, runs on three sides of a parallelogram, while ours run on the fourth side. At equal rates, therefore, it would get no competitive business. It can only compete successfully by offering lower rates, and this, we believe, it does not do at present. Mr. Van Horne, the President of the Canadian Pacific Company, in a brief letter to Mr. Nimmo, says that the business done by his road from one American point to another does not constitute 4 per cent. of its earnings. If it constituted 40 per cent., it ought not to be interfered with by Congress, unless the law-making power, contrary to all recent examples, is going to busy itself with means to raise the cost of railroad transportation to the shipper. Both the Western farmer and the Eastern manufacturer are content to be considered the washpot of Moab, and to be pelted with the shoe-leather of Edom, if these come in the form of lower rates of fare and freight.

It may be, however, that the Inter-State Commerce Act has weighted our own lines with burdens and conditions which make the competition of Canadian roads unfair. The Grand Trunk Railway was found recently to be carrying coal from Buffalo to Hamilton and other points in Canada for seventy-five cents per ton, although its published schedule of charges was one dollar. The Michigan Central Company complained of this as a violation of the Inter-State Commerce Act. The Grand Trunk contended that its Canadian line was not subject to the act, and that, if it were, no damage or injury had been shown to have resulted from its action in the premises. Both points were overruled by the Commission, and it was ordered to make its charges conformable to its published tariffs.

It would be very strange if facts had not transpired since the passage of the Commerce Act showing the need of special treatment and amendment as regards the relations of the Canadian and American railways. The investigation will, doubtless, tell what these are and suggest the proper course to be pursued. But it should be understood that any measure for the "protection" of our railways against those of Canada means that our people should be compelled to pay more money for transportation than it might be had for. The public will be able to see this when it is put before them, even if they cannot see the true color of protection when it comes to them in the form of manufactured goods.

THE CUNEIFORM TABLETS OF TELL EL-AMARNA.

PHILADELPHIA, April 25.

PROF. SAYCE calls Egypt the land of surprises. A recent and most remarkable surprise is the finding of an official correspondence carried on some three thousand years ago between Egypt, Babylonia, and other Eastern districts. As often happens with important finds, the discovery was purely accidental. Fellaheen, while searching for bricks to serve as building material in the mounds at Tell El-Amarna, a village lying about one hundred miles to the south of Cairo, came across several hundred small clay tablets covered on both sides with cuneiform characters. The tablets were offered for sale in Cairo; as the result of a competition that naturally ensued in archæological circles, the Berlin Museum carried off the lion's share with about 160 tablets, the British Museum secured 81 pieces, the Bulak Museum about 60, while some 70 are still in private possession. Such is the simple story of a discovery that turns out to be of the first magnitude.

From Egyptian and other sources it was known that King Amenophis IV. of Egypt, who reigned about 1,300 years before this present era, had established an official residence on the site of the modern Tell El-Amarna. Owing to the religious reformation which he attempted to carry out in his kingdom (his aim apparently having been to establish sun-worship alone, in place of the prevailing polytheism), this ruler is generally known as the "heretic" King. He failed in the attempt, and soon after his death the city he founded was deserted and fell into decay. Extensive mounds alone remain to testify to the former grandeur of the place, but there is little doubt that a thorough excavation would bring to light considerable portions of the buildings at present buried beneath accumulations of dust and rubbish. That the palace of Amenophis IV. actually stood at Tell El-Amarna is now fully confirmed by the precious tablets that were taken out of the mounds, for the greater number of them are letters written in the Babylonian-Assyrian language, addressed to none other than this very king. The material on which these curious letters are written is the soft clay commonly employed by the Babylonians, from whom the custom was adopted by the Assyrians. The conservative instincts of Oriental nations led to the retention of this material, even at a time when the more convenient papyrus was already known to the Babylonians, much as we, in the age of paper, still use the mediæval parchment for certain official documents. The average size of the tablets is three inches square, but some are as large as nine by five inches.

Passing to the contents of these tablets, we find that they open up a vista of the relations existing between the political powers of a gray antiquity, which is to the highest degree surprising. We find the diplomatic intercourse

between Egypt and Babylonia to be far more lively and intimate than we had any reason to suppose; we see Egypt maintaining close relations with other countries, scarcely known to us by aught but their names, though they must at one time have played no insignificant part; we see the rulers of the Nile receiving regular reports from their officers stationed in various quarters. Only a small proportion of the tablets have as yet been published, and of these not all have been fully deciphered. Scholars are now at work on the collections in Berlin and London; but enough has appeared to enable us to form a general idea of the nature of the more important of the letters. Even at the present imperfect stage of our knowledge, we are warranted in drawing certain conclusions of considerable moment.

Among the correspondents of the Egyptian King, there is one who has a special interest for us, from the fact that he was already known from the monuments in cuneiform writing which we possess. He is Burnaburiash, the King of Babylon. On a brick found in southern Babylonia several decades ago, this King, styling himself (in accordance with official custom) the "powerful," commemorates a temple that he erected in honor of the sun-god; it was no small surprise to scholars to meet with his name again on a tablet found in a locality so far removed from Babylonia as Tell El-Amarna. For reasons that need not be detailed here, the identity of the two Burnaburiashes in question is beyond all reasonable doubt, and we have thus obtained an exceedingly important meeting-point of Egyptian and Babylonian chronology. In one tablet to the Egyptian King, the Babylonian, after referring to an unpleasant message that he had received from his Egyptian colleague, calls upon the latter to give him renewed assurances of his good will and confirm the friendly relations formerly existing between the two countries. As an index of his own peaceful policy, Burnaburiash recalls the presents that on former occasions he had despatched to the Egyptian court. The latter part of the tablet is unfortunately quite mutilated, and the continuation is therefore somewhat obscure. It appears that Burnaburiash lodged a complaint against Amenophis for an injury that had been inflicted on a Babylonian, and demanded an explanation and also the payment of damages. It is evident that a regular diplomatic intercourse had existed between Egypt and Mesopotamia for some time previous—how long before the reign of Burnaburiash, it is of course impossible to say; but as the latter is a monarch of the so-called Kossæan dynasty, with whom a new era in the political history of Babylonia begins, it is not too hazardous to date the beginning of the interchange of messages between Egypt and Mesopotamia from at least the rise of this dynasty—that is, about the sixteenth century. As far as we know, the relations between the two countries were always of a friendly character, which is in itself a rather remarkable fact, for the monuments both of Egypt and Mesopotamia as a rule speak only of wars and devastations, rarely of peace and good will.

Apart from its contents, the letter is also interesting from its opening formulas, in which the Babylonian embodies a greeting to his brother, much as an Eastern potentate would do to-day. The letter begins:

"To Naphuria (surname of Amenophis) the great King, the King of Egypt, thus speaks Burnaburiash, the great King, the King of Babylonia, thy brother. To me and my house, to my horses and chariots, to my officers and my country, may there be abundance of peace. To my brother and his house, to his horses and to his chariots, to his officers and his country, may there be an abundance of peace."

Horses apparently took precedence, in the eyes of these rulers, of human beings, though, on the other hand, we must remember that by horses are here meant war-horses, and the expression "horses and chariots" is but a synonym for army.

Even more interesting is the correspondence that passed between Egypt and a ruler who calls himself Dushratta, King of Mitanni. Some of the letters are addressed to Amenophis IV., but others to the latter's father, Amenophis III. We may properly suppose that the son carried the correspondence with him as "official archives" upon the removal of the seat of residence to Tell El-Amarna. Most important among these are the letters which refer to the marriage of Dushratta's daughter to Amenophis III. From Egyptian sources, we already knew that the latter had married an Oriental princess. We now encounter a most remarkable confirmation of this testimony, and in the Tell El-Amarna tablets we have a great part of the correspondence in which the details of the marriage, including what appears to be the marriage dowry, are settled. Dushratta in this correspondence addresses Amenophis invariably as his son-in-law. It may not be uninteresting to give also the introductory formulas used in this correspondence, which varies somewhat from the one above quoted:

"To Nimmuria (surname of Amenophis III.), the great King of Egypt, my brother and son-in-law, whom I love and who loves me, speak as follows: Dushratta, the great King, the King of Mitanni, thy brother and father-in-law, who loves thee. Peace to me; to my brother and son-in-law peace; to thy house, thy wives, thy nobles, thy men, thy chariots, thy horses, thy land and all that belongs to thee, peace in abundance."

It will be noticed that the message is not directed to Amenophis, but to the messenger who is asked to make the announcement that follows to the Egyptian King. The tablet in such a case serves the purpose of a memorandum for the messenger, who is supposed to execute his commission by word of mouth. Dr. Winckler of Berlin is of the opinion that this indirect form represents the older and Babylonian method of sending a message, and that the direct one is due to an innovation introduced by the Assyrians. It is hardly possible to pronounce definitively on this point at present, but the suggestion is an interesting one. Of the land of Mitanni we know almost nothing. A notice in the inscription of a great Assyrian King who ruled in the twelfth century before this era, enables us to fix its position approximately in the northwestern corner of Mesopotamia. The same notice informs us that it was a favorite hunting-ground. It is interesting to note that Amenophis III., too, was very fond of the chase. On a scarabæus he tells us that he slew over one hundred lions by his own hand. We also know from Egyptian sources that he visited Mesopotamia. It has been ingeniously conjectured that, while chasing lions and bulls in the forests of Mitanni, he met the lady of his love at the court of Dushratta.

Egyptian monuments tell us that the name of this princess whom Amenophis married was Thi or Thna, which fact likewise receives a most striking confirmation from another of the Tell El-Amarna tablets, in which a woman, Ti, is incidentally referred to as the mother of Amenophis IV. The alliance between the royal families of Egypt and Mitanni led to further marriage negotiations in the succeeding generation. This same Dushratta, in another tablet, sends a despatch to Amenophis IV., in which he states that Manê, his "brother's grandson," is desirous of winning the affections of a fair Egyptian, who was none other than the daughter of Amenophis IV. Dushratta hopes that the King will look favorably upon the petition, and that he will grant Manê permission to pay a visit to the Egyptian court. He also recalls the amicable relations which have hitherto existed between the two kingdoms, and, in addition to sweet words, sends his Egyptian colleague handsome presents and large quantities of gold. He also hints that there is more to follow if Amenophis consents to the marriage. Politics in those early days, it will be seen, did not differ so very much from modern conditions.

In addition to Burnaburiash and Dushratta, there are quite a number of other correspondents who send messages of various kinds to the Egyptian court. Among these, the most important, again, so far as ascertained, is a ruler of the country of Alashia. Several despatches of this King have been found, but unfortunately in all the name of the ruler is broken off. As for the country itself, this is the first mention of it that has ever been met with. From the contents of the letter, however, it is evident that it must have been a dominion of no little importance. This King, too, addresses Amenophis as his brother, refers to his wives, nobles, horses, and chariots, and evidently was on a footing of familiarity with the mighty Pharaoh. So far as they have been deciphered, the letters speak chiefly of an exchange of commodities between the two rulers.

Finally, there are to be mentioned the reports to Amenophis from Egyptian governors and officers stationed in various quarters. Little has as yet been deciphered of this division of the find, but it is more than probable that the reports contain information which will enrich our knowledge of the political history of ancient Egypt. The names of the places whence the despatches are sent excite the greatest interest. Among these we read Sidon, Jaffa, Megiddo, Ascalon, Byblus, and other places on the Phœnician coast and in the interior of Palestine.

An exceedingly curious and noteworthy circumstance is the fact that this correspondence with the Egyptian court should have been carried on in Babylonian, and not (as we had reason to expect) in Egyptian. That Burnaburiash should make use of Babylonian may be natural, but that Dushratta, whose language was certainly far different, probably not even Semitic, should do so, is rather surprising. This, together with the fact that the Egyptian officials stationed in Phœnicia and elsewhere also employ the Babylonian language, shows conclusively that its use and knowledge were not limited to the land where it arose. It would seem, indeed, though the conclusion appears somewhat hazardous, that Babylonian occupied an important position as the language of diplomatic intercourse among the Powers of antiquity, much as French did until recently among the European Powers, and as Latin did in the Middle Ages. There is no doubt, moreover, that these tablets were actually read by the Egyptian officials into whose charge they were given. Many of them still show traces of marks made by the Egyptian scribes to assist them in separating the words from one another. Others contain annotations and memoranda certifying to the receipt of the despatch and the date of its arrival, but written in the ordinary Egyptian characters and language. So one of these subscripts informs us that a certain letter was received at the time that the court was in Thebes, mentioning the year of the King's reign and the day of the month,

Another proof that the Egyptians devoted themselves to the study of the Babylonian cuneiform is furnished by a tablet with mythological contents found in the Tell El-Amarna collection. The tablet is marked by dots of Egyptian origin that separate the words, and evidently served the purpose of a "reading-book" used by some scribe while acquiring the very difficult and intricate cuneiform system.

There is little reason to question now that the soil of Egypt contains further treasures such as have been found at Tell El-Amarna. The discovery of this remarkable correspondence is as rich in the promises it holds out for the future as in the direct gain which results from it. A few years ago several cylinders inscribed with cuneiform characters were found in Egypt which, upon examination, proved to be documents deposited by the great Nebuchadnezzar in the sixth century while in Egypt, in commemoration of his campaign against the land of the Nile. Between the days of Burnaburiash and those of Nebuchadnezzar the contact between Mesopotamia and Egypt, now more close, now less so, now of a friendly, now of a hostile character, was never entirely broken. We may confidently look forward to having one day in our possession tolerably complete records of this contact.

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

FRANCE UNDER THE OLD REGIME.

PARIS, April 18, 1889.

I MENTIONED at the time it was published a volume by the Vicomte de Broc on 'France under the Old Régime, its Government and Institutions.' In this volume, M. de Broc undertook to give an account of the political and administrative state of France under what we familiarly call the "ancien régime." He now gives us a second volume, in which he undertakes to paint the manners, the intellectual and moral state of the country, before the Revolution. He is not a mere "laudator temporis acti," but he surveys French society impartially, and shows its defects as well as its qualities.

To understand a society well, we must first look at its education. In the old times, education varied according to the class into which a child was born. There was no uncertainty, no vocation: a young man was expected to do as his fathers had done; a nobleman could only become a soldier or enter the Church. The girls were generally educated in a convent, whether they belonged to the nobility or to the bourgeoisie. M. de Broc gives some curious facts touching the cost of their education. The 'État de la Ville de Paris' in 1757 has the prices of board (*pension*) in the convents of Paris; the board varied between 400 and 600 livres, not including the dresses, light, fuel, or washing. There was, besides, 300 livres for a maid when she was required. In the fashionable convent of Penthemont (where the Princesse de Ligne was educated—see the 'Histoire d'une grande dame au dix-huitième siècle,' by Lucien Perey), the price of board went as high as 1,000 francs. Girls belonging to the financial and judicial world were more moderate: they paid from 250 to 350 livres in various convents, such as the Dames de Sainte-Maria, the Cordelières, the Chanoinesses de St.-Augustin, etc.

For a century, Saint-Cyr received the poorer girls belonging to the nobility; they were 250 in number, and had to prove four degrees of nobility at least, on the paternal side. Would you have an idea of their life? They got up at six in the morning, heard mass every day at eight, worked till twelve, the dinner hour; the recess lasted till two, when the work began again till six o'clock; they went to bed at nine. A very severe life, as you see—quite as severe as the life of the boys educated in the colleges of the Jesuits. There were four classes at Saint-Cyr, and the complete education included grammar, catechism, sacred history, general history, geography, mythology, music, dancing, French literature. You will note this element of mythology, now almost completely wanting in all our systems of education. Many girls learned Latin and philosophy; Mme. de Sévigné and Mme. de Lafayette knew Latin, Mme. de Grignan was familiar with Descartes; Mme. Dacier translated Homer; later we see Mme. Du Châtelet, the friend of Voltaire, studying Newton. In his "Femmes Savantes" Molière attacked pedantry in women, not real learning. The "Précieuses" had made themselves ridiculous, but Fénelon, in his 'Éducation des filles,' insisted upon the necessity of a solid education for women.

It is not so easy to defend the *ancien régime* on the subject of marriage. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries did not allow much choice in this matter; the marriages were always arranged by the families, and treated as mere matters of business. The Duc de Nivernais was fourteen years old when he was married to a daughter of the Comte de Pontchartrain, aged fifteen. I could cite hundreds of such examples. When Mlle. de Sully was presented to Du Moulin, for the celebration of her marriage with M. de Rohan, she was so small that Du Moulin asked if she was presented for baptism. There are amusing details in Dangeau, in Mme de Sévigné, in Bussy-Rabutin, on such marriages between mere children. It is easy to imagine that these were not always happy. The Princess Palatine wrote in 1721: "To love one's children is a very common thing; to love one's wife is completely out of fashion. . . . Among people of quality I hardly know one example of affection and fidelity." The Princess was, perhaps, too severe, as well as Montesquieu, who writes in his 'Lettres Persanes': "Here, in Paris, a husband who loves his wife is a man who has not sufficient merit to make himself beloved by another." Dancourt, the dramatic author, says in his 'Bourgeoises de qualité' (1692): "Jealousy is a bourgeois passion which is hardly known among people of quality."

Paternal authority was much greater in old times than it is in our century; the father was the Roman paterfamilias, and had an almost despotic power. In the 'Roman bourgeois,' one of the rare novels which describe the inner life of the old bourgeoisie, you may read: "We were seven children in the house, all wearing beards, but the boldest would not have dared to cough or to spit in the presence of my father: a word of his made the house tremble." Chateaubriand, in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-tombe,' describes graphically the terror which he felt in presence of his father in the old castle of Combourg. The right of primogeniture was never as absolute in France as it is even now in England; all over the South, which had kept the Roman law, it did not exist. The custom of Paris gave to the eldest a separate portion, and besides, two-thirds of all the remainder if there were two children, one-half if there were more. The customs of Maine, Anjou, Tours, Loudun, Poitou, Blois, Angers, gave to the eldest two-thirds of the estate.

M. de Broc gives curious details on dress under the *ancien régime*, and on the mode and expense of living. His documents are, on this last point, the budget established by Mme. de Maintenon, in 1679, for her brother, the Comte d'Aubigné, who had just been married, and, at a later period, the budget of the painter, Joseph Vernet (taken from Léon Lagrange's biography of Joseph Vernet). Mme. de Maintenon was an admirable housekeeper. "Your eating expense (*dépense de bouche*) must not exceed six thousand livres a year [and she reckons four lackeys and two coachmen in the household, as well as three women and a valet]; let us add a thousand livres for the dress of Mme. d'Aubigné, as, with what I give her, it will be quite enough; then a thousand livres for the wages and dresses of the domestics; a thousand for the rent of the house; three thousand for your clothes, the opera, and sundry expenses." This amounts in all to 12,000 livres, for a household of twelve people. Joseph Vernet lodged in the house, and, having no rent to pay, spent about 10,000 livres. In all the budgets of old times, the dress of the gentleman enters for a larger sum than the dresses of the lady. The servants are more numerous and are satisfied with much smaller wages. M. and Mme. d'Épinay, when they married, had immediately sixteen servants. Among the small bourgeoisie the servants were almost exclusively women, and Molière's plays show us what important members of the household these women often were. They remained in the same family all their lives, and became almost members of it. The *menu* of a family dinner was, in 1740, very much what it is now. Brillat-Savarin gives us, in his 'Physiologie du Goût,' such a *menu* for ten people, and it could serve now under the same circumstances. Some fashions have changed: the plates were only changed three times during a dinner—after the soup, an invariable part of a French dinner, after the second course, and during the dessert, after the cheese.

Life in Paris has often been described. The 'Tableau de Paris,' by Mercier, is still found in a complete library. M. de Broc gives us, after the description of the capital in past times, a monograph on life at court, at Versailles; he shows us life in the provinces—first in the cities, afterwards in the châteaux. The great events in the cities were the solemn "entrées" of princes and governors; many of them were made the subject of fine publications, with engravings, which are now much valued by bibliophiles. Life has always been deemed more agreeable in Paris than in the provinces; the very word "provincial" savors of contempt. Hear what La Bruyère says of small cities in general: "I approach a small town and I am already on the height from which it is discerned. It is on the slope; a river goes round its walls and then enters a fine meadow; a thick forest protects it against the north wind. I see it in so good a light that I can count its towers and its churches; it looks as if it were grouted against the side of the hill. I say to myself: 'What pleasure it must be to live under such a beautiful sky and in so delicious a place.' I go down into the city, and I have not slept two nights in it before I feel like all its inhabitants—I want to get out of it." Lesage, in his "Turcaret," criticises the small divisions and jealousies of the provincial towns.

As for life in the châteaux, we do not possess many documents. Mme. de Sévigné describes minutely her daily existence at the Rochers, in Brittany, in her charming style: "Such is the rule of our convent; we inscribe over the door: 'Holy Liberty,' or 'Do as you like.' No numerous gatherings of people, no festivities." "When I am out of Paris," says she, "I want nothing but the country." She is not afraid of solitude, she dislikes importunate visitors. Very different was the life led at the magnificent Château de Grignan, but the Comte de Grignan was governor of his province and had

to entertain many people: he kept open table all the time. There is nothing in our modern life which can equal in magnificence the existence of the Duc de Choiseul at Chanteloup. We have on this subject an excellent document in the letters of the Abbé Barthélemy to Mme. du Deffand. It must be noted, however, that, with all this magnificence, there was not much of what we now call comfort, and the same may be said even of Versailles. We find curious notes also on the Château de Brienne in a book by M. Babeau (Troyes, 1877). This château was inhabited in the last century by Comte Loménie de Brienne. There were almost always as many as forty guests at the château, each of whom had a complete apartment. Babeau has described also the Château de la Chapelle-Godefroy, inhabited by Orry, the Controller-General of the Finances, and by Jean de Boullogne, after him, who was also Controller-General. Diderot shows us the existence of Baron d'Holbach at Grandval, in his letters to Mlle. Voland, as well as the life of Mme. d'Épinay at Chevrette. Arthur Young, in his 'Travels,' says at Aiguillon, which had been rebuilt by the Duc d'Aiguillon, one of Louis XV.'s Ministers, after he fell into disgrace: "Exile forces the French nobility to do what the English do for their pleasure, to reside on their domains and to embellish them"; but he is found reversing this judgment at Liancourt, in the Duc de Larochefoucauld's house: "I recognized at Liancourt the falseness of all the views I had formed before my journey concerning a French country-house. I expected to find a copy of the capital, I was in error. Life and occupation resemble much more those of the residence of an English lord than people would generally imagine. You find tea for your breakfast; then you can ride, hunt, look at the plantations, the gardens; you dine at half-past two instead of the old hour of twelve; music, chess, all the other amusements of a drawing-room help you to spend the remaining hours, as well as a library of seven or eight thousand volumes."

M. de Broc ends his interesting volume with details on the modes of travelling in France, on the post-office, the newspapers, and the country theatres in the provinces during the period which preceded the French Revolution.

Correspondence.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT DELPHI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just received the *Nation* of March 28, containing Mr. Stillman's letter on the proposed excavations at Delphi. Mr. Stillman says "that if the directors of our School of Hellenic Studies at Athens understood the position of the proposed excavations at Delphi, it would not be possible for them to enter into the proposed bargain with the Delphini for the privilege of uncovering what may chance to remain of the appurtenances of the Oracle." I feel bound to send a brief reply to Mr. Stillman's letter, as being one of the directors of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, and as having taken some trouble to "understand the position of the proposed excavations at Delphi." I have had direct sources of information *from all sides*. At this moment I have in my possession the state papers relating to agreements and valuations, and I returned from Delphi last week, where, in company with Mr. Rolfe of this School, with all the papers before me, I studied the site and had communication with the representatives of the people of Delphi.

I am fully convinced of Mr. Stillman's good intentions, and, in many respects, sympathize with his views; but he ought to have taken a little more trouble in ascertaining the facts. I do not wish at the present moment to enter into the whole question of excavations at Delphi; but I may mention the fact that Mr. Stillman is wrong when he asserts that "the price of the village has been raised from about $25,000, which is the highest value that can be put on it, to $80,000." I have before me the official valuation made by the French surveyors, as well as that made by the Greeks, and I can assure him that their estimate is considerably more than double that amount. He is furthermore misinformed concerning the action of the other schools. The German School has taken no steps whatever in the matter, and has neither "refused to enter into such competition," nor "has it recognized the moral claims of its sister institutions." But, what is perhaps more to the point, Mr. Stillman might easily have informed himself of what my own action in the matter was before rushing into print. My colleague, Professor Tarbell, was in Athens at the time Mr. Stillman wrote his letter, and he could have relieved himself of the necessity of surmise or of forming hasty conclusions by simply inquiring of my colleague what the American School had really done. He would then have found that, two months before his arrival at Athens, I was busily engaged in guarding the interests of pure scientific inquiry and of national courtesy with reference to the claims of the French School, in the very spirit which he now endeavors to contrast with the misguided blindness of our course of action.

I cannot enter upon the question as to what happened before my directorship, which began this last winter; and I must leave it to those who were themselves concerned to show the position of the School in previous years. But what I feel bound to do now is, to give the outline of my own action in the matter. Prior to my arrival here last December, I had not the slightest idea of the possibility of our taking up the excavation of Delphi. I was under the impression that the French School was about to begin. The day after my arrival the Greek papers announced that I had arrived in Athens, "sent by the American Government to enter upon negotiations for the excavation of Delphi." This was the first intimation I received. I was then more credibly informed that the right to excavate Delphi had been offered to the Americans. I thereupon looked into the matter on all sides, and finally came to the conclusion that, whatever our claims might be, we ought to waive them all if there was any possibility of the French School undertaking the excavations within a reasonable period. This attitude was entirely based upon a feeling of scientific and national courtesy. I took definite steps, as a responsible director of the school, to express these views. Some time has elapsed since then, and I have realized, on the one hand, that a large portion of my countrymen in America, who have the interests of science and of this School at heart, are strongly desirous of seeing the excavations at Delphi carried on by the American School; while, on the other hand, I have been informed on the best authority that there is no reasonable prospect of the right of excavating being granted to the French, but that it will be given either to the Americans or to the Greek Archæological Society. From that moment the question of excavating this the most famous of ancient Greek sites lay between the Greek Archæological Society and ourselves, we having a prior claim.

I am now, and shall in the future be, guided by the following considerations:

(1.) Delphi *must* be excavated in the interest of science.

(2.) The excavations must be carried on on a large scale to be of real value. (I may write another letter on this question, in which light may be thrown upon some of Mr. Stillman's remarks concerning the "price," or rather the cost.)

(3.) These excavations ought for many reasons to be undertaken soon. If the excavation of the whole site had been carried into effect twenty years ago, the cost would have been much lower.

(4.) If it were possible for the French School to do the work immediately, they ought to have first claim; if not, the interest of science ought to be paramount, and every true French scholar would be gratified at the idea of this important work being undertaken, and he, with the rest of the civilized world, will be grateful to whosoever brings this about. And if this should be carried into effect by Americans, to them will come the gratitude.

Your obedient servant,

Charles Waldstein.

American School of Classical Studies,
Athens, April 17, 1889.

THE AMHERST POSTMASTERSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your selection of the postmastership at Amherst, Mass., to point a contrast between President Cleveland and President Harrison (p. 335 of your last issue) is so inappropriate that I cannot refrain from stating the actual facts. In reality, the course of Mr. Harrison respecting Mr. Couch and the course of Mr. Cleveland respecting Mr. Couch's predecessor are exactly alike. As a supporter of Mr. Cleveland, I am sorry to have to say this, but the facts are as follows. It should be premised that neither case is a case of removal; in each the term expired and the holder was not reappointed.

Mr. Couch's predecessor had been appointed eight years before, at the instance of President Seelye, then member of Congress. His appointment was, in an unusual degree, in accord with the principles of civil-service reform. A vacancy suddenly occurring, he was appointed not only without his solicitation, but without his knowledge. What you say of Mr. Couch was equally true of him, that "he had been a most faithful public servant, and had conducted the office on the principles of civil-service reform, retaining the assistant of his predecessor." The Springfield *Republican* said that, in the matter of accounting with the Department at Washington, he had stood higher than any other postmaster in Massachusetts, save one. It is equally true that "his reappointment was asked for by nearly the entire faculties of the two colleges and by the leading business men, including," if I remember rightly, "the President of the National Bank and the proprietors of the mills." The signers of his petition were the recipients of nine-tenths of the mail-matter received by the office, and included both Republicans and Democrats of prominence. At that time, as now, the first test of what the new President would do under such circumstances was presented in this case. The politicians of the victorious party insisted upon a change, and Mr. Cleveland appointed Mr. Couch, then Chairman of the Democratic Town Committee. Both Mr. Couch and the new appointee are eminently fit men, and neither one is at all the typical party-worker. The only objection that could be made in either

case is the radical objection that, in the interest of the service, the best appointment to make in such cases is, almost always, a reappointment.

The non-partisan observer will perceive that the disadvantage of the comparison rests, if anywhere, on President Cleveland. The former case elicited no protest from the *Nation*; if the latter is felt to call for one, it at any rate cannot justly take the form of a contrast.—I am, sir, very respectfully yours,

J. Franklin Jameson.

Providence, April 27, 1889.

[Our files will bear witness to our faithfulness in holding up to public censure the current violations of civil-service reform principles and pledges by Mr. Cleveland's Postmasters-General. They will also show that we conceded the justice of President Cleveland's claim that a wholly partisan civil service should be reduced to one in which the political elements were fairly mixed and equalized, though this necessarily involved the turning out or replacing of some worthy officials. Such an equalization would, of course, have invited the reaction we are now witnessing even if it had not passed the middle line as to numbers, and had, in new appointments, scrupulously adhered to the business (or "public office a public trust") principle, as appears to have been the case with the Amherst postmastership, and not to the spoils principle. Still, without ignoring the real abuses of the late Administration, we hold that the circumstances of the Republicans' return to power were very different from those of Mr. Cleveland's accession as respects the civil service. Moreover, the Republican party asked last November to be reinstated in the Government expressly in order to correct and suppress the abuses perpetrated under Mr. Cleveland; and President Harrison, in his letter of acceptance, solemnly put himself in line on this chapter with the Chicago platform. Both the party and the President must now be tried not by the shortcomings of the Cleveland Administration, but by their own professions.—Ed. Nation.]

PROHIBITION IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to correct what I believe to be an erroneous idea in the communication from "A Travelling Man" in your issue of April 25? He says, "The aim of prohibition is, I believe, to keep those who crave liquor from getting it." The gentleman in question may have been led to think that such was the principal aim of prohibition, by the fact that some who advocate prohibitory laws take so narrow a view of this great question. To the majority of prohibitionists, however, this is but a minor point, and becomes insignificant when compared with the far more important purpose of saving from the evils of liquor-drinking our young men and young women, not only of the present, but of all future generations.

There are very few, even of the most radical prohibitionists, who will not readily admit that it is next to impossible to entirely prevent old topers from getting an occasional drink, even though the laws may be most carefully formed and rigidly enforced. This is especially true in localities where foreigners are in the majority. The greatest good which the far-seeing prohibitionist hopes to obtain from prohibitory laws is that, in those places where public opinion is in favor of the law, not only the young may be saved, but many who are already slightly addicted to the use of intoxicants may also be reclaimed; and that in those places where public opinion may not favor prohibition, liquor-selling may be placed under the ban of the law, and thus save that large number of young people whose pride will prevent them from having anything to do with a traffic carried on in open defiance of the law. It is needless to say that there is a large number of such young people, who, under other circumstances, would see no harm in visiting a saloon and drinking there when they see the authorities (a body of men which, in smaller places, often includes the leading church-members and most highly respected citizens) foster and protect the dram-shops.

I may also add that "A Travelling Man" rather overreaches himself when he says: "I have known men to drive forty miles to town for a drink." Any one who is acquainted with the State of Iowa knows very well that in no part of the State can one drive forty miles without passing a large number of villages or small towns. Knowing that in evading the law the wiles of the toper are legion, and knowing also that if there is any liquor to be had he is sure to know about it, it is certainly pretty good evidence that there are parts of the State of Iowa (that included within a radius of forty miles, or an area larger than eight average counties) where prohibition is a *complete* success.

Having lived in Iowa over twenty years, and knowing something of the working of the prohibition law, I think I am justified in saying that there are many other parts of the State where the same condition prevails; in other words, that the prohibition law in Iowa is, except possibly in a few river towns, as well enforced as any other law in the State.

Yours truly, Selby A. Moran.

Ann Arbor, Mich., April 29, 1889.

HIGH LICENSE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being a constant reader of the *Nation*, I am annoyed with your treatment of the liquor question, as giving the impression of having made up your mind first and seeking evidence afterwards, in true theological style. Last year's restriction of license was carried so far that back-door drinking was common (there being three drinking-places without license near our works), patent-stopper bottles for bottling at home became a prominent feature at grocery stores, and many of the saloons were enlarged and overcrowded—some of the proprietors making enormous profits out of their monopoly. This year promises to be much worse; the courts apparently being anxious to show the public the danger of giving one man so much power as is given by the Brooks Law.

In the *Nation* of April 25 you say, "The single fact that there are, in a city like Pittsburgh, eleven wards almost entirely without a liquor saloon, is itself an unanswerable argument in favor of the high-license principle as an effective agency for restricting the liquor traffic." High license may be good, but it seems to me that the above is almost self-evident proof that it has been carried to an absurd extreme. With tariff, oleo., liquor, dressed-beef, prison-labor, etc., agitations in the air, there is danger of the law-breakers becoming the majority, and therefore more respected than the law-makers. I am sorry to see the *Nation* in such unsuitable company.

Respectfully yours, W. Walker.

Pittsburgh, Pa., April 29, 1889.

[We do not seek evidence "afterwards," but all the time, and we are obliged to our correspondent for what he offers. We are all liable to err in thinking that the results of *any* system of restricting the liquor traffic will be immediately demonstrable; but prohibitionist and high-license advocates ought to be agreed in accepting the diminution of saloons—*i. e.*, of the frequency of temptation—as a gain to the community. Either policy tends more or less to promote illicit selling and drinking.—Ed. Nation.]

THE VOTE IN SALEM, MASS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to an error in your issue of April 25. In speaking of the vote in this State on the prohibitory amendment, you say: "Salem is the one place of considerable size which went that way [*i. e.*, for the amendment] with a sweep by the remarkable vote of 2,009 to 879." Now, while you have given the exact figures, you have just reversed them, the actual vote being 879 *for* the amendment and 2,009 *against* it. Your showing would speak but poorly for the common sense of the people of Salem.—Yours very truly,

H. P. Peirson.

Salem, Mass., April 27, 1889.

THE RHINES VOTE-RECORDING MACHINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 25th inst., your correspondent "J. H. W." (whose position as an authority on ballot reform in this country is well known to all those familiar with the literature of the subject) has made very just and forcible objections to the Rhines machine as at present constructed; but it occurs to me that other objections may also be made.

The Constitution of almost every State requires elections to be by ballot. According to the dictionaries, this word may mean not only a piece of paper, but (as originally) a little ball, or anything else used for casting a vote secretly; and we may fairly interpret the constitution as not confining the citizens to the use of paper ballots. Unquestionably, however, when these constitutions were adopted, it was meant that the ballots, of whatever material or construction, should be cast separately by each voter, or by an election officer for him, into a box; and a machine by which each voter presses certain buttons, and by means of unseen machinery records his choice in the form of a particular number in a particular column on a long strip of paper, is certainly not within the letter of these constitutions. Whether it be within their spirit, will be an open question till it is settled by some court of last resort, and in the meantime it is open to very grave doubt. In Pennsylvania, where the Constitution is peculiarly explicit in regard to identifying the ballots by numbers, and even, oddly enough, by an endorsement of any voter's name who may wish it, a constitutional amendment would undoubtedly first be required.

There is no provision in the Rhines machine for voting for any one not nominated, nor do I see how such a machine can possibly provide for this, as has been done, I believe, in all the ballot-reform bills introduced in the various

legislatures, by directing a sufficient number of blank spaces to be left on the ballot, so that names can be inserted. It may be argued that the right of voting for any one not nominated is of little value; but as our State constitutions stand at present, every voter has a right to vote for whom he pleases, and a law compelling him to vote only for candidates who have been nominated in a certain manner, and a certain length of time before the election, would probably be unconstitutional. Besides, in the case of ward or township officers, and particularly in the case of division election officers, the right to combine in an independent movement after the time for nominations has passed may be a very valuable one.

The possibility of the machine getting out of order during an election, as well as of its being secretly arranged beforehand by the officers in charge so as to produce fraudulent results, suggest objections that may perhaps have some foundation. At the same time, the machine is a most ingenious one, and if it should really be possible to secure a free and pure ballot by such a contrivance as this, American inventiveness will have given the world the greatest of many gifts. CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, April 27, 1889.

THE HIGHER LAW OF LEGISLATURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am aware of the impropriety of attempting to discuss a grave constitutional question within the narrow limits allowed an occasional correspondent. It was expressly conceded in my former letter that many excellent authorities might be found for the conclusion announced by Prof. Bryce. To institute a comparison between the conflicting cases was not my purpose. I desired to assert, and to emphasize by such citations as I found at hand, the fact that a conflict exists, and that, in my humble opinion, the prevailing doctrine is opposed to the conclusion of Prof. Bryce.

It must be confessed that the English Parliament is, at present, more apt to respect the rights of an individual than an American State legislature. This superior consideration for private right is due, however, not to the compelling authority of Magna Charta and the Petition of Right, nor to any regard for what is called the English Constitution, but to the superior honesty, ability, and fairness of the members of Parliament. Both of the famous statutes referred to were directed against the King and the Executive. Like other laws of Parliament, they may be repealed or disregarded by Parliament. The memorable judgment of Lord Coke in Dr. Bonham's case—"Sometimes the common law will control acts of Parliament, and adjudge them to be void; for when an act is against common right and reason, or impossible to be performed, the common law will control it and adjudge it to be void"—declared rather a rule for the construction of statutes than a principle for their control. While this judgment received the sanction of two of his successors, it has repeatedly been repudiated, and can no longer be regarded as the "law of the land." It must also be remembered that Sir Thomas More was beheaded because he affirmed in a private conversation that there were things which no Parliament could do: "For example, no Parliament could make a law that God should not be God; no more could it make the King the supreme head of the Church." Moreover, the rolls of Parliament are full of laws which violate what every American—yes, and Englishman—would hold to be self-evident principles of right and justice. Passing over the laws adopted in times of religious or political excitement, when men's minds were so disturbed as to be incapable of justice, the oppressive power of Parliament may be illustrated by the infamous law adopted in the time of Elizabeth for the regulation of labor (5 Eliz., chap. 4). This provided that every person under the age of thirty years, not having forty shillings a year, should be compellable to serve as a yearly servant in the craft in which he was brought up; that all persons between fifteen and sixty years, not otherwise employed, should be compellable to serve in husbandry; that a servant unlawfully quitting his employment should be imprisoned; that servants should not leave the city or parish in which they were employed, without a testimonial, under penalty of imprisonment; that a master taking a servant without a testimonial should be fined.

This law also established an assize composed of the county justices, with power to define the hours of work which should constitute a day's labor, and fix the rate of wages to be paid; and, with a view to enforcing the observance of the schedule adopted, provided that any master who paid more than the prescribed wages should be fined and imprisoned, and that if workmen combined to raise wages, they might be hung.

When it is remembered that the average rate of wages established by these assizes was about ten cents a day, and that universal misery was the result, one may well question the efficacy of that spirit of the common law to which Lord Coke appealed. By what express limitation would such a law be declared unconstitutional in America? (See Rogers's 'History of Wages.')

This law was in force at the time of the Declaration of Independence, at the time when Lord Thurlow declared an attack on the charter of the East India Company to be an "atrocious violation of private right, which cut every Englishman to the bone," and Mr. Burke, in the fervor of his magnificent oratory, pronounced the rights of man to be indeed sacred things, and declared that "A formal recognition by the sovereign power of an original right in the subject cannot be subverted but by uprooting the holding, radical principle of government and even society itself."

It is hardly necessary to adduce other proofs that even a parliament of Englishmen, however thoroughly imbued with the sentiment of justice, is not to be trusted with the liberties of the people. A hundred instances of wrong will recur to every reader of history. Ireland's discontent is the heritage of a people for long years subjected to every form of outrageous oppression which the ingenuity of selfishness could devise. The Americans who made this Commonwealth remembered these things. To guard against them, they established constitutions wherein were recited the purposes for which governments are established, chief among which was the security of life, liberty, property, and the pursuit of happiness. These instruments declared also the scope and limitations of the various departments of government, and confided to the courts the duty and right of interpretation. To deny to the courts the power to avoid a law which manifestly and flagrantly disregards the purposes for which a constitution is adopted, while conceding to them the right to enforce the limitations expressive of, and necessarily incompletely expressive of, those purposes, is palpable, monstrous folly. Danger to the individual cannot be involved in this doctrine. The courts may restrain, they cannot initiate oppression.

In reply to one of my critics, I submit the following cases in which laws have been actually annulled by the courts, although not forbidden by the express provisions of any constitution. They illustrate the necessity as well as the reasonableness of the doctrine under consideration.

A law imposing a tax for a private purpose (25 Iowa 547, 20 Mich. 473, 103 Mass. 102, 60 Maine 128).

A law imposing a debt on a municipality or person which it or he had not contracted (16 Mass. 83, 51 Ill. 33, 51 Pa. St. 22).

A law forbidding a man to sell his property lawfully acquired (13 N. Y. 381).

A law releasing a debtor from the effect of a judgment (3 Vt. 179-360).

A law suspending the statute of limitation in favor of a particular claim (11 Mass. 398).

A law requiring a person in the possession and enjoyment of property to begin a suit to establish his title (11 Minn. 499-866).

A law appointing an agent for a municipality, without its consent, with power to buy and sell on its account (31 Vt. 233).

A law authorizing a personal judgment against a non-resident without personal service (95 U. S. 714).

A law requiring the owner of realty to enjoin a person proposing to do work on his property, and that otherwise the fact that the work was done should be conclusive evidence that it was done with the owner's consent (1 Lawyer's Reps. 777).

A law providing that a person having color of title to land, whether in possession or not, who paid taxes for a series of years, should have a legal and good title (18 Ill. 506).

A law divorcing a husband and wife, and granting alimony to the latter (4 Har. and McH. 477).

Yours truly, I. H. LIONBERGER.

ST. LOUIS, April 29, 1889.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have watched with interest and concern the discussion in the last few numbers of your paper on the subject of "Negro Convicts in South Carolina," and am moved to this obtrusion by the conviction that I can remove some of the misapprehensions under which you are laboring.

In limine, let me say that in your editorial of the 25th inst. you overlook entirely the suggestion made by Prof. Alexander, that "the purpose of the [Governor's] Statement is to inform the public as to whom he has pardoned, and in the briefest possible way of the ground of his action. He naturally mentions only the mitigating circumstances. The impression, therefore, is apt to be made that these persons were unjustly punished in the first instance. But if one will only take the trouble to investigate, he will find that there is quite another side to the picture than that presented in petitions." And you proceed to produce other instances, and draw other inferences from the bare statements accompanying the Governor's report, and without any other knowledge of, or, so far as appears, any inquiry into, the facts of the case. With this I should have little concern, except that you make your deductions the premises on which you affirm "that South Carolina juries convict negroes where legal proof of guilt is confessedly wanting, and judges and Governor support them in such disregard of all rules of law"; and again: "Public sentiment demands that a negro who has the misfortune to be suspected of crime shall

be sent up until the suspicion is forgotten, and somebody asks the Governor to let him out."

The Q. E. D. of your articles seems to be that the law is not administered fairly, and is used for the oppression of a class and a curtailment of its liberties. This is a grave charge to bring against any community, and when it can be refuted by a simple statement of facts, I feel it my duty to present them to you, and, through your widespread and influential paper, to lay them before the public.

It is, of course, well known to you that the laws of this State make no discrimination for or against the colored citizen; and I confess that, knowing the negro as I do, I sincerely regret that such discriminations cannot be made. The difference of moral stature is such as to make it hard indeed to punish him, by a procrustean code, with the same severity as the white man for certain crimes, of which, without doubt, he has not the same moral perception—but this merely in passing. It is in reference to the administration rather than the enactment of our laws that I am able to speak from experience, having been for nearly thirteen years the prosecuting attorney of a large circuit in the State, and one containing a great majority of colored citizens. And I state generally that, during these years of service, I do not recall a single instance wherein race prejudice has been to any degree a factor in the conviction of a negro. We are not unlike other people, and American people, and prejudices do exist, especially with the illiterate and uninformed; but that it impresses itself on the administration of justice in the manner you imagine, cannot be substantiated. Juries are proverbially uncertain, and justice must sometimes miscarry; and while I have known instances in which white men have been acquitted for crimes against negroes, who, in my judgment, should have been convicted, yet the same failure of justice occurs in cases wherein the offence occurs between persons of the same race, and history shows that it is more or less prevalent all over the civilized world. The proposition which I dispute here is, that, under the administration of our laws, negroes are convicted because they are negroes, and without the same regard to the weight of the evidence as is exercised in regard to white men.

It would take some time, but I fancy little difficulty, to get the full statement of each case you cite, and show that there were facts, and controlling facts, in each case which do not enter into your reasoning; but that has been already pointed out by Prof. Alexander. I will only advert to one of them, which happens to have come under my especial observation. I refer to the case of Marcus Horlbeck, cited in your article of the 25th inst. Your criticism of that case is:

> "The legal enormity of this case can hardly be described. A jury, sworn to try the prisoner according to the law and the evidence, deliberately plots to secure the imprisonment for life of a man of whose guilt they have grave doubts; and Judge Hudson lends himself to this scheme . . . and the Governor complies. . . . It is an elementary principle of the criminal law, which it is inconceivable that the judge did not impose upon the jury, that unless the jurors are convinced beyond a reasonable doubt of the guilt of the prisoner, a verdict of acquittal must be rendered; and above all, in a capital case, the prisoner is entitled to the benefit of every reasonable doubt."

When this case occurred, our citizens were startled by its horrible and disgusting details. The prisoner was a well-known pimp in the lowest slums of iniquity in the city—a locality inhabited almost entirely by women of the most degraded character and most revolting habits of life. The deceased, who was a stranger here and a cripple, having but one arm, was decoyed to an upper room, approached by a narrow and crooked stairway, while in an advanced stage of intoxication. On leaving this den and on the stairs he was struck on the head from behind by the prisoner, and felled to the bottom of the steps. This blow caused his almost instant death; and this for the purpose of robbing him of the contents of his purse. These facts were sworn to by more than one eye-witness. If these facts were sworn to by unimpeachable witnesses, there is no jury in Christendom, who could have found any verdict but "Guilty," who would not be justly chargeable with non-observance of their oaths. But in this case the eye-witnesses were necessarily all men and women of the basest sort, all denizens or habitués of the slums. This condition of the evidence is what caused the "doubts" in the minds of some few of the jury, and hence the compromise verdict. The facts as above given were sworn to directly and positively by the witnesses. I venture to say that there was no single juror who did not feel morally certain that the defendant was guilty, but their doubts arose from hesitation to take human life on the oaths of such witnesses.

Now, you must admit that it would be a most dangerous rule of evidence that witnesses not otherwise impeached are not to be believed in courts of justice simply because they are engaged in disreputable occupations and lead disreputable lives, especially when, as in this case, they are not contradicted by the circumstances of the case. Were such a rule adopted, crime would go unpunished directly in proportion to the degraded character and associations of the parties thereto. How could it be possible to produce an eye-witness of high personal probity and character to the case in point?

You must bear in mind what, from your papers, seems not to have been as yet called to your attention, that in this State there are no degrees of murder, as in many other States; and for a man convicted of that crime there is but one punishment, viz., death; so that, if a jury are convinced, beyond a reasonable doubt, that a defendant is guilty, but believes that there are extenuating circumstances, it has become the unwritten law that they add to their verdict a recommendation to mercy, which almost invariably works a commutation of sentence. This recommendation is also added in cases, like the one under discussion, when, while there is no possible ground of extenuation if the charge be true, yet there is such slight doubt of the truth of the facts (not amounting to reasonable doubts as prescribed by law) as causes the jury, or some of them, to hesitate to give their entire assent to the execution of the supreme penalty of the law. And I defy any community to prove that compromise verdicts of this kind do not occur frequently in their midst.

Under these circumstances the verdict in this case was returned, and the Governor, following the almost unvarying precedent, commuted the sentence as reported. On this jury were two colored men, and the opportunity was afforded the prisoner of having more had he so desired.

Your allusion to the duty of a judge to charge the jury to resolve doubts in favor of the prisoner is, again, based upon a misapprehension. In point of fact, conviction is rendered difficult by the pointed and emphatic manner in which this injunction is impressed upon the juror, as the reading of any charge will show. In this very case his Honor impressed this duty upon the jury.

In addition to refuting particular cases which may be advanced, many others might be adduced going to substantiate the proposition for which I am contending. One case, State vs. Marshall Amaker, occurred in Orangeburg County in 1887, in which a jury of twelve white men convicted a white man charged with the murder of a negro. And, to the credit of the colored men of Berkeley County, a negro who was charged with killing a white man (I refer to the case of State vs. Nimmons) was tried by a jury consisting of one white and eleven colored men, and they brought in a unanimous verdict of guilty on the evidence.

Within the last few weeks the Governor has made use of his executive power for an act of clemency which should entirely exonerate him from your charge of conniving at race oppression. Two negroes were convicted of murder; they had "lynched" a white man who, they were informed, had criminally assaulted a colored girl. His Excellency did not *commute* their punishment, but gave them full and free pardon, and on the ground that they were negroes. I venture to say that no white man convicted of applying lynch law in this State will ever be treated with the same clemency.

Again, in a recent case here, two negroes, Fraser and Criss, were tried and convicted of murder, under the following circumstances: They went together into the grocery shop of a respectable old German one Saturday night. While Criss engaged the attention of the proprietor in the back part of the store, Fraser seized the money box. He was detected by the old man and his daughter, who happened to come in at that moment, whereupon Fraser fired first at the woman, without effect, and then fired on the man, killing him in two shots. They then retreated with their plunder. They were both arrested within a few hours while making their way from the city. Each one was taken with a pistol on him and money answering the description of that stolen (a preponderance of small change, one-cent pieces, etc., as is commonly taken in on Saturday nights by shops of that class). They both confessed the facts substantially as above, but Criss claimed that while he did enter into the conspiracy to rob, he had not conspired to kill. He further claimed, but failed to adduce any evidence, that he had purchased the pistol found upon him after the killing. The judge charged the jury that there must be something more than the fact of Criss's presence to make him guilty of the murder; that he must at least have known that Fraser was armed and would have taken life, if necessary in the accomplishment of their joint purpose. The jury found both guilty and they were sentenced to be executed; but the Governor commuted Criss's sentence to imprisonment for life, and Fraser, a few days since, alone suffered the extreme penalty of the law. Instances like these indicate that Governor Richardson's tendency is to be lenient to a race whose moral and intellectual nature and development are inferior to those of the white man.

I admit that white men are slow to convict a white man charged with killing a negro, but it is sometimes done, as shown by the case of Marshall Amaker above noticed; but, so far as the charge of oppression of the negro by hasty and improper convictions is concerned, my experience is that the white men of South Carolina, as jurymen and as officers administering the law, are absolutely and entirely free from such aspersion. On the contrary, nine negroes out of ten who are tried for the graver offences themselves exclude their own color from the jury-box, and prefer to leave their fate in the hands of their white fellow-citizens.

Respectfully, W. St. Julien Jervey.

Charleston, S. C., April 27, 1889.

[The additional facts relating to Marcus Horlbeck, though interesting as giving a full statement of the case, do not meet the point of our criticism. The law knows no such verdict as that of Probably Guilty, which was rendered in this case. The jury have said, in effect, that whether the prisoner was guilty or not they did not know, as the witnesses were unworthy of belief; but as he seemed to be a disreputable fellow, it would be well to shut him up. Whether the same decision would have been reached in the case of a white man cannot be told, but the reports we have been quoting from do not show any such cases.—Ed. Nation.]

"ANTIGONE" AT SWARTHMORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps you may feel willing to chronicle, in the interest of classical scholarship, the performance recently, at Swarthmore College, of the "Antigone" of Sophocles in the original Greek. It was presented by young women, members of the "Somerville Literary Society," at their annual reunion, and was considered such a success that it was repeated later before the entire college and a number of invited guests. The costumes worn were from classic models, and those of the leading performers were of great beauty. The actors delivered their lines with great force of expression, and the choruses were sung to music selected for the occasion. The entire performance was characterized by grace, dignity, and beauty, and was a delight both to the eye and ear. While listening to the melodious language and gazing at the succession of beautiful groupings presented during the several scenes of the play, one could not but be impressed with the perennial beauty of Greek ideas and their dominant influence in the realm of the æsthetic. If we could have more work of this sort done at our colleges, would it not be of service, not merely in stimulating their students in their Greek, but in interesting those outside of academic circles, many of whom are inclined to look with disfavor upon the study?

W. H. Appleton.

Swarthmore College, May 3, 1889.

A HARD CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Has the wretched contributor no rights that magazine adventurers are bound by law to respect? Is there no redress for wrongs done the wretched contributor?

A magazine has lately "failed" in New York. It "failed" owing its wretched contributors for the three last months of its existence. Not only that, but it failed with quantities of MS. on hand, examined and unexamined. These MSS. are heaven only knows where, for the "management" utterly ignores all letters concerning them and requests for their return. Can nothing be done under such circumstances besides holding such "management" up to the contempt of all honorable men?

A year and more ago an article was published in said magazine with illustrations. The article cost its writer a journey, hotel bill, and two days of steady work. The water-color sketches were from nature, by an artist of some repute, and cost the writer of the article ten dollars apiece, being four in number. When the article was published, the artist's name was found to be carefully erased from the drawings and that of one of the magazine's job-workers inserted in its place. For the manuscript and sketches the contributor received a check, three months after publication, for *fifteen dollars!* C. H. W.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press or in preparation 'The Garden's Story; or, Pleasures and Trials of an Amateur Gardener,' by George H. Ellwanger; and 'Days out of Doors,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott. They have just issued a "centennial inauguration edition" of their useful 'Dictionary of New York and Its Vicinity,' the eleventh revision, in which even a superficial glance discovers a close bringing down to date.

Chas. Scribner's Sons will soon publish the second volume of Prof. Chas. W. Shields's 'Philosophia Ultima'; and 'Progress of Religious Freedom as Shown in the History of the Toleration Acts,' by the Rev. Dr. Philip Schaff.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will add to their "Library of Anglo-Saxon Poetry" Cynewulf's 'Elene,' edited by Prof. Chas. W. Kent of the University of Tennessee.

John C. Nimmo, London, is bringing out in four volumes a second edition of S. Laing's translation of the 'Heimskringla,' revised and annotated by Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson, lately United States Minister at Copenhagen. Only 520 copies are printed, and these from type.

"Nineteenth edition" is stamped on the title-page of a new issue of the late William A. Wheeler's 'Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction,' etc., a reader's hand-book which first appeared in 1865 and was at once welcomed (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Charles G. Wheeler, a nephew of the compiler, has now added an appendix, which not merely is measurably a continuation to date, but repairs omissions in the body of the work, as appears from such entries as Abou ben Adhem, Baalam's Ass, Banker Poet, Black-eyed Susan, Jim Crow, Sword of Damocles, Gordian Knot, Cranes of Ibycus, Jewels of Cornelia, Lever of Archimedes, Tom Brown, Handy Andy, Midshipman Easy, Eva (in 'Uncle Tom'), etc. All George Eliot's prominent characters and some of Dickens's are cared for; Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde and Robert Elsmere are admitted, while "She" is ignored. In American fiction, Elsie Venner keeps company with Daisy Miller, but we have looked in vain for Silas Lapham or any character of Howells's, or for Aldrich's Marjorie Daw. Uncle Remus is in his place. Among the new pseudonyms are the Autocrat, Josh Billings, Charles Egbert Craddock, Mark Twain, and P. V. Nasby. Political terms, like Bloody Shirt and Mugwump, are recorded. Much might be said concerning omissions, as in the case of Dumas and Victor Hugo, both neglected by the elder Wheeler; and Turgeneff and Tolstoi, unknown to the younger, who misses Anna Karénina along with Bazaroff. The index to the real names of pseudonymous characters has not been enlarged to take in the appendix, as it should have been. On the whole, the new portion, though useful as far as it goes, can hardly be called a first-rate performance.

T. A. Archer's 'Crusade of Richard I.,' in the admirable series called "English History from Contemporary Writers" (Putnams), for which no words of commendation are required from us, must be one of the most popular. Its execution is certainly all that could be desired. It could not have been difficult to make interesting selections to illustrate an event so conspicuous and romantic as the Third Crusade; but all the accessories—notes, tables, bibliography, illustrations, and historical introduction—are of the best. Every reader of Scott's 'Talisman' ought to read these selections. He will find, we think, that, whatever may be the errors of the novelist in detail, the spirit of the times is well maintained.

The Tenth Census is at last completed by the publication of two volumes, xxi and xxii, of no little interest in very different ways—the first dealing with the Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes; the second with Power and Machinery employed in Manufactures, and the Ice Industry. Mr. Frederick H. Wines is the competent special agent responsible for the social statistics of vol. xxi. In vol. xxii, Prof. Wm. P. Trowbridge has looked after power and machinery, and Mr. Henry Hall after the ice business—a relatively short chapter; both topics are illustrated. We reproach ourselves with not having acknowledged sooner the appearance also of vol. xvii, the second on Water-Power, by Mr. James L. Greenleaf; and of vol. xix, the second of Col. Geo. E. Waring, Jr.'s report on the Social Statistics of Cities, comprehending the Southern and the Western States. In both these instances, also, illustrations abound.

Speaking of cities, we may here call attention to the document emanating from the State Board of Health on the 'Potable Water Supply of the City of New York.' Text and maps are supplemented by a large series of drawings from photographs indicating the sources of pollution on the borders of the tributary watercourses. The demonstration is complete.

The picturesque and architectural aspect of this metropolis is well caught in a volume of albertype views styled, somewhat oddly, 'Select New York' (Adolph Wittemann, 58 Reade Street). As in the case of smaller albums from the same publisher which we lately noticed, these plates are more admirable in the choice of subjects and point of view than in the mechanical execution. They are "instantaneous," and may possibly have undergone enlargement.

The *Technology Architectural Review* closes its first volume with No. 8, in which the several *projets* illustrated by the drawings are an Italian villa, a reformatory prison, an art-club building, and a Doric doorway—this last, one of Mr. Emmanuel Brune's exceptionally able renderings. Hereafter the letterpress will take on a greater importance, including letters from travellers in foreign parts, series of original articles, translations from the French, etc. The Rotch Trustees will make the *Review* the medium of publishing the *envois* of the *pensionnaires* of its travelling scholarship. The success of this periodical has been most creditable and gratifying, and, in connection with that sterling weekly the *American Architect*, the *Review* fixes the reputation of Boston as the seat of the profession on the side of training, learning, literary expression, and *esprit de corps*.

The singular *Magazine of Poetry*, "a quarterly *review*," as it purports to be, has reached a second number (Buffalo: Chas. Wells Moulton). It tickles the love of notoriety of all the poetasters, by giving respectful or laudatory biographical accounts of them, printing gems from their verse, and engraving their likenesses. They vary in degrees of good and bad, and what the total effect on the taste of subscribers must be we will not undertake to say.

A publication remote of kin to the foregoing comes to us from the other side of the Atlantic—*Men and Women of the Day*, "a pic-

ture-gallery of contemporary portraiture" (London: R. Bentley & Son). But the aim and the execution are higher. In the April number, Mr. J. L. Toole, the famous comedian, Miss Mary Moore, one of the younger actresses, and Sir Edward Watkin, M. P., the railway magnate, are severally portrayed in permanent photography on a large scale, with readable sketches of their lives. The fifteen earlier issues have embraced Cardinal Newman, Gladstone, Hartington, John Morley, Lubbock, Tennyson, Browning, Chamberlain, Spencer, Hallé, Ellen Terry, the Kendals, Bright, Ruskin, Mme. Schumann, etc., etc.—a series of no mean value for time present and to come.

The fourth number of the *Green Bag* (Boston: Chas. C. Soule) has an article on the Columbia Law School with many portraits, and a sketch of the late Sidney Bartlett, the Nestor of the American bar, together with his portrait. Some of the general statements as to Mr. Bartlett's age, undiminished intellect, and uninterrupted practice of his profession are too sweeping, and overlook the closest and nearest parallel in the person of the late Samuel E. Sewall of Boston.

The prospectus of the *Bibliotheca Platonica* is before us; its chief aim is announced to be "the critical and philosophical examination and interpretation of the writings of Plato, Aristotle, and the neo-Platonists." The editor-publisher will be Thos. M. Johnson of Osceola, St. Clair Co., Missouri. "Papers may be written either in English or Latin."

Trübner's Record, entering with No. 243 on a third series, proposes to expand its original design as a journal devoted to the literature of the East, by "assigning ample space to literary and scientific articles on subjects within its scope," under the editorial direction of Dr. Rost of the India Office. Reviews will be more extensive, and there will be periodic statements of the advance made in the various fields of Oriental research. Provisionally, six numbers will be issued yearly, till a monthly issue is warranted. In the present number we remark Prof. Charles Lanman's reception by the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society on January 16, he being the first of American Orientalists to visit the Society; a review of Sir Monier Monier-Williams's recent work on Buddhism; E. Forchhammer's description of the remains of Pagan in Ava, and other interesting matter.

At the recent excavations at Platæa in Greece, under the auspices of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, a large fragment of a Latin inscription was found. Prof. Tarbell, the Annual Director of the School, finds that this contains part of the famous Edict of Diocletian *de pretiis rerum venalium*. The two copies of this preamble already known are imperfect, and the new-found inscription will fill some of the gaps. All the fragments of Diocletian's Edict hitherto found in Greece have been in Greek.

— The *Atlantic* for May is most noticeable for its leading article, the beginning of Mr. Bynner's novel of Knickerbocker life, which, from its first pages, shows a fresh and truly original strain, and has a vigor and attractiveness that must win readers, apart from its local and antiquarian interest. The staying power of his Knickerbocker dialect, however, has certainly yet to be tested, for it labors heavily under its uncouthness. The solid paper, and a very excellent one, is Mr. Clark's temperate and able discussion of the uses and limits of temperance legislation. It comes a little late into the arena of practical politics, but it may serve as a storehouse of reasons after the fact to those who defeated the amendment in Massachusetts, and represents probably with considerable fulness the sound sense of the real situation, and the practical counsels which guided the thinking voters in the recent contest. It is not local in its interest, nevertheless, and may be recommended to friends of temperance legislation in every State as a careful brief summary of opinion and suggestion upon the general topic of the reform. John Fiske writes with even more than his usual brilliancy and force of the battles of Brandywine and Germantown, and of the fate of Burgoyne. A very charming piece of sentimental travel, apropos of Goethe and Frederika, is contributed by Bliss Perry, who makes Sesenheim attractive for pilgrims. Prof. Royce begins a series of reflections upon the state of society and its development in Australasia, and in the first paper brings out the characteristic difference between the State-growth in Australia and this country; the main trait being the dependence of the colonies on Government and its probable more socialistic results.

— *Harper's* opens with a new chapter of Russian life, which is a pleasing change from our usual diet, introducing its readers to the court festivities at the Winter Palace, the salons, and clubs of the city of the Neva, and the amusements of society generally on its quays and in its environs. The sketch is admirably proportioned, and seems extraordinarily true to the facts of human nature that lie behind the trappings and the circumstances. The Russian temperament itself, as one gets at it in the best imaginative work of Russian literature, is presented with a penetration and almost an artistic feeling that quite differentiate this article from the class of superficial or perfunctory subjects in which expectation would place it, and make it really luminous with knowledge. The Tartar base in this world, the sensuousness of it on the physical side, the militarism of it on the social side, the contrast of its tropical and warmly colored interior with its frozen environment, are brought out not by emphasis and forethought, but as naturally as in a photograph, and the whole effect hangs together like life. In the remainder of the number, perhaps the most interesting contribution is Mr. Blowitz's tale of how he got the text of the Berlin Treaty for the London *Times*, in which his unconscious portrait of himself is not the least entertaining matter. Mr. Brander Matthews's survey of the present state of play-writing exhibits thorough acquaintance with a subject somewhat difficult to handle; and since his favorable augury for the future of the drama is based upon such excellent observation, we may take more comfort of it than we usually do in such prophecy. Mr. Stedman told us some time ago that we were to have dramatic literature in America next, but it has not yet put in an appearance. The paper on the Royal Academy has several good portraits, and in the text there is interesting artistic reminiscence.

— *Scribner's*, in the first of its sporting articles, delights the eye with a profusion of softly-toned or picturesque illustrations of wild water and headland, with a fish or two for spoil; but the descriptive paper suggests a time and place when one is glad to read what he can get, and has plenty of leisure to devour his findings. Mr. Eugene Schuyler contributes the inevitable Russian topic, dealing with Tolstoi twenty years ago, at which time the writer visited him upon his estates. The prefatory part, describing the home and manners of Prince Odóiefsky and Princess Olga, being more fresh and showing a phase of Russian civilization of which we hear too little in proportion to the rest of what we learn of the country, is more entertaining. Of Tolstoi there is nothing specially new in this new glimpse, but doubtless in the succeeding paper his personality will be more felt. It is worth noting that Mr. Schuyler corrects the current impression that the series called 'Childhood, Boyhood, and Youth' is autobiographical; he says that Tolstoi denied that there was "the slightest" vein of that interest in those sketches. The Freight Department, in the railroad series, is despatched in the thorough and solid treatment which has characterized this entire block of articles; and the subject of Photography is written of by Prof. Trowbridge, in not too technical a way, and with the aid of several striking illustrations, especially of surf and fire. Mr. Mabie's critical summary of the literary form of fiction is an unusual example of how tightly a man may bind himself to the wheel of the Juggernaut of the hour, from which he is very likely to escape only with broken bones. The interesting final articles, which are one of the most attractive features of the magazine, are represented by a paper of some brief reflections by Prof. Norton upon the lack of old homes in America, a characteristic of the country which he treats of almost entirely on the social side; but it is to be remarked that if there are necessarily few old homes among us, the tradition of New England breeding has not been broken to anything like the extent which might be inferred: the new hearths are kindled from old fire.

— The *Century* devotes much space to the Samoan question. Mr. Whitaker describes the islands of the Navigators' group and the customs of the natives, and, by the assistance of several illustrations, succeeds in giving ample information upon both branches of his subject. The people are represented as a faithful, simple, and gentle race, of whom the deposed king, Malietoa, is a more developed type. Mr. Bates, in his article, is appreciative of the good qualities of the natives, and more particularly of their chief, to the point of enthusiasm; he was especially struck by the warrior type, such as Asi and Seumana, of the latter of whom he says that, "taking in the whole range of physical, mental, and moral attributes," he seemed "a man of as fine nature as can be produced anywhere." Malieota is represented as an entirely unselfish man, who, through Christian influences, is completely absorbed in the welfare of his people, and is only to be reproached, if at all, for the too great willingness he showed to abandon his own kingship among them, in the hope that they would be relieved from injury and suffering and prosper better under a civilized protectorate. The sketches of the character and disposition of these native chiefs, however they may be flattered by consideration and sympathy in the mind of the writer, are useful and instructive; the mere fact that the Samoans are capable of exciting such interest and sympathy speaks well for them, and in their history they have not evinced the savage nature. A third article contains some documents relating to our introduction to the islands in 1875. The three together make a kind of brochure of the main points at stake in the Conference now in session. The other noticeable contribution is one of reminiscences about Millet, in which we come very close to the home life, the habits, and the temperament of the artist, in himself one of the most attractive modern figures in art; and the sketches, here reproduced, of his drawings for his children, are a delightful bit of autobiography.

—It is with regret that we announce the decease, on April 19, of our able and esteemed English correspondent, Colonel Robert Durie Osborn. Col. Osborn, an officer of the Eleventh Bengal Cavalry, after being in the thick of the Indian Mutiny of 1857, retired from active service several years ago on the pension of his rank, and returned to England. A fluent, graceful, well-informed, and, for the most part, foresightful writer, and withal indefatigable, he was long a valued and copious contributor to periodical and journalistic literature in India and in England, as also, to some extent, in this country, as the *North American Review* and our own columns bear witness. He was, besides, the author of 'Islam under the Arabs' and of 'Islam under the Khalifs of Baghdad,' two volumes alike eminently readable and of sterling merit, which we reviewed in 1878. His death was at once sudden and peculiar. Lawn tennis, at which he was a practical adept, and on which he published an authoritative manual, was his favorite outdoor recreation. As a member of the Hyde Park Lawn Tennis Club, he was engaged in playing a match with Mr. James E. Renshaw, the champion tennis-player of all England, when he staggered, fell, and expired without speaking in the course of five minutes; the cause of his death being syncope, induced by undue exertion combined with the great heat of the day. His age was fifty-three. He is survived by a wife and two daughters.

RECENT ENGLISH POETRY.

THERE is something of interest in comparing even the second-class poetry of two kindred nations—England and America, for instance—as it reveals itself by monthly instalments to the long-suffering critic. In the English volumes there is apt to be more of smoothness, or, rather, when this quality is wanting, it is more generally the result of waywardness, not of ignorance. There is generally more of classical allusion—more that is religious, or at least churchly—and more that is the fruit of foreign travel, this last often redeeming a volume otherwise flat or tedious. On the other hand, the American book is apt to have a little more freshness of impulse and motive, a more salient personality, more that speaks of new scenes and fresh life—and, on the whole, when the balance is struck, more of vitality. The American harvest, however, shows greater extremes of crudeness, and consequently of affectation, than the English; and we have before pointed out that, the more inexperienced an author, the more apt he is to give high-sounding names to his heroes and heroines. It is further to be noticed that the American poet, and especially the frontier poet, while not more imitative than his English contemporary, is apt to be a generation behind him as to his school of taste, and still bores us with Poe and Swinburne, while the Englishman only bores us with triolets. On the whole, it must be conceded that, while it is a matter of serious fatigue to spend an evening among second-rate Americans, even in books, the same time given to second-rate Englishmen is often a worse infliction. If we cannot change the *animum*, in such cases, it is a temporary alleviation to have changed the *coelum*.

The high-water mark of second-class London poetry is attained, doubtless, when we have a new volume by Andrew Lang. Yet no one illustrates better the limitations of London life—its hurry, its swift transitions, its shallow use of what might seem great opportunities. Mr. Lang, tested at almost any page of his 'Grass of Parnassus' (Longmans), holds his lineage from the delicate whipped syllabub of Leigh Hunt rather than from the traditions of any stronger poet. His writings offer to us the highly wrought surface of a rather trivial intellectual experience; they sound no depths, and suggest those libraries which are chiefly interesting because they hold masterpieces of binding. It seems an odd meeting of extremes when we find a poet so dainty praising the cheap extravagances of Rider Haggard; but both are equally the fruit of a somewhat monotonous period, and of a metropolitan life that is limited by its very excess of opportunities—by the way in which one hurries from one London exhibition and dinner-party to another, bringing away nothing but a few anecdotes. Mr. Lang was born to translate old French verses, though he draws from the whole of them less of wealth than Keats put into his single unfinished sonnet from Ronsard; and he was born to translate Meleager, but not Homer's 'Odyssey,' which he should leave to Professor Palmer. After all, it is when he is furthest from London and Oxford that he is at his best, as in his graceful "Scythe Song":

SCYTHE SONG.

Mowers, weary and brown and blithe,
What is the word methinks ye know,
Endless over-word that the Scythe
Sings to the blades of the grass below?
Scythes that swing in the grass and clover,
Something, still, they say as they pass;
What is the word that, over and over,
Sings the Scythe to the flowers and grass?

Hush, ah, hush! the Scythes are saying,
Hush, and heed not, and fall asleep;
Hush, they say to the grasses swaying,
Hush, they sing to the clover deep!
Hush—'tis the lullaby Time is singing—
Hush, and heed not, for all things pass.
Hush, oh, hush! and the Scythes are swinging
Over the clover, over the grass! (P. 55.)

Mr. Lang is almost always careful about his literary execution—unlike his friend Mr. Haggard—although he rhymes "again" with "rain" and "vain." For this he has Lord Tennyson's example; but when the Hon Roden Noel, in 'A Modern Faust, and Other Poems' (Scribner & Welford), rhymes "color" and "corolla," it is certainly a strain upon the ear. Mr. Noel does not, however, float willingly upon the surfaces of life; he grasps the myth of Faust, but does it feebly, and no Helen of his, any more than of Mr. Lang's, would ever fire the topmost towers of Ilium. Neither the verse nor the prose of this conglomerate romance affects the reader with a sense either of power or of clear vision; but there is real sympathy with human suffering and a generous optimism. Here, too, as with Mr. Lang, the author is at best in the country; and "The Merry-go-round at Fowey" (p. 224) is really a charming glimpse of the better side of that English rural life which is beginning to assume for us such grim aspects.

Mr. Alfred Austin, in 'Love's Widowhood, and Other Poems' (Macmillan), rises a little above the smooth commonplace of his earlier volumes, and in the poem called "Two Visions" (p. 109) touches with some strength, though with many halting lines, the great social problems. Mr. Arthur Symons, whose name is less known to us than those preceding, writes a volume which should make him better known, under the rather vague title 'Days and Nights' (Macmillan). He dedicates it to Walter Pater, which is something—for we judge of an author partly by his sponsor—and although he too must have his share of Helena and Faustus, and of French translations, he puts really solid and imaginative poetic work into his pictures of life. The poems "Esther Bray," "Red Bradbury's End," "An Interruption in Court," and, above all, "The Knife-Thrower," have the strength of Tennyson's, or even of Browning's, rustic tragedies; and for a piece of condensed and terrible vividness, take this:

THE OPIUM-SMOKER.

I am engulfed, and drown deliciously.
Soft music like a perfume, and sweet light
Golden with audible odors exquisite,
Swathe me with cerements for eternity.
Time is no more. I pause and yet I flee.
A million ages wrap me round with night.
I drain a million ages of delight.
I hold the future in my memory.

Also I have this garret which I rent,
This bed of straw, and this that was a chair,
This worn-out body like a tattered tent.
This crust, of which the rats have eaten part,
This pipe of opium; rage, remorse, despair;
This soul at pawn and this delirious heart.
(P. 18.)

Other late English and Irish poems need not detain us so long. Jeanie Morison, whose long poem 'The Purpose of the Ages' was reviewed in these columns, now writes a shorter one, 'Gordon, an Our-Day Idyll' (London: Kegan Paul). Many English poets have tried their hands on General Gordon, whose pathetic death made him more a hero—that, and the political use to which it has been turned—than his continued life might have done. To us in America, accustomed to the quiet and reticent heroes of our own civil war, there was something a little turgid and melodramatic about Gordon; and it is not fair, perhaps, to complain if this book has something of those qualities. Another Englishwoman, Caroline Fitz Gerald, sings a song of Venice in 'Venetia Victrix' (Macmillan), and with more sustained and even vigor; she dedicates her book "To my friend Robert Browning." Two poets handle the thoroughly poetic traditions of the Irish Bardic period, Mr. W. B. Yeats, in 'The Wanderings of Oisin' (Kegan Paul), and Dr. John Todhunter, in 'The Banshee, and Other Poems' (Kegan Paul); the chief part of this last volume being, however, given to the beautiful legend of "The Doom of the Children of Lir"—the children changed to swans—a legend already so admirably rendered by Aubrey de Vere that every other versifier is at a disadvantage. The same disadvantage extends, though less directly, to Mr. Yeats's 'Oisin,' but some of the shorter poems have remarkable dramatic power. There is plenty of vigor, also, if carrying a little sense of impetuous exuberance, in Mr. Wilfrid Scawen Blunt's 'In Vinculis' (Scribner & Welford). The sonnets written in jail have also a defiant quality which the author's prefixed portrait does not belie. The following was actually written in Galway or Kilmainham jail, upon the fly-leaf of the author's prayer-book:

SONNET.

A prison is a convent without God—
Poverty, Chastity, Obedience
Its precepts are. In this austere abode
None gather wealth of pleasure or of pence.
Woman's light wit, the heart's concupiscence
Are banished here. At the least warder's nod
Thy neck shall bend in mute subservience,
Nor yet for virtue—rather for the rod.

Here a base turnkey novice-master is,
Teaching humility. The matin bell
Calls thee to toil, but little comforteth.
None heed thy prayers or give the kiss of peace.
Nathless, my soul, be valiant. Even in hell
Wisdom shall preach to thee of life and death.
(P. 5.)

Another of those who are born to translate French poetry is Mr. W. J. Linton, who must now be ranked as an Englishman again, we suppose, and whose thick volume of 'Poems and Translations' (London: Nimmo) is beautifully printed, and is prefaced by an admirable likeness of the author. Yet he fails in his Béranger—almost as untranslatable among the moderns as Horace among the ancients—and is best with the older French verse. His own English poems have a fair amount of ease and smoothness, but add little to our stock of thought. Dr. Thomas Campion's 'Works' appear under the editorship of Mr. A. H. Bullen (London: Chiswick Press), who had previously celebrated this author in his 'Lyrics from Elizabethan Song-Books,' long since eulogized in these columns. Mr. Bullen does well to give us the

whole works of this poet, undoubtedly the best of his Elizabethan "finds," but, after all, he gave us the cream of Campion before. One attractive feature of the present volume is the full text and stage business of many of those curiously elaborate masques of which the Elizabethan era was so prolific. Mr. Frank T. Marzials, in his 'Death's Disguises, and Other Sonnets' (London: Walter Scott), represents what may be called the Grosvenor Gallery school of younger English poets, whose ink is constantly intermingled with painters' pigments. His "sonnet-songs" are a pretty experiment, not quite successful. In any collection of William Allingham's verse, 'Flower-Pieces, and Other Poems' (London: Reeves & Turner), one inevitably turns first to the striking poem of "The Touchstone" (p. 127), which Emerson applied to Capt. John Brown, and which appears here with one closing verse not included by Emerson, and scarcely strengthening it:

"North, south, in rings and amulets
Throughout the crowded world 'tis borne;
Which, as a fashion long outworn,
Its ancient mind forgets."

The volume gains added value from including two designs by Rossetti, to whom it is dedicated. 'A Reading of Earth,' by George Meredith (Macmillan), has that author's accustomed rude strength, but contains no single poem to be compared with "The Nuptials of Attila." Mr. William Sharp, well known as an editor of sonnet literature, publishes a second edition of his striking 'Romantic Ballads' (Walter Scott), with a valuable preface, in which he predicts a reaction in favor of romanticism as opposed to the realistic school. 'Leaves of Life,' by E. Nesbit (Longmans), draws its title from the well-known line in Omar Khayyám; the author is evidently a woman, and writes with strength and much feeling. The 'Poems' of the late Dora Greenwell, dear to many hearts through her "Patience of Hope," are reprinted in the "Canterbury Poets" series (Walter Scott), and have a uniformly elevated and serene, sometimes mystical quality; her biographer, Mr. Dorling, indeed, calls her "The Last of the Mystics" (p. xv). In 'Chess, a Christmas Masque,' by Louis Tylor (London: Unwin), we have an elaborate and somewhat perplexing allegory of white pawns and black, white and black bishops—something between a newly-discovered poem by George Herbert and a hitherto unpublished chapter of 'Alice through the Looking-Glass'; but the moral significance is good, and so sometimes is the poetry.

It is unnecessary to go back and reassign the precise poetic character of Lewis Morris's 'Epic of Hades,' which has now reached its twenty-fifth edition (Boston: Roberts), and still less that of Wordsworth, a thin volume of whose poems thus tardily appears, the first book of the first part of his 'Recluse' being now for the first time published *in extenso* (Macmillan). It gives a curiously mingled sensation—as if Mr. Edward Bellamy's hero, instead of stepping forward, had stepped backward, to be reading Wordsworth's early blank verse as if it were a newly published book. On the whole, it stands the test. There is something curiously archaic here and there in its language: an Alpine valley is "some Helvetian Dell" (p. 32), a gun is "the deadly tube" (p. 18); these, and the use, in quite the American sense, of "I guess" (p. 17), carry us back to the transitional literary period from which Wordsworth emerged. On the other hand, the beautiful tribute to his sister takes us back to that morning of their existence when their lives were one:

"Mine eyes did ne'er
Fix on a lovely object, nor my mind
Take pleasure in the midst of happy thoughts,
But either She whom now I have, who now
Divides with me this loved abode, was there
Or not far off. Where'er my footsteps turned,
Her voice was like a hidden Bird that sang,
The thought of her was like a flash of light
Or an unseen companionship, a breath
Of fragrance independent of the Wind." (Pp. 6, 7).

SOME GERMAN BOOKS.

Geschichte der Alten Philosophie. Von Dr. W. Windelband. Pp. 222. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck. 1888.

System der Ethik. By Friedrich Paulsen, Professor at the University of Berlin. 8vo, pp. 868. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. 1889.

Grundrtss der Romanischen Philologie. Herausgegeben von Gustav Gröber. III. Lieferung. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner. 1888.

Kurzgefasste Albanesische Grammatik, mit Lesestücken und Glossar. Von Gustav Meyer. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 1888.

Die Entstehung der Deutschen Stadtgemeinde. Von Dr. Georg von Below. Düsseldorf: Voss & Cie. 1889. Pp. xi, 126.

UNDER the general title, "Handbuch der Klassischen Alterthums-Wissenschaft in Systematischer Darstellung," a German publisher has undertaken a critical survey of all we now know about ancient Greece and Rome. The work, already more than half complete, will be finished during the present year, and will consist of twenty stout volumes, costing in Germany about thirty dollars. Prof. Müller of Erlangen is the general editor. Under him work thirty-five special scholars, who treat of Greek and Roman philology, hermeneutics, palæography, epigraphy, chronology, grammar, lexicography, rhetoric, metric, geography, history, antiquities, physical science, philosophy, mythology, religion, fine arts, literature, and the drama. Each author's work is complete in itself and in many cases may be had separately. The section on philosophy, by Prof. Windelband, forms the latter half of Part 1, vol. v, and is published in its independent form at four marks. For this work Windelband has postponed the completion of his history of modern philosophy.

A discussion of Greek philosophy so brief and so masterly deserves to be widely known, and ought soon to be translated into English. Until very recently no competent handbook of the subject has existed in English. Zeller's monumental history, three-quarters of which has been published by Longmans, is too large and too much burdened with notes to be readily serviceable either for reading or teaching. Mayor's 'Ancient Philosophy,' remarkable as it is for precision of statement, is slender and ill-proportioned. The distended volumes of Benn's 'Greek Philosophers,' and especially of Archer Butler's 'Lectures on Ancient Philosophy,' explain their author's beliefs better than they do those of ancient times. Ferrier's 'Lectures on Greek Philosophy' has a unique worth as the attempt by a man of distinct philosophical and literary genius to state in modern terms the crucial points of the Greek teaching. But swiftly enlightening as Ferrier's inspired fragments are, they do not pretend to display the detail of Greek speculation. Two years ago Zeller published, both in German and in English, an admirable condensation of his great history; and this little book (Henry Holt & Co.) is likely for some time to be the one from which American college students will most wisely learn. The Germans are better off than we. Apart from their many excellent general histories of philosophy, which supply in the early sections some account of the philosophy of Greece and Rome, writers like Brandis, Strümpell, Prantl, and notably Schwegler, have devoted special treatises to the history of Greek philosophy and have produced brief books of great value.

None of these, however, covers precisely the ground of Windelband. His history is not a guide for beginners. It appeals rather to that large body of classical scholars who already possess a tolerable acquaintance with the current facts of Greek opinion, and who now need instruction in the significance of these facts. What doctrines did Heraclitus, Aristotle, Plotinus, hold? This is the learner's first question, but it should not be his last. One may be able to answer it pretty accurately, and still have little understanding of the philosophies of these men. Understanding means knowledge of relations. The relations which a doctrine bears to the rest of the system in which it is imbedded; the relations which that system as a whole, modified by circumstances in the life and times of its author, bears to the others which make up with it a single evolutional line or school; the relative importance of this school system or single doctrine, as estimated by its influence over subsequent thought and over the beliefs of to-day—it is with these three sets of relations that the higher criticism concerns itself. Of this higher criticism Windelband is a master. Subordinate questions he does not despise: they find their place. The historical evidence which leads us to attribute a certain belief to a certain philosopher, Windelband weighs scrupulously and with a singular lack of partisan spirit. But he never treats beliefs as isolated facts. In his view they are growths—growths of both logic and circumstance.

Short as his book is, in no history of philosophy with which we are acquainted is greater skill shown in tracing the lines along which growths proceed. Each system is treated as a living organism, part influential over part, the whole having its roots in the past and its fruits in the future. That students will often dissent from the proposed interpretations is matter of course. Some will regard Democritus as a teacher of less weight, Pythagoras as one of more, than Windelband believes him to have been. Some will quarrel with the estimates of the sophists or of Epicurus. But all will recognize the patient, unwilful, discerning, and constructive scholar, who can freshly fix attention upon well-worn themes, and who can say much of consequence about them in a little space. Elaborate bibliographies, referring chiefly to German and French sources, show the large learning of the author, and add greatly to the value of the book.

An interesting and symptomatic feature of Prof. Paulsen's 'System of Ethics' is the use of medical terms and analogies in defining the nature of ethics. There are no pretensions of building the science upon a physiological foundation; the completeness of its historical and psychological analysis of ethical problems relieves the work from any such suspicions. But use of physiological conceptions, whether consciously or unconsciously, at the very basis of the subject, has some significance when we are reminded of the fact that Prof. Paulsen, like all later German philosophers, began with physiology and is thoroughly familiar with its principles. The fact is, that ethics is likely to undergo a process of gradual regeneration from the influence of physiological investigations in Germany, and the present work bears some more or less remote indications of the change. The historical chapters are brief and new. Theoretical discussions are cut short, and criticisms show the same excellent taste in omitting questions discussed by others, and in presenting the additional reflections of the author. Another value

is the direct treatment of actual problems which concern the life of the age, and this is a departure from the high transcendentalism of most German ethics. In this line is a long and interesting chapter on "Socialism and Social Reform," in which it is quite evident that some concessions have to be made to the Government's power to restrict freedom of speech. The chapter on the emancipation of woman betrays the usual German lack of chivalry. No defence of woman's rights is needed, but a country which tolerates hitching a dog and a woman to a cart while the husband walks leisurely behind, and everywhere imposes upon the weaker sex the undignified forms of labor, ought to find in its moralists some readiness to remonstrate against the customs of savages. On the whole, the book is fresh and suggestive, and while there is high scholarship in its style and matter, ethical problems are brought within the comprehension of almost every one.

The number before us closes the first volume of Gröber's 'Grundriss'—a handsome and exceedingly solid volume of nearly 900 large and closely printed octavo pages. This is by far the most important work which has yet appeared in the field of Romance philology, and contains, as far as it goes, pretty well the latest data of the science. The names of the distinguished "Romanisten" (there are twenty-nine of them) associated with the editor are a guarantee for the value and reliability of the work. The contributors, with the exception of two or three scholars of Southern Europe (Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese), are all Germans. It is a pity that some of the leading French scholars in this field, *e. g.*, Gaston Paris, Paul Meyer, Arsène Darmesteter, are not represented.

The present *Lieferung* continues the detailed treatment of the individual Romance languages, commencing with the Italian, which, at the hands of Francesco d'Ovidio and W. Meyer, receives in its phonetics the most exact and scientific treatment it has ever had. Its morphology and dialects are also well handled. The largest section of the present part is devoted to "die französische und provenzalische Sprache und ihre Mundarten," by H. Suchier. The treatment is analytic and rigidly scientific. The geographical speech divisions are first considered, then the phonetic system of the *Schriftsprache*, in two divisions, first up to the twelfth century, and then from the thirteenth century down; and next the phonetics of the dialects. The work is, of course, masterly in its grasp of details, and invaluable to the specialist for reference. A few more generalizations and simpler statements of uninterrupted lines of development from the beginning to the present time would, however, have been very valuable. The remaining phases, the morphology, syntax, composition, etymology, sematology, analogy, etc., are all dealt with concisely and suggestively, and quite as extensively as the breadth of the subject would justify us in expecting. The bibliography at the end of the various divisions, if not exhaustive, always indicates the most important works, and that is all the circumstances permit.

The Catalan is treated by the scholar specially identified with that language, A. Morel Fatio, and the Spanish by Gottfried Baist; the latter in singularly curt fashion, in 26 pages, of which 16 are devoted to phonetics and 6 to morphology. It is rather remarkable that, as against the 46 pages devoted to Catalan and Spanish combined, we have no less than 89 devoted to Portuguese alone, of which 73 are occupied exclusively with phonetics. This discrepancy, in spite of the interesting character of the Portuguese phonetic system, is unaccountable. A treatment of the Latin element in Albanian by Gustav Meyer, of broad philological value, follows. A very complete index with a series of colored language and dialect maps close the volume. The remaining three *Lieferungen* which will form the second volume will deal with Romance metres, style, the various literatures, the histories of the different Romance peoples, as also the history of their culture and art.

Since the conclusion was established that the Albanian language represents a separate and distinct branch of the Indo-European family, the study of Albanian has acquired new interest and importance. That this conclusion, though broached as a theory many years ago, should have been so slow in getting itself generally accepted and incorporated into the textbooks, is doubtless due mainly to the circumstance that Indo-European philologists in general really knew little or nothing about the language in question, and had, short of actual residence in Albania (a thing which is not every man's affair), no satisfactory means of informing themselves with regard to it. There have long been in print, to be sure, Albanian grammars of more or less merit, and scattered information with regard to particular dialects has been obtainable here and there; but there was no scientific account of the language by a thoroughly competent modern philologist, nor was it easy to get hold of texts transcribed and edited according to the best lights of contemporary phonetic science. This lack is now temporarily supplied by the little volume before us, which appears in advance of the more elaborate treatise upon Albanian which the author, Prof. Gustav Meyer of the University of Graz, is preparing for Breitkopf & Härtel's "Library of Indo-Germanic Grammars," the same collection for which he has already written his excellent grammar of the ancient Greek.

The country known since the times of the early Greek emperors as Albania comprises the ancient Epirus and portions of Illyria, Macedonia, and Chaonia. It is nominally a Turkish province, and has a population estimated at 1,200,000. This population has a large admixture of Greeks and of Turks, but the bulk of it consists of the true Albanians, or Arnauts, in whom we must now recognize the descendants of an ancient Indo-European stock that failed to produce any Vedas, Avestas, Iliads, or Eddas, or otherwise to make for itself a memorable place in history. Their language interests us somewhat as that of the Greeks might if all we knew of it were derived from a few living dialects, without a history and without literary records.

Meyer's grammar is the result of investigations conducted on the spot by the author, who has, partly at the instance of the Austrian Government, made several journeys to Albania. He writes the language in an alphabet of forty-five symbols, four of them being diagraphs, which he has devised by taking ordinary italic letters as a basis, and supplementing these with a few Greek characters and numerous diacritical marks. The chapter of phonology is very brief, the fuller treatment of that subject being expressly reserved for the forthcoming larger work. Taking the nearest practicable substitute for Meyer's alphabet, we note a few points of interest in Albanian grammar. In the Albanian noun, the old Indo-European stock of eight or more case-endings appears reduced to two, of which one gives a nominative, vocative, accusative, and locative, the other a genitive, dative, and ablative. We find here the postpositive article which constitutes so notable a feature of the Scandinavian languages, and also a few cases of Germanic umlauted plurals, *e. g.*, *plak*, 'old man,' *plech*, 'old men'; *ka*, 'ox,' *ke*, 'oxen'; *nate*, 'night,' *nete*, 'nights'; *gur*, 'stone,' *gur-i*, 'the stone'; *korp*, 'raven,' *korb-i*, 'the raven.' An adjective is always preceded by the article, and this article also serves as a connecting link between a substantive and a following limiting genitive, *e. g.*, *gur-i i malit*, literally, 'stone-the the of the mountain.' Comparison of the adjective is effected by means of the word *me* (derived from, or cognate to, the Latin *magis*), *e. g.*, *Gergi este me i-bukure se Pietri*, literally, 'George is more the-handsome, then Peter.' The first five numerals run *ne*, *dü*, *tre*, *katre*, *pese*. Noteworthy is the fact that the first person singular, present, of the verb 'be' is *jam*, a form which shows a closer parallelism to our English 'am' than any other modern derivative of the ancient proethnic *asmi-esmi*. Still more noteworthy is the fact that this *jam*, in more or less abbreviated form, is used as a suffix to form the passive voice; *e. g.*, *lith*, 'I bind,' *lithem*, 'I am bound (bound-am).'

The texts given by Meyer have, for the most part, never been printed before. They illustrate all the more important dialects of the language, namely, that of the metropolis, Scutari, that of southern Albania (Corytsa and Corfu), and those of the Albanian communities living in Greece, in Sicily, and in Calabria. We find, first, three popular tales in the dialect of Corytsa; secondly, three different versions of the story of the prodigal son, two of them orthographically adapted from translations made some years ago under the auspices of the English Bible Society, the other from a translation made at the instance of Prince Bonaparte; thirdly, six different versions of Matthew (viii, 5-13) obtained from various sources, and finally, about a score of wedding songs. At the end of the book is a well-made glossary to the texts. This glossary does not pretend to go deeply into matters of historical etymology; it contains, however, occasional brief comparisons which serve to light the way in an interesting manner for the philologist. A survey of the glossary shows, as one might expect, a great many Albanian words that are borrowed from the modern Greek. Somewhat less in accordance with one's natural expectations is the fact that we find an equally great, or perhaps even greater, contingent of words that, in Meyer's opinion at least, are borrowed from the Latin.

Dr. von Below's book forms the continuation of two papers which appeared in vols. 58 and 59 of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*. The first of them aims to show that the citizens of German mediæval municipalities were from the outset preëminently freemen, and not villeins. The second paper lays down the proposition that the separate, independent judiciary of the cities was not derived from that of manors, but was originally a part of the public or national judicature. The volume before us treats of the origin of the municipal community, especially its government. According to Dr. von Below, the administrative machinery of the cities—apart from the judiciary—was derived from the ancient rural community (*Landgemeinde*). He rejects the prevailing views of Nitzsch, Arnold, and Heusler regarding the origin of the civic government (the *Stadt-Rath*, etc.) from manorial jurisdictions, gilds, *scabini*, etc.; and contends that the civic polity was evolved from the mere village by a simple process of growth. The author points out that, while this view has already been advanced by Hegel, Von Maurer, and Planck, it has never been adequately emphasized.

Roughly speaking, Dr. von Below's conclusions will, we believe, apply to the development of English mediæval boroughs. Their municipal constitution is not to be ascribed to survivals of Roman domination, or to gilds, or to any other single influence, but was simply an expansion of the old Teutonic township. This is too prosaic and simple a view of municipal growth to satisfy most of the brilliant investigators of to-day. There is a strong tendency among historians, especially in Germany, to seek the germ of an institution in some distant age, in some distant country, or in some single extraneous influence; they do not make sufficient allowance for spontaneous, indigenous growth due to a mass of influences or to general environment. When one finds that, after all, the critical acumen of Nitzsch, Heusler, and Arnold has been productive mainly of error, that they soared to the skies for what lay within easy grasp on the earth, one has less faith in our much-vaunted canons of historical criticism.

Our English. By Adams Sherman Hill. Harper & Bros. 1889.

THE five papers which make up Mr. Hill's entertaining and instructive volume have already been published in magazines, substantially in their present form. They deal with English in Schools, English in Colleges, English in Newspapers and Novels, English in the Pulpit, and Colloquial English. They make up a book for teachers and parents, and one which they can hardly read without profit. Mr. Hill's practical recommendations seem to be generally good. They are conservative and at the same time they are enlightened. For instance, he is fully alive to the objections to the study of formal grammar, and even goes so far as to say that "several hours judiciously used should suffice to teach an intelligent boy the few points of grammar which it is most necessary to know." At the same time he strongly insists on the necessity of correctness and the complete eradication of vulgar errors at a very early stage. He is no advocate of slovenly teaching, and points out that there is great danger that petty errors, unless corrected at the beginning, never will be. Grammatical accuracy should, he thinks, be taught by example rather than by precept—that is, the teacher should be constantly on the watch for errors as for weeds in a garden. He urges that classical schools should make translation a study in good English, and it is gratifying to learn that in certain quarters the old word-for-word translation of Latin (he gives two delightful examples—"Tarquin having been expelled, two consuls began to be created instead of one king," and "No one will be about to be a thief, we being the aid") is rapidly becoming a thing of the past.

On the whole, Mr. Hill would have good English treated from the very beginning of school life, "not as a thing by itself, but as part and parcel of every study in which the mother tongue is used, whether orally or in writing."

"This," he continues, "which may be called the indirect method of teaching the rudiments of English, has one decided advantage over the direct method, in addition to those already mentioned. The English of an examination-book or of a translation appears to the pupil to be, as it really is, a means to an end, like the English he talks on the playground or at an evening party. The English of a boy's formal essay, on the contrary, may be and often is merely words that serve no purpose, and seem to him to serve none, except that of filling the prescribed number of pages."

Of course, we come sooner or later to compositions; but the point to be borne in mind is, that when this stage is reached, the pupil should have already acquired the art of *writing English*. One other point here we must not overlook, and that is the practice of abstract or *précis* writing. Mr. Hill thinks it (as it indeed is) an excellent exercise for a boy to reproduce an abstract of something that he has already written himself. But why not also abstracts of things written by other people? There is no better help to thought and expression, and, we may add as the result of much bitter experience, no rarer accomplishment than the art of abstracting correctly and tersely.

As to composition writing, Mr. Hill gives much sound advice, for which we have no space here, but the gist of which is the principle that the subject should be some concrete one, with definite lines marked out, which compel thought on the writer's part. The chief difficulty with most school compositions is that the subjects selected are stale and too vague. The Mariner's Compass, Old Age, Friendship—the materials for essays on subjects such as these do not exist in the minds of the young, and hence must be got out of books—exactly what we do not want. Let the pupil be made to write about something which interests him—it may be a description of something he has seen, it may be a discussion of some topic which is drawn from his own daily life.

But we must not expect too much from school teaching of English. Otherwise, the facts which confront us would be too hopelessly depressing.

"Between 1873," Mr. Hill says, "when Harvard College for the first time held an examination in English, and 1884, I read several thousand compositions written in the examination room upon subjects drawn from books which the candidates were required to read before presenting themselves. Of these a hundred perhaps—to make a generous estimate—were creditable to writer or teacher or both. In 1884 Mr. (now Prof.) Briggs, who then took charge of the examination, wrote me as follows: 'Few [of the books] were remarkably good, and few extraordinarily bad; a tedious mediocrity was everywhere.'

"If the dreary compositions written by the great majority of candidates for admission to college were correct in spelling, intelligent in punctuation, and unexceptionable in grammar, there would be some compensation; but this is so far from being the case that the instructors of English in American colleges have to spend much of their time and strength in teaching the A B C of their mother-tongue to young men of twenty—work disagreeable in itself and often barren of result. Every year Harvard sends out men—some of them high scholars—whose manuscripts would disgrace a boy of twelve; and yet the college can hardly be blamed, for she cannot be expected to conduct an infant school for adults."

Much if not most of this rawness in the use of English must come, not merely from defective training in schools, but from defective training at home. When we reflect that at least three-quarters of our time in early childhood is spent at home, with nurses and parents and other children, it seems inevitable that our *habits* of using English should be mainly formed at home. And so they are. Every healthy, natural child picks up the language of those it is most with, and in the last analysis we think it will be found that the slovenly English which is so striking a phenomenon of boys' efforts, is the result of slovenly training, or no training, at home. In other words, the correct use of English is more largely a question of breeding than it is of school teaching. All this does not contravene what Mr. Hill says. It goes to show that, in this case as in so many others, while the teacher may stand *in loco parentis*, he cannot actually be father and mother to the child. In fact, he probably has, without knowing it, to contend in a majority of instances against the influences of the child's home—a losing fight at best. Teach a child the mysteries of *shall* and *will* as much as you please, how can you create a *habit* of correct discrimination between them if his father and mother think one as good as the other, or do not care to take the trouble (probably the latter case is as common as the former) to correct such faults?

History of the Mongols from the 9th to the 19th Century. Part III. The Mongols of Persia. By Henry H. Howorth, M. P. Longmans, Green & Co.

IN a preface to this, the fourth and largest volume of a voluminous work, the author speaks rather sadly of the lapse of five years since the last issue, and of the failing health which has interfered with his labors. We should say that this instalment of nearly 800 pages of fine print would do no discredit to robust health, and, as it comes down not quite to the year 1400, Mr. Howorth will need long life and full powers to leave the world a complete record of his chosen people to the present time.

In one sense the present volume is less interesting than the earlier ones. There was a dramatic interest in the rise of an obscure tribe in the north of Asia, under a barbarian of genius, to the rule of almost the entire continent, which is materially diminished when the subject is a series of internecine struggles for supremacy over a limited area. Khulagu Khan and Ghazan Khan were no doubt men of great ability, and there is a certain attraction in following the phases of Eastern despotism; but it is of a different kind. Contact with the Crusaders and the Sultans of Egypt, with their Mamelukes, and the recurrence of familiar names in Syria and Asia Minor, give a sense of reality to the narrative, and there are touches which vividly recall the 'Arabian Nights.' It is related of Khulagu that some people went one day to ask justice against a manufacturer of files who had killed one of their relatives, and who they demanded should be given up to them for punishment. Having inquired if there were many manufacturers of files in the country, and finding there were only a few, he ordered the aggrieved to avenge their relative's blood upon a manufacturer of pack-saddles, for they were numerous. As they insisted this would not do, he made over a cow to them in satisfaction. Under his successor, Abaka, the officials, who had before oppressed the people, were so carefully checked that the market-folk used at night to leave the booths strewn with goods and food, and no one took the smallest thing. As a proof of this it is said that on one occasion, as the watchmen were going their rounds, one of them entered the booth of a sugar-baker or confectioner, took a sweet cake, and left two dirhems (which was double the price) in the corner of the booth. On the following morning, when the owner of the booth found a dirhem more than his due, he dared not conceal it, could not rest, showed the silver piece to the treasurer, and gave information of what had happened. It was immediately ordered that the watchman who had transgressed the rigid law should be hung to a hook like meat at the butcher's.

It is difficult to believe that so desolate a country as western Asia could once have been rich, populous, and flourishing; but the change is explained by some generations of warfare like that between the Ilkhans of Persia and the Egyptian Sultan. Thus, one of the latter,

Bibars, dreading a fresh invasion, caused all the women and children to be removed from Northern Syria, while the country was laid waste from Aleppo as far as Mesopotamia and Asia Minor, and the bushes and trees were burned so that the Mongols should find no food for themselves or shelter for their cattle. Famine was the not unnatural result.

On page 290 is a curious specimen of official correspondence between the two potentates. Like other times and countries, Persia under the Mongols had its experience of paper money. Only, instead of making it a legal tender, as with us, or ordering, as in Great Britain, that whoever declined paper money could not recover anything else, a more drastic method was adopted under Gaikhatu Khan, in 1294, by prohibiting the use of metal currency throughout the kingdom, and an edict that whoever bought and sold for other money than "chao," and whoever did not take his coin to the mint to be exchanged for paper money, was to be punished with death. This did not, however, prevent prices in paper from rising to 100 for one. Ghazan Khan, whom Mr. Howorth thinks the greatest of the Ilkhans, seems to have been inclined to gloomy views. One day after the death of his wife, he asked his amirs what was the most grievous thing in life. It might be supposed that the tact of an Eastern courtier would have suggested the particular bereavement from which the monarch was suffering. Perhaps they thought that that might have excited a suspicion of sincerity. At any rate some said a defeat, others imprisonment, others poverty, sickness, or death. Ghazan replied: "The most grievous is to be born at all, for life is but a string of misfortunes, closed by death."

We have selected these items as showing that the charm of the present volume, at least for the general reader, consists mainly in picturesqueness of detail.

L'Irlande et l'Angleterre depuis l'acte d'union jusqu'à nos jours. 1800-1888. Par Francis de Pressensé. Paris: E. Plon.

"IRELAND, though a little country, is one in which the greatest problems of politics, morals, and humanity exist. Human problems can be best studied among the unhappy, and moral problems among those whose misfortunes arise from injustice. Where will you find a country more unfortunate than Ireland, or a nation whose misery is less deserved?" This was Gustave de Beaumont's explanation, fifty years ago, of the interest Ireland had for political philosophers. Community of religion, supposed identity of race, sympathy with a weak country oppressed by a rival, for a Catholic country under Protestant supremacy, have all combined to make Ireland a special subject of observation and interest to Frenchmen, with the result that a large number of French books on Ireland have been and continue to be published. Pressensé's work will rank with that of Beaumont among the serious and valuable contributions to Irish history.

The author is foreign editor of the *Temps*, and son of a well-known Protestant clergyman who, as a member of the Senate, has played an important part in French politics during the last ten years. The parentage and associations of F. de Pressensé give interest and lend weight to the conclusions he has arrived at after a very laborious and careful study of a vast amount of material: the mere enumeration of the works consulted and read—comprising Hansard's Debates, histories, biographies, pamphlets, and reviews written both by friends and foes of the Nationalists—covers five pages. The result is an eminently readable book, which, though it tells a story well known to readers of Irish history, tells it well. Many otherwise well-informed Irishmen have not read the history of their country, and for them Pressensé's work is as good a book to study as any other treating of this period. He has not only summarized the information contained in the most recent works published, analyzing and discussing the opinions of their authors, but he has verified their statements by consulting the original publications on which they were founded, as well as numbers of books and pamphlets which are entirely out of the ordinary reader's reach. The book is not a mere sketch, but is a serious and labored study of permanent value. "I began," says Pressensé, "with a prejudice in favor of English supremacy and against Irish autonomy; I finish my work completely converted to Home Rule as defined by Gladstone and accepted by Parnell."

The book is divided into five parts, each of which forms an essay, which might be separately read, devoted to a distinct period. The first treats of the passage of the Union; the second of Catholic Emancipation; the third of the Repeal Agitation under O'Connell; the fourth of the famine and the period succeeding it, when Ireland lay "like a corpse on the dissecting table"; the fifth commences with the formation of the Home Rule League under Butt, follows the career of Parnell, and ends with the present régime of coercion pure and simple under Balfour. The cause is won, says the author, at the tribunal of history, and is about to be won at the tribunal of British democracy.

The relations between Ireland and England at the end of the last century were eminently unsatisfactory. Ireland, while subject to the Crown of England, claimed and had technically the right to refuse supplies, to declare war, to make treaties, to regulate her own customs tariff, and even to appoint a regent. It was absolutely necessary to readjust these relations. Pressensé rejects with merited sarcasm the paradoxical theory of Ingram that the Union of 1800 was not effected by bribery. The means were not only bribery, but terrorism and force. The actual outlay amounted to several millions sterling, which were afterwards charged to the Irish Exchequer. It is hardly possible to realize the intimidation and violence employed, whether designedly provoked or not. The outbreak of 1798 was repressed with ferocious cruelty, and accompanied by almost unparalleled atrocities committed by the regular troops, the Yeomanry, and the Orangemen. The ultimate causes of the insurrection, said Emmet to Lord Clare, were the free quarters, burnings, tortures, and military executions in Kildare, Carlow, and Wicklow. Pressensé quotes in this connection Froude's statement that, though the victims of the Jacobins in France were perhaps more numerous, and though from their rank their fate excited more pity and indignation, yet the Orangemen in Ireland completely surpassed the Jacobins in cruelty. Viceroy Cornwallis wrote to Pitt that "the terror was so great that the chief people in Ireland would readily consent to the Union as a means of escape." When reproached by the Unionist party for his lenity, he replied that he had only attempted to stop the burnings, murders, tortures, universal violence, and brigandage of the troops, whose number amounted at this time to 179,000 men, and who were a terror to every one but their enemies.

The only section of unterrified or uncorrupted public opinion that was genuinely in favor of the Union was a portion of the Catholic hierarchy, who had been led to think the Union would be accompanied by a complete measure of Catholic emancipation. But the history of post-Union legislation demonstrated the radical incapacity of the English Government to keep their most solemn promises, or to fulfil the most elementary duties of a civilized State towards Ireland. The Irish legislature was drowned in the English, while the Irish executive remained separate and the creature of the English executive. The first measures of the United Parliament were coercion acts, accompanied by indemnities granted to those who had committed illegal atrocities in suppressing the rebellion. The granting of Catholic emancipation (which should have accompanied the Union) after a delay of twenty-nine years, during which the bitterest religious animosities were aroused, was, Pressensé points out, bereft of all grace; it was not a concession to reason, nor given as a measure of justice, but because it could no longer be withheld. The restriction of the franchise, and the maintenance of the old administrative régime, practically reëstablished and confirmed landlord and Protestant supremacy. As a healing measure, emancipation was useless. The policy of caresses and kicks continued, while no single grievance complained of was ever thoroughly redressed.

Pressensé's style is lively; he sustains the reader's interest by the introduction of dramatic incidents in detail, and quotations from speeches of both parties, without overloading his book or interfering with the thread of his story. The last part of his interesting book contains such graphic descriptions that one cannot but think the author must have been an eyewitness of the scenes and personally acquainted with many of the actors. The accusations against Parnell and his comrades of connivance with or secret approval of the Phœnix Park murders and other crimes are dismissed with contempt, as unjustified by facts and inconsistent with the openly declared policy and consistent action of the present National party. As in the case of O'Connell's agitation, what aroused the alarm and fed the fury of the anti-Irish faction was the very openness of the National movement. Secret conspiracies contained within themselves the seed of failure; but open and constitutional agitation made progress, influenced public opinion, slowly, indeed, but effectually. Parnell's policy killed, or at any rate paralyzed, Fenianism; revolutionary methods are for the present in abeyance. After reviewing Balfour's policy, Pressensé holds that it is a failure; the hostile spirit continues in full vigor, and it is demonstrated that to maintain the semblance of union by force it is necessary to withhold not only the greater political and constitutional reforms which Ireland demands, but also those minor reforms passed, or about to be passed, for England and Scotland.

Although the book was written before the collapse of the *Times* before the Special Commission, Pressensé expresses the fullest confidence in Parnell's statements, and approbation of his prudence in not accepting the challenges of Balfour and Lord Hartington to forthwith stake his chance on the verdict of a jury. "Every one knows," he says, "that while Parnell's great work has been the conversion of a revolutionary policy into parliamentary and constitutional agitation, he has necessarily come into contact with the débris of Fenianism." The thorough acquaintance Pressensé shows with English parliamentary, administrative, and constitutional details, as well as with the intricacies of party relations and tactics, is very remarkable. Chief Secretary Balfour referred to this book in his speech at a recent banquet in Dublin, saying that five minutes' inspection of it at a bookstall con-

vinced him of its untrustworthiness. No careful and candid reader could come to this conclusion. The book is characterized by the calm impartiality with which the story is told. It is evidently the result of prolonged and conscientious study, as well as of careful observation. These have led the author to a different conclusion from Mr. Balfour. Such a work is most instructive to those who are closely engaged in the heat and turmoil of the political struggle which it criticises. It enables them to see themselves as others see them. Those most assured of the justice of their cause may receive with gratitude the approval of one who is in a position to take a calmer view of the perturbing events in which they are actors. This book cannot fail to strengthen and gather from a larger area that moral support which is all, or nearly all, that foreign nations can give to Ireland in her persistent struggle not only against unjust and unequal laws, but against misrepresentation and calumny. We commend it most warmly to those who wish to study the history of Ireland since the Union, and to understand the connection between the earlier agitations for reform and repeal and the present Nationalist movement.

Francis Bacon: His Life and Philosophy. By John Nichol, LL.D. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. Part I., 1888. Part II., 1889.

THE first of these two volumes in the series of "Philosophic Classics for English Readers" is almost exclusively occupied with Bacon's political career, scarcely any attention being given to his private life, in which much of his philosophy was formed. It is the psychological history, as it were, in which the student of philosophy is chiefly interested; and while it would be impossible to ignore the great chancellor's public career in a complete estimation of his work as a philosopher, it is a misfortune that attention must so often be diverted from his intellectual history by apologies for his political obliquities. But this is what we always find.

Bacon's mental constitution made him at heart an independent in politics, and he thought to solve the political problems of his time by an application of his family motto, *Mediocria firma.* Had his will been as strong as his judgment, he might have saved his integrity; but he did not see that he could rise without crawling, or that he could attain his ends without financial extravagance. He courted the favor of his king, and coveted the manners and means of an aristocratic life: the one led him into flattery for the sake of promotion, the other into the acceptance of bribes, and both to his fall and ruin—a singular fate for a philosopher. The only apology of any force at all is, that he was not worse than his contemporaries; nevertheless, he appears worse because of his achievements in philosophy. The author well describes the condition of the age in these words:

"Never had men of letters a higher standard of style, men of action broader aims; never were either more emulously keen in the pursuit and discovery of truth; but of telling the plain truth to each other they took little thought, of telling it to their sovereign none at all. Despising the opinions of the many, they became slaves to the caprice of one. The *ipsa veritas* of nature was the goddess of philosophers, but the *veracitas* of civil business was unknown to the 'politicks' who 'would circumvent the gods,' whose models were not Pericles, nor Regulus, nor Hamlet, but Alcibiades, the Medici, and Iachimo."

Bacon was both the product and the victim of this environment, so that he divides his faults and weaknesses with others. One merit he had: he did not defend his shortcomings. Dr. Nichol dispenses apology and criticism in very just measures. He occupies middle ground between the extremes of advocates and opponents. With taste, learning, and literary power he summarizes in the first chapter the intellectual, social, and moral forces at work in the age of Queen Elizabeth, and in subsequent chapters analyzes in an impartial manner the character of Bacon. The chief fault in this part of the work is its suitability only for those who are familiar with the history of that time. To any one else it must appear a little fragmentary. In other respects it is worthy of British scholarship.

The second volume displays less of interest for the general reader, because its character as an outline of Bacon's philosophy makes fewer calls upon the author's knowledge of the age. It is evident that his tastes are literary and historical, and, were the work designed for advanced philosophic scholars, it would have to be regarded as failing of its purpose. But it is a summary in a lighter vein for readers who have no time for profundities. Bacon somewhere denounces epitomes, and the reader who would like to see Dr. Nichol's powers better employed than in cataloguing the topics of a great man's writings, would be tempted to use Bacon's judgment against the author. We can praise, however, the extent to which this part of the work shows the unconscious growth of the experimental method before Bacon, in the person of men like Roger Bacon, Leonardo da Vinci, Copernicus, Pomponazzi, Paracelsus, Tycho Brahe, Kepler, Galileo, and a host of minor lights, whose practice and principles Bacon systematized and reduced to the dignity of a method. This occupies a little more than one-third of the volume, and it is very valuable as proving that in philosophy as in nature progress is not made by leaps and bounds, and diminishes the philosopher's honors by justifying the dictum of Macaulay that Bacon, directed by the hints of his predecessors, had merely seen the sunrise from the mountain-top a little sooner than those who were lower down in the valleys. The analysis of the 'Novum Organum' is too brief to admit of the exposition and criticism it deserves. Bacon's relation to Aristotle needs other than a literary hand to present it, and so the 'New' and the 'Old Organon' are seen only on the surface. The last chapter, on Bacon's influence and his relation to religion, is the most interesting, perhaps because the author is himself again in a field where general philosophic views can have full play.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Dictionary of New York and its Vicinity. With maps and illustrations. 1889. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Atwood, Rev. I. M. Revelation. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 25 cents.
Banks, A. B. Albany Bi-Centennial. Historical Memoirs. Albany: Banks & Brothers.
Bert, P. Primer of Scientific Knowledge. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 36 cents.
Burns, C. E. Disillusions of an Oculist. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
Clendenin, F. M. Idols by the Sea, and Other Sermons. James Pott & Co.
Cooke, Frances E. The Story of Theodore Parker. New ed. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.
Crozier, J. B. Civilization and Progress. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Digby: Chess Professor. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
Ebers, G. Margery (Gred): A Tale of Old Nuremberg. 2 vols. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.
Emerson, E. W. Emerson in Concord. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Grey, M. The Reproach of Annesley. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Horace: The Odes, Epodes, Satires, and Epistles. Translated by the most eminent English Scholars and Poets. Frederick Warne & Co. 75 cents.
James, H. A London Life; The Patagonia; The Liar; Mrs. Temperly. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
"Jerry," and Other Stories. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Julliot, F. de. Mademoiselle Solange. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Klein, E. The Bacteria in Asiatic Cholera. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Leidy, Prof. J. An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy. 2d ed., rewritten. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.
Logan, Celia. Her Strange Fate. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Lubbock, Sir J. The Pleasures of Life. Part II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Merriam, G. S. The Story of William and Lucy Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Merriman, H. S. The Phantom Future: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Montgomery, D. H. The Leading Facts of French History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Murray, W. H. H. Deacons. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 75 cents.
Murray, W. H. H. The Story that the Key Told Me, and the Story of the Man who Didn't Know Much. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
O'Connor, T. P. The Parnell Movement. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 25 cents.
Oliver, Dr. N. T. Aimeda: A Tale of the Buellos Madros. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Seawell, M. E. The Berkeleys and their Neighbors. American News Co. 25 cents.
Seymour, Prof. T. D. A Concise Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer's Iliad. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Shapley, R. E. Solid for Mulhooly: A Political Satire. New edition, with illustrations by Nast. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. 75 cents.
Stevens, Mai. Bessie's Promise. James Pott & Co.

HENRY HOLT & CO.

HAVE READY:

NEW MATERIALS FOR THE

History of the American Revolution.

Translated from the French Archives. By John Durand. 12mo, $1.75.

Smith's Synonyms Discriminated.

A Dictionary of Synonymous Words in the English Language, showing the accurate signification of Words of Similar Meaning. *Illustrated with Quotations from Standard Writers.* By the late Ven. C. J. Smith, M.A. *Revised edition.* 12mo, $2.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 16, 1889.

The Week.

ONE of the most encouraging signs of the times is the remarkable and continuing interest in Bishop Potter's sermon. Not only is it condemned by the people from whom one would naturally expect condemnation, and whose condemnation is desirable as a sign of the efficacy of the medicine, but it alone of the literary performances of the centennial is being eagerly bought for perusal and preservation. The demand for the edition printed by the *Evening Post* has been extraordinary, both from individual purchasers and from the trade. Every other utterance of the celebration is fast passing from men's recollection. That the enduring word of the day should be not a tale of material growth, or of increasing power by land or sea, but a solemn reminder of the length to which the Government has strayed away from noble standards and high ideals, is surely a hopeful indication. Bishop Potter's "bugle call" is a very different one from that which President Harrison recommended to his office-seekers two months ago. Their echoes

> "——die in yon rich sky,
> They faint on hill, or field, or river;
> Our echoes roll from soul to soul,
> And grow for ever and for ever."

The movement for the erection of a monument to the late Henry G. Pearson has resulted in the appointment of a committee, of which Mr. George William Curtis is chairman. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. William Potts, at the office of the Civil-Service Reform Association, 35 Liberty Street, or to any member of the Committee. The monument is intended to do honor not simply to the memory of a brave man, but to the good cause of honest public service in which he died. His papers are now in the hands of his most intimate friend, who, we are glad to hear, will shortly give to the world some account of the difficulties with which he had to contend and of the manner in which he met them, in trying to make a great public office a school of integrity and efficiency.

One of the most striking illustrations of President Harrison's devotion to civil-service reform, and his adherence to the principle expressed in his letter of acceptance, of making "fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office," is to be found in the recent experience of the Norwich (Conn.) Post-office. Under recent Republican administrations this office was the centre for all local partisan work and caucus deliberation. The Postmaster, as the proprietor and active manager of a large and fashionable boot-and-shoe store, devoted his time and attention mainly to his private business, and left the office to be administered by the chief clerk, an ex-soldier of fine military record and good executive ability. No Democrat was ever allowed a place as a clerk or letter-carrier in connection with the office. Under President Cleveland's Administration, the boot-and-shoe merchant was allowed to retain his place until the expiration of his commission, and two months additional to round out the fiscal year, or for a total of a year and four months. The Democratic appointee was a representative of the so-called "working classes," who, commencing life in a subordinate capacity on one of the Sound steamers, had elevated and educated himself in a high degree, and in a Republican city had been elected to an honorable place in the municipal government. Under his administration of the Post-office there were no wholesale removals. The ex-soldier chief clerk continued to be chief clerk for nearly three years, or until his election to and acceptance of another and better paying office—that of City Tax Collector. Of the letter-carriers, those on the best routes—including one colored man—were also not displaced.

Hardly, however, had President Harrison and John Wanamaker taken their seats, than the work of office displacement commenced in Connecticut. Within thirty days from the 4th of March most of the postmasters in the little towns of eastern Connecticut were removed, and also the occupants of two Presidential offices, namely, in Bridgeport and Norwich; the latter fourteen months in advance of the expiration of his commission. His successor—the ex-chief clerk—who had been treated with such consideration, signalized his advent to office by notifying, twenty-four hours before his commission entitled him to enter upon administration, every Democratic employee of the office, with a single exception, that his services would be no longer needed. We think the political records of the country might be searched in vain to find a worse exhibition of indecent partisanship. Its meaning simply is that the spoils system has been reinstated by the Harrison Administration to the fullest extent, and that, in the opinion of members of the Republican party, no citizen differing from them in respect to political issues and candidates is worthy to hold even the humblest position of trust under a common government.

From Washington we receive a very hopeful view of the work of the reorganized Civil-Service Commission. The personnel of the Commission is excellent, and their intentions are of the best, but they are probably going to have, in spite of the Republican platform, a severe tussle with some of the departments. The Interior, for instance, is by no means disposed to surrender the Census Bureau to the reformers, and will hold on to it all the more eagerly because the Railway Mail Service has been taken away from the spoilsmen. This service was, under the Cleveland Administration, the favorite dumping-ground of Congressmen. They used it precisely as they once did the Bureau of Engraving, as a sort of garret in which all their importunate henchmen could be stored at the public expense. When it was taken away from them, of course the retention of the Railway Mail Service became all the more important, and they did manage to retain it. Now that it has gone, the appearance on the scene of the Census Bureau, with a whole army of officials to be appointed, is, of course, a perfect god-send, and they will cling to it like grim death. For the same reason they will resist with great vigor all attempts to bring the public printing-office under the rules. In fact, it may be taken for granted that the more the area covered by the rules is enlarged, the more tenaciously will Congressmen cling to what is left uncovered. They feel like Indians resisting the encroachments of the white men on the reservations, and watching the gradual disappearance of the buffaloes and other large game.

The ballot-reform movement goes bravely forward. Minnesota is one of the latest recruits, its recently adjourned Legislature having passed a law which is a complete adaptation of the Australian system, and which is applicable to all the cities of the State having a population of 10,000 or more. The list of States with the reform laws now stands eight in number as follows, in the order of enactment: Massachusetts, Indiana, Montana, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Missouri. We are not informed as to the actual signing of the laws by the Governors in the last two States, but there is no doubt of their signing.

Gov. Hill has for a second time prevented the enactment of a ballot-reform law for this State. The bill which he vetoed on Monday was substantially the measure which he vetoed a year ago, some modifications and changes having been made in it with a faint hope of overcoming his objections. It was an admirable measure a year ago, and an equally admirable one after its alterations. It was the first elaborate measure drawn in this country as an adaptation of the principles of the Australian system to American election methods, and it has within the past year been made the basis and model for the eight bills which have become laws in as many States. Not one of the objections which Gov. Hill makes with such obvious insincerity and at such wearisome length has been raised anywhere else. We shall not dignify those objections with any serious discussion whatever. The *World*, the leading newspaper of the Governor's own party, says that the Governor "has painfully failed to demonstrate that he is something more than a politician and a party servant." In our view this is not the first time that he has failed in the same way; but if his own party is beginning to find him out, there is hope that we may in time be rid of him. It was just as certain when he was reëlected last fall as it is now that there could be no ballot-reform and no

temperance-reform legislation secured during the three years of his new term; but we were not able to get his Democratic supporters to perceive the fact at that time.

The bill to provide for the better care of the indigent insane in this State has been defeated again in the House, but this time by a narrow majority, while it has passed the Senate. Last year it did not even get out of the Committee to which it had been referred. The friends of the bill have therefore every reason to feel encouraged and to redouble their efforts. All the progress that has been made in bringing this humane measure to the point where it could command forty-five votes in the Assembly has resulted from a persistent dissemination of the facts and the truth among the homes of the people, by which consciences have been stirred and pity has been awakened in the hearts of men and women for a voiceless and most afflicted class. One of the most potent agencies in this work, and one of the most potent appeals ever made in this State or anywhere for the better treatment of the insane, is the report on this subject made by the State Board of Charities to the Legislature last January.

An admirable work, of a more general character, is Mr. W. P. Letchworth's 'The Insane in Foreign Countries,' just published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. If any one wishes to know how slowly the condition of the insane has been improved, how bitter and discouraging at times has been the battle of the few against the many, of humanity against ignorance and superstition, but how complete the victory of humanity has been, these pages, with their ample illustrations, tell. To lose one's mind was, in the olden time, to be "possessed of the devil," but if one had literally been in the devil's possession, he could not have been worse maltreated than the insane were all over the Christian world a century ago. No criminals could be served worse, because nothing can be worse than to be burned alive, as insane persons often were, in order to consume the evil spirit supposed to have found lodgment in the lunatic's person. The contrast between La Salpêtrière in 1792 and Alt-Scherbitz of the present day is as wide as human imagination can conceive. Mr. Letchworth did not apparently have any thought, when making these investigations, of the controversy between State care and county care of the insane, but his work cannot fail to tell strongly in favor of the better system, which must be that which gives the insane the benefit of skilled treatment and all the appliances which science has devised for ministering to the mind diseased.

The description given out of the apparatus to be used in this State under the law requiring executions in future to be by electricity (the first sentence under this law was pronounced on Monday) raises the question whether the makers of that law and the persons who have devised the means for carrying it out are in strict accord. The law was undoubtedly enacted because, with the control now attained over electricity, it was thought that a criminal's death might be brought about instantaneously, and with no possibility of such horrors as come with broken ropes and the other mismanagement so often characteristic of hangings. Every now and then a workman touches a "live" wire, and dies with the touch. It was natural, therefore, to look to electricity as the best means of putting condemned criminals to death. But is it certain that the framers of this law intended that the victim should be seated in a formidable-looking chair, have his feet encased in shoes which contain damp sponges, have another sponge placed on his head, and his head clamped down with metallic bands—all this to be gone through with as the preparation for the death stroke? Was it not believed when the law was passed that the victim would die with the touch of a wire or a knob, and was not the absence of terror-giving paraphernalia and preparation one of the arguments in favor of the new means of death? The first executions in the electric chair will doubtless be very interesting to the scientists who have devised it; but will it not be found that M. de Paris can make better time with his guillotine than these modern electricians with their present system of applying the fluid?

A telegram to the *Times* from North Dakota says that the financiers of that new State intend to adopt some novel features in their Constitution. One of the proposed reforms is to abolish all taxes on cultivated land. Another is to abolish all taxes on personal property. The former is intended as a measure of relief to the farmers, and the latter as a measure of conciliation to the Henry George or single-tax men. If both reforms are adopted, the only taxes will be those on uncultivated land—that is, on property which yields nothing. Regarded as a measure to bring land under some kind of cultivation, we should think that the project might be beneficial, but the amount and kind of cultivation ought to be very carefully prescribed in the Constitution, because the owners of land subject to taxation would be very likely to put in crops of hay or something that would require very little labor, in order to escape taxation. Inasmuch as no land can be taxed until it is surveyed, and as the Government is rather backward in making surveys, it would seem that the new State would run short of funds very soon after the adoption of the new Constitution, if both these reforms should happen to be adopted, unless a third one should be added providing that all public officials should serve without pay. This would have the beneficial effect of reducing the number of office-seekers, and might be worth trying for that reason alone. But we fear that the politicians will not take so large a dose of reform at one sitting.

The *National Economist* is a weekly paper published at Washington city. It calls itself the "official organ of the National Farmer's Alliance and Coöperative Union of America, the National Agricultural Wheel, and the Farmers' and Laborers' Union of America." This is a formidable organship, in name at least, and we have accordingly given close attention to the successive numbers of the *National Economist* in order to learn what its platform might be, but with slight advantage until its last number (May 11) reached us. In this the editor supplies some views of national finance which we judge are to constitute a part, at least, of the policy of the Alliance, the Wheel, and the Union. First, we are to have "expansion" of the circulating medium of the country. Then, in order to prevent corporations, syndicates, combinations, capitalists, and smart people from taking advantage of expansion to swell their own fortunes at the expense of farmers, wheelers, and other innocents, there should be "a regulation in regard to indebtedness, either providing for an increase or diminution of indebtedness to correspond with the value of the circulating medium as regulated by its volume; or, as many now eminent thinkers believe to be the better plan, abolish all laws for the collection of debt." Then, every business that is by its nature a monopoly should be carried on by the Government, and laws should be passed "prohibiting any person or combination of persons from taking advantage of one's hunger, or cold, or sickness to extort money, the same as they now prohibit any person from taking advantage of the physical weakness of another upon the highway at the dagger's point or pistol-mouth to extort money." But this is not all. The laws should recognize no right to "hypothecate lands"—meaning, we suppose, to mortgage them. The "pernicious custom of commerce in real estate" should also be destroyed. With these checks the *National Economist* thinks that "expansion" would be accompanied with beneficial effects that would be permanent and lasting.

Only one thing seems to be lacking in the programme, and that is to get the circulating medium into the right hands when the expansion takes place. Of course the right hands are the Alliance men, the Wheelers, and the Unionists. Congressmen and members of the Legislature and their friends should not have any. Although they have to make the laws by which expansion takes effect, they should be prohibited under the severest penalties from getting any of the new circulating medium. But how is this to be done? We can think of no effectual preventive except public opinion. Public opinion would be so sharpened by a repeal of all laws for the collection of debts, and by putting an end to mortgages and the traffic in real estate, that it might be expected to hold politicians to a severe accountability if any of the new circulating medium should stick to *their* fingers. Before commenting on the underlying principles set out by the *National Economist*, we shall wait to see the details of its plan for bringing about expansion.

The *Tribune* of May 6, in a review of the

industrial situation of the country, made the following statements, which we commend to the thoughtful consideration of all that large class of persons, more especially the operatives and laborers on farms and in foundries, factories, and mines, who were confidently assured that the defeat of tariff reform and the election of Harrison meant increased wages, larger opportunities for labor, more extended markets, and a general era of abounding prosperity. Said the *Tribune:*

"But the industries are not in so promising a condition as might be desired. A better feeling is reported in the iron market, and nevertheless pig-iron has sold at $16.75 for Southern No. 1, and steel rails at less than $27 at mill. It is frivolous to suppose that pig-iron is going at once to be consumed at a rate of 7,800,000 tons yearly *for domestic iron alone*, with more than half the rail-making capacity idle. The glass industry about Pittsburgh is also depressed, and overproduction is reported. The coal companies find their troubles such that they have suppressed the usual statement of stocks on hand. The situation of the copper business has not been improved by a further fall at London, or that of the leather industry by some recent failures. Of the woollen manufacturers, a considerable proportion are and for months have been idle and waiting. The circulation of a paper among flannel manufacturers, agreeing to close their works for some months, is now reported. Large crops are expected, but to all appearance they will mean prices so low that Western farmers and transporters may require microscopes for the division of their gains."

Had Mr. Cleveland been reëlected, and all the above-cited results happened, what an unanswerable demonstration would have been afforded of the folly and wickedness of free trade!

A fortnightly leaflet called the *Silver Dollar* is published at Cleveland, Ohio. Its issue for May 1 contains a letter from one Ivan C. Michaels, exposing a gigantic "smuggling" operation by which silver is introduced into this country from Mexico in large quantities. At El Paso alone, he says, lead ores containing silver have been sent across the border at the rate of 286 tons daily, while other large quantities have been passed over the border at Eagle Pass, Laredo, and Nogales. This has been done, he says, by "a well-organized pool of smelters," who have made not less than $5,000,000 in the past five years. This, Mr. Michaels insists, ought to be stopped. We think ourselves that there is danger lest these smelters should make too much money, and that means ought to be devised to have the smelting done on the other side of the border, so that the Mexicans should have the profit on their own ores to which they are fairly entitled. But, after the smelting is done, the silver would still be admitted free of duty, although the lead would be taxed two cents per pound, or 69 per cent. ad valorem. We have not yet put any duty on the precious metals, but is it not time to do so? Who is to tell whether a piece of ore when it arrives at our custom-house is lead ore or silver ore? If the usual rule is followed of classifying the article according to the component material of chief value, it will in nine cases out of ten be properly classed as silver. Why not "take the bull by the horns" and put a good thumping duty on silver? In that way our miners would be "protected," and perhaps the Mexicans would be compelled to do their own smelting.

We have been wondering at what point in the centennial proceedings litigation would break out, and we must confess some surprise that, with such opportunities for disputes, the resulting crop of law-suits is so small. The only one that seems likely to engage and hold public attention is that of Dr. Edward C. Towne vs. Hon. Chauncey M. Depew for matter not furnished, but ready to be furnished, by the former to the latter for the purposes of a centennial oration. The difficulty in this case is very plain. Mr. Depew took too superficial a view of the oration and Mr. Towne took too ponderous a one. When Mr. Towne received Mr. Depew's request that he should abstract from the Congressional Library or other sources such facts and suggestions as he (Towne) might think useful for the upbuilding of an oration, he went to work as though the twelve labors of Hercules had been imposed upon him. Thirty-two days he toiled, producing matter that he considers would have been worth $1,500 to Mr. Depew if it had been used. Mr. Depew, on the other hand, took a lighter estimate of the occasion, and, by applying three evenings and a part of Sunday to research among books available in New York, produced the oration which we all know about—"a speech for a day, and a fine one," Mr. Towne admits, "but not a speech for fifty years, nor for all time." Mr. Depew refused to pay Mr. Towne's bill for $800 for matter not used, and Mr. Towne now sues for the full value of the facts collected by him, which he estimates at $1,500, although he was willing to let Mr. Depew have it for about half price on account of old friendship. Mr. Depew, not to be outdone in friendship, was willing to pay Mr. Towne $150, although he considers the work done worth only $25. The case presents such difficulties to a court that it will probably be necessary to send it to a referee to be adjusted on the principles of *quantum meruit*. Who would be a better referee in such a case than Col. Elliott F. Shepard? The Colonel has recently had large experience in collecting poems and opinions regarding George Washington. He knows what it costs to collect them, and how much they are worth when collected. He is also a lawyer by profession and the most religious Republican in the United States. A report made by a referee so variously qualified would undoubtedly be accepted by both parties without cavil.

The close of Parnell's cross-examination has apparently taken all interest out of the proceedings for the English public. What Davitt and other witnesses will have to say will probably throw but little light on the matter for the court. They are mostly rather obscure men, whose doings or sayings only affect the home-rule question in a small degree. If Parnell had not committed the astounding and inexplicable blunder of falsely accusing himself of lying to the House of Commons, his cross-examination would have been a complete failure. What effect this incident has had on public opinion in England it is almost impossible to discover, as the newspapers are precluded by custom, if not by the fear of committing contempt of court, from commenting on the evidence during the trial. The only indications of any moment are Parnell's election by a large majority to life membership in the National Liberal Club, and the bestowal on him, by a decided majority, of the freedom of the city of Edinburgh, an honor rarely accorded, and which in this case has been fiercely opposed. As both these things have happened since the escapade in the court-room, it is to be inferred that, for some reason yet to be revealed, no great importance is attached to it by the Liberals. There are only two conjectures about this reason which seem plausible—one that English Liberals are disposed to acquiesce in an Irish view that resistance, on the part of Irish representatives, to a coercion bill abolishing trial by jury, is entitled to the benefit of the various immoralities of actual war in the field, the most cherished of these being the practice of lying to the enemy, in which even pious commanders indulge freely. The other is, that as Parnell is virtually on trial for promoting murder and outrage, the discovery that he was on one or more occasions simply untruthful, is irrelevant and unimportant. But, no matter what can be said for it, the effect on the general public not engaged in active politics is sure to be bad, and to furnish a means of recovery and escape to a great many of his enemies who were stunned by the Pigott explosion.

We have received several letters complaining of Patrick Egan's appointment to the Chilian Mission, on the ground, among several, that he was an accomplice in the Phœnix Park assassinations. We do not believe that this is true. It is true that he fled to this country soon after, while Treasurer of the National League, but, as well as we can remember, it has not been seriously maintained that he had anything to do with the murders, and no proof of it, or suggestion of proof of it, appeared in the evidence on the trial of the murderers. The appointment is, of course, even without this, a wholly unjustifiable one; but Egan ought not to be sent to Chili with more sins on his head than he fairly deserves to bear. For example, we receive this morning a paragraph from *La Union*, the Clerical organ in Valparaiso, which denounces Egan as "one of the probable conspirators" in the murder of Burke and Cavendish, as "a leader of the Invincibles, or rather Fenians," and ascribes his appointment to Mr. Blaine, who, it says, is "the de-facto President of the United States," and "the ruling power in the United States"; and on him it fastens the blame of sending a murderer to represent the United States Government in Chili. It would be well for Mr. Egan or some of his friends to say what the exact facts of this matter are, before he goes to his post.

THE LEGISLATIVE REPORT ON TRUSTS.

THE report of the Committee of the State Senate on Trusts has a twofold aspect. The conclusions reached by the majority are clearly justified. They are not different from those of the minority. Both agree that at present no legislation on the subject is desirable or practicable. Both point to the decision of Judge Barrett in the case of the North River Sugar-Refining Company, now under review in the Court of Appeals, as a proper resting-place for the time being. Both approve of that decision as an interpretation of existing law. But the argument and general tone of the majority report seem to find excuses for the Trusts and to minimize their bad fea tures. Stress is laid, for instance, on the evils of competition, as though it were an evil that goods should be supplied to the community at such low prices that the less capable or the less favorably situated producer should be crushed out. The following paragraph embraces, perhaps, all that can be said on this point by any apologist for Trusts:

"Combination rarely exists except as the result of excessive competition. In the natural condition of affairs the law of supply and demand primarily fixes the reasonable and natural price of every commodity. But, under the stimulus of excessive competition, when each competitor seeks to drive his adversary from the field of trade or transportation, new elements, good and bad, enter the problem, and each rival, not for the public good, but for his own advantage, with rapacious ingenuity lessens the cost to the consumer below the natural and reasonable price; and that he may do this without sacrifice to his capital he increases the product, cheapens the expense of manufacture by cheaper methods and processes, and all with the expectation of ultimately controlling the market and ruining his adversary. But the cheapness of the price is temporary only, for each producer, manufacturer, or common carrier expects, when his competitor is driven off or destroyed, to be able to fix the price, and, for a while at least, to oblige the public to pay a sum in excess of that which, in its normal operations, would be required by the law of supply and demand. Combination to increase the price is often the way of escape sought from this state of affairs. That combination is the natural result of excessive competition there can be no doubt. The history of the Copper Trust or syndicate, the Sugar Trust, the Standard Oil Trust, the American Cotton Oil Trust, the combination of railroads to fix the rates of freight and passenger transportation, all prove beyond question or dispute that combination grows out of and is a natural development of competition, and that in many cases it is the only means left to the competitors to escape absolute ruin."

The fallacy in this argument comes in at the beginning, where it is sought to draw a distinction between the "natural condition of affairs" under the law of supply and demand and what the Committee call "excessive competition." This would lead us to infer that some tribunal or test existed to tell us when competition was natural and when it was excessive. But obviously there is no such test or tribunal. If A is so situated or so unskilful that he cannot compete successfully with B, who shall tell us that B's competition is unnatural? This is a world of competition in both the animal and the vegetable kingdoms, and most of all in the human family. Competition is as fundamental a fact as population or gravitation. It can no more be suppressed than gravitation. It may be retarded and counteracted for a time in particular places and as to particular commodities; but as to all things where the sources of supply are not strictly limited by nature or by statute, it will eventually break down every possible combination. So far we agree with the Committee. So, too, we agree with them that competition is the inciting cause of combination; but here again we must reject the phrase "excessive competition" as misleading, since every competition is excessive which prevents any man from making a living profit.

The fundamental question is whether competition or combination is of an anti-social character, whether the one or the other promotes the *salus populi*, or the greatest good of the greatest number. If there is no standard or authority to draw the line between competition which is excessive and that which is not, then some other test must be looked for. Competition results in cheapness. It has no other end or aim. All its evils, if there be any, take the form of offering more goods for less money, or, since money is a somewhat confusing element, we will say more satisfaction to the buyer for less of his labor. Combination aims to get more and to give less. If it fails of this, in any case, it fails of its object.

Now, which of the two is anti-social in its aims and tendencies? Which confers the greatest good upon the greatest number? It is the common understanding of mankind, and it may easily be put in the form of a demonstration, that competition does this, because the buyers outnumber the producers (that is, the proprietors of production) by millions. It is an artifice much employed in tariff discussion to say that the proprietors furnish employment to labor, and therefore deserve special consideration, but it would not be seriously contended that society should for that reason support works that are badly placed or unskilfully managed. Now, there is no way to tell when works are badly placed or unskilfully managed except by seeing whether they can stand alone. If they have to be braced up by tariff laws or by Trusts, they are a tax upon the community, and therefore anti-social.

The fallacy on which we have commented, crops out again near the conclusion of the report, where the Committee say that while the Trust is full of dangers, "it is not of necessity a monopoly, nor inconsistent with the public advantage within certain reasonable limitations." Reasonable limitations are as little susceptible of determination as excessive competition is. It was not necessary for the Committee to make apologies for the Trusts. They are quite able to take care of themselves. What the public had a right to expect from the Committee, if it had no legislation to recommend (and we agree that none is now necessary), was a plain statement of facts and principles showing where the best interests of society lie. This we are sorry not to find in the report.

POLITICAL GENTLEMEN.

WE are greatly afraid that the performances of Messrs. Robert Ray Hamilton, Hamilton Fish, and Ernest H. Crosby at Albany will end by making the public doubt whether there can be such a thing as "the gentleman in politics." Forty years ago, when corruption and jobbery at Albany began to be very ostentatious, people used to console themselves with the idea that they could cure the trouble by getting "gentlemen" and "scholars" to go into politics, and show the common men the more excellent way. Since then the remedy has been tried more or less, but to say it has not succeeded is to speak mildly. The idea of its proponents was, that although the gentlemen and scholars in a legislature might be a handful, and might be rather artless in practical politics, the effect of their pure example on the hardened offenders around them would be in the highest degree salutary. This result certainly has not been attained at Albany. We have heard of no corruptionist or jobber who has been shamed into virtue, or even external decency, by contemplating the political walk and conversation of Mr. Crosby, or Mr. Hamilton, or Mr. Fish.

Whether an Albany legislator is virtuous or not can only be ascertained by seeing how he behaves about this city. He may be pure and upright about everything else in the State for twenty years, and yet, until he is called on to legislate about New York city, nobody can say with certainty what kind of stuff he is made of. This city furnishes the strong temptation before which even heroic legislators feel their weakness. Even Hamilton Fish, jr., might have passed as a man of adamantine morality, if he had not been called on to provide New York city with a copious supply of water. As soon as he turned his attention to this great problem, there sat Satan waiting for him at all the leading springs in the Croton Valley. His confrères, Ernest Crosby and Ray Hamilton, have now much the same story to tell. Mr. Hamilton was led astray by the practical men some years ago, but repented and has since then, and until very recently, been leading a very respectable life. Mr. Crosby, too, has on the subject of liquor been a very pillar of the church. Satan disguised as a liquor-dealer was never able to make the smallest impression on him, and, indeed, was equally unsuccessful in the character of a corrupter of the suffrage. But no sooner did the Tempter come in the shape of a nice "deal," with something in it for the Republican Boys in the city, than both of these gentlemen surrendered at once, and asked simply to be shown the job they had to do in order to do it. They were evidently in the thick of the whole business, and knew all its ins and outs, and were not in the least nauseated. Mr. Crosby found the Police Justices Bill too much for him; but the only sacrifice he would make was to refrain from voting upon it.

There is an old French proverb, doubtless familiar in the original to our new Minister to France, which says that "a gentleman is always a gentleman, and always shows himself to be such in danger and necessity." Evidently, however, this was founded on a different experience from ours, for our gentlemen in politics are only gentlemen now and

then, and only show themselves to be such when it will not "hurt the party." This is not what their friends calculated on when they rejoiced over the entrance into political life of young men of good education and good social and family traditions. The experience the country has had, in fact, in this matter during the past six or seven years will dispose a greater and greater number to concur with Mr. Moorfield Story of Boston, in the opinion that our "scholars and gentlemen" can do far more for the community as observers and writers and speakers than as office-holders, and that their entrance into the political arena as candidates for place is pretty sure to rob them in the long run of the very things which make them, either in politics or anywhere else, valuable to the community. Nor is this all. As the Roman philosopher has observed: "The worst corruption is the corruption of the good." The worst example is the example of the virtuous man who has lost his virtue, and of the temperance orator who occasionally gets drunk. Consequently the spectacle of a Crosby, or a Fish, or a Hamilton rollicking with the Boys in the middle of a "deal," does infinitely more mischief than the worst excesses of an O'Brien or a Brodsky.

WANTON REMOVALS AND VOTE-BUYING.

THERE is a paragraph in a report of Mr. Depew's recent conversation with the *World* which deserves attention and comment. It is this:

> "This generation has taken care of slavery and eradicated what was the greatest evil of the century, and it has absorbed 14,000,000 of immigrants. That we have received in that enormous population paupers, criminals, lepers, Anarchists, and Communists is true; but the benefits derived in the settlement and development of the country, the building of the public works, the creation of States, the vigor and progress attained by the enormous aggregation of virtue, sobriety, and citizenship that accompanied it, are such that the bad element has been nullified. That we need to legislate to prevent the introduction of mendicants, diseased persons, and paupers goes without saying."

What is true and striking in regard to the whole country is in one sense especially so as applied to the city of New York, and should make foreign critics more tolerant in dealing with defects in our municipal affairs. This city has been, and is, the mixing place of all races and nationalities, of all creeds and systems, religious and political. The overflowing of Europe, Asia, and Africa has come hither and found a home. With the virtue of the Old World has come the vice; with the riches, the poverty. The records of the Department of State clearly disclose that from European States, and notably from Switzerland, have, by governmental effort, been dumped into New York vice, pauperism, idiocy, insanity, and hopeless alcoholism. The sediment, the incurable, of such an immigration tend to remain in great cities.

All of the men over twenty-one years of age become voters in New York as soon as they are Federal citizens and have got a residence, and in many Western States they can vote before they are naturalized. Thousands of naturalization papers, for voting purposes, have been corruptly obtained by purchase before the end of a five years' continuous residence; and even when the residence has been genuine, there has not been that adequate inquiry into the character of the applicant which the naturalization statute requires. Having become a citizen and a resident, every man over twenty-one — practically every one, however dishonest, or vicious, or criminal—can vote, and there is such voting every autumn. No civil-service law or theory prevents the removal each year of members of the New York Assembly and every two years of New York Senators. Mayors and Aldermen come and go with startling rapidity. Even a member of Congress has only two years of life. Voting is a great industry and a *paying* industry. Every recurring autumn finds New York city upset by an election, when vast sums of money change hands.

The theory of these short terms for *elective* offices is, that it is good for the public weal that official power be frequently surrendered to the voters from which it came, in order that they may commend or condemn the conduct of the official. It is under such conditions and out of such materials that the municipal government of New York is made. Has any other great city to deal with similar elements on the basis of such universal suffrage and yearly voting? Defective administering of the details of government is always the price to be paid for representative institutions, universal suffrage, short terms of office, and all the countless blessings of individual, political, civil, and religious liberty. Defective pavements, dirty streets, dilapidated docks, a wretched hackney cab service, and a general absence of the conveniences of daily life at a cheap price to be found in all great European cities, New Yorkers have. It is no doubt very bad and very hard that this city is not free to work out the tremendous problem without the interference and control of the countrymen assembled annually at Albany; but so it is. The buying and selling of votes abound; false counting of ballots flourishes; officials receive "cash down" to shut their eyes to violations of law; pious men furnish the money or inducement to unregenerate officials and to voters to betray the trust they have undertaken—but is that peculiar to New York? Has not the Department of Public Works in London been proved guilty of corrupt practices as bad as anything proved since Tweed's day on our New York Department, even although London does not have to contend with universal suffrage, yearly voting, and an annual upsetting of political affairs? London is, in its municipal affairs, really in the hands of a single race and creed, and that an English race and a Church of England creed, which makes the problem of government so much more simple than in New York. How do Englishmen get on when trying to deal with the government of Irishmen? And yet, what Englishman thinks of or gives due weight to all these things when writing or speaking of the municipal affairs of New York?

Mr. Depew is right: New York has reason for self-congratulation and hope. The protection of life and property in this city during the three days of the recent celebration is a *fact*, whose significance cannot be obscured any more than the incident that so large a part of the rank and file of the policemen who gave that protection were men of Irish descent, and the very same sort of men whom Tory politicians in England say cannot be trusted in Ireland as they are trusted in New York. Thus to do justice to New York is not inconsistent with, or a betrayal of, pressing reforms which Mr. Depew emphasized in these telling words:

> "That we need to improve our civil service, and by it improve our public service, is also unquestionably true. That we need to prevent the corrupt use of money in our elections, is the burning necessity of the time. That we want ballot reform so that the independence of the voter can be beyond reach of interference, is also beyond doubt. That we need high license and a proper regulation of the liquor traffic, every right-minded person admits."

Mr. Depew did not say, but it will be helpful when he does say, and keeps on saying, that the way to stop the indiscriminate and wanton removals from office such as Harrison is now making, and to put an end to the buying of votes and offices which both parties attempted last November, is, for those who really wish to accomplish those great reforms, to cease, as Republicans, insisting that Democrats have been and are solely responsible for the two evils, and for Democrats to stop putting all the blame on Republicans. Never mind now about Jefferson or Jackson or Cleveland, on the one side, or Lincoln or Grant or Harrison, on the other side. One is as much tarred with the dishonor as the other. Both sides have endeavored to beg and expend all the money they could get in the buying of votes. Cleveland turned out officials just as Harrison is turning them out. The thing to be done in the near future is to suppress the twin evils—wanton removals and vote-buying.

CHANGES IN DRINKING-HABITS.

No feature of the centennial celebration attracted more general attention than the small amount of drunkenness in the great crowds. The streets were packed with people all day long, day after day, and yet cases of intoxication were so infrequent that they attracted attention by their very rarity. "It can fairly be said," remarks the *Examiner*, a journal representing the Baptist denomination, "that the city during the three days was remarkably free from drunkenness. The saloons were all open, and it is said that they did a large business. However that may be, the fact is certain that there were very few signs of intoxication. The remark is now made constantly by people who were about the streets for hours on every one of the three days, that they did not see a single person under the influence of liquor. This also is excellent evidence that the people at large are gifted with good sense, and know how to manage themselves even in strange cities and on gala days; and it may even be fairly said to show that they have in this respect made great advances over the people of 100 years ago."

There is no doubt that the *Examiner* is entirely right in the opinion that, in respect of self-control, the American people of 1889 are superior to those of 1789, and that there is consequently less of drunkenness, and of the disorder which springs from drunkenness, on a gala occasion now than in the days of our great-grandfathers. Those were the days when people drank strong liquors, and were expected to get drunk on them, and did not suffer for getting drunk; when ministers and deacons went from the examination of a theological student's orthodoxy, and his consequent fitness to become a pastor, to a dinner where the board was graced with brandy and rum—"good old New England rum"; when the glass of toddy was religiously presented the young pastor at the house of every parishioner on whom he called; when ministers occasionally became intoxicated without incurring dismissal; and when public men of the highest standing might slip under the table at a banquet without forfeiting the confidence of their constituents. In those days tens and hundreds of thousands of people could not have assembled and shown only a rare case of drunkenness.

The change is in part due to the growth of the habit of total abstinence among the people. It no longer provokes criticism, or even causes remark, if a gentleman does not drink wine at a public dinner; society recognizes that it is a personal question, about which others have no right to concern themselves. But this is only a single element in the change, and we doubt if it is the most important. There were plenty of people in the centennial throng who are in the habit of drinking liquor of some kind, and who did drink during the days of the celebration. The point is that they did not get drunk; and the chief reason for this undoubtedly was, that they generally did not drink the more intoxicating kinds of liquor. The introduction of lager beer in the United States has "switched off" a large proportion of drinkers from "hard" liquors to malt. The man who years ago would take two or three glasses of whiskey, and get "fighting drunk" on them, now takes two or three mugs of beer, and does not get drunk at all.

These changes in drinking habits are not confined to the United States. They are hardly less noticeable in Great Britain. In recently presenting the budget to the House of Commons, the Chancellor of the Exchequer called attention to the fact that during the last quarter of a century there has been a great, a material, and a striking fall in the consumption of spirituous liquors, as shown by the receipts from the excise tax. "I have good news again for the friends of the temperance cause," he said, "though it has made and continues to make a gap in the receipts of the Exchequer. This great revenue does not grow in proportion to population. It might be thought, now that we are at a critical moment in the revival of trade, that this would again lead to an increase in the revenue from drink. But it has not done so." He proceeded to show in detail that spirituous drinks have fallen more and more behind for the last dozen years; that a corresponding change has gone on in wines, so that more than half the wine now consumed belongs to the lighter kinds, while formerly the lighter kinds were only one-third of the whole; that since 1876 the total consumption of wine has sunk from 17,000,000 gallons to 13,000,000 gallons, while the total consumption of the lighter kind of wines has risen from 6,000,000 gallons to 8,000,000 gallons; that less wine of all kinds was consumed last year than in the previous year; and that the total drink revenue last year showed a falling off, despite the increase in population, the sole increase being in beer, and that increase only two-thirds of 1 per cent.

Such facts show conclusively that in both Great Britain and the United States the number of people who abstain entirely from the use of liquor is steadily increasing, and that those who use liquor of any sort are more and more inclined to drop rum, whiskey, and brandy for the lighter wines, ale, and beer. That these changes in habit have already gone far enough to produce noticeable effects, is demonstrated by the wonderful sobriety of the recent vast crowds in this city. Public opinion now frowns on drunkenness, and a man suffers serious harm who allows himself to be overcome by liquor. The next step should be the organizing of a public sentiment which will suppress the saloon by making it disreputable for a man to enter such a place. That the next centennial celebration will find the United States a nation of total abstainers, is in the highest degree improbable; but it is not too much to hope that it may find the country, although consuming a large amount of liquor, freed from the demoralizing influences of "stand-up drinking" in rum-shops.

SHALL WE HAVE A CORRECT CENSUS?

THE opinion expressed by us some time since that the appointment of Robert P. Porter to the Superintendency of the Census was in the nature of a public calamity, has since found confirmation in a general concurrence of the most intelligent sentiment of the country, and also in the unconcealed rejoicing on the part of the representatives of the most extreme tariff fanatics. The selection undoubtedly implies just what the country can least afford. That the President of a party whose chief political capital is denunciation of every economic and fiscal principle which England favors, should find no native-born citizen fit to number the American people in their centennial census, take an inventory of their goods and chattels, and collect the evidence for making accurate deductions respecting almost every question pertaining to their social life and condition, and should select for the superintendence of this great task a hap-hazard Englishman, a sort of modern Dugald Dalgetty, ready to fight for any cause that pays, is itself a circumstance that would seem sufficiently potent once more to inspire with life the dry bones of the old Know-Nothing party.

But this is not the worst. For although Mr. Porter has written to the New York *Sun* that "he means to take an absolutely fair and honest census" (and by so doing admits that his appointment invites public distrust), it is by no means certain that he is capable of achieving any such result. There is a deal of truth and common sense in the remark of Emerson, "that the eye sees only what it brings to itself to see." But what will the eyes of the men appointed under the dictation of the American Iron and Steel Association bring to themselves to see on the question of wages, and the influence of taxation for private rather than public purposes? The Chicago *Inter-Ocean* has already definitely indicated the line of vision they are expected to follow by declaring that "now"—that is, under Porter—"the collection and publication of exact data relative to our industries will prove the efficacy of a protective tariff, and finally and for ever damn the Mills Bill."

Again, the Cleveland *Leader* (a high protectionist paper) is delighted with the appointment of Porter, because all citizens are either "protectionists or free-traders," and the President was instructed to appoint a protectionist. It adds that "the free-trade editors see that some of their principal falsehoods are certain to be exposed by an honest census," which is equivalent to an assertion that the census as taken under the supervision of Gen. Walker was not honest, although they never thought so before; and that under Porter we are to have new theories of statistics and new methods, with a view of knocking out the foundation from under the hitherto assumed facts on which the wicked free-traders have based their arguments. Possibly Porter will prove equal to the task of invalidating the commandment which says, "Thou shalt not steal," on the averment of the United States Supreme Court that, "to lay with one hand the power of the government on the property of the citizen, and with the other to bestow it upon favored individuals to aid private enterprises, is no less robbery because it is called taxation." If he can at the same time prove to the workingman that the existing tariff has been enacted mainly for his benefit, his success is assured.

What will the eyes of the census enumerators at the South bring themselves to see, under the inspiration of those Republican leaders who propose to put the next Congressional and Presidential election under the control of the Federal Executive? A reduction of the enumeration of the people of the South, especially of the colored element, to an extent of 10 or 15 per cent., thereby reducing Congressional representation from that portion of the country and helping to perpetuate the political supremacy of the Republican party, would not be a very difficult thing to do, but an exceedingly difficult thing to remedy. The work of the Census Bureau in this respect was brought under suspicion in 1880, and nothing but public confidence in the integrity of Gen. Walker, fortified as it was by a recount in some districts, was effectual to dispel it. That no such confidence will be extended to Mr. Porter he may

feel sure. All the indications are that his appointment was made in conformity with and as an essential part of a scheme to subordinate his great work to political and selfish motives—to help fasten a load of unjust taxation upon the whole people, and possibly defraud a portion of them of their just political privileges. We accordingly heartily join with the Springfield *Republican* in the hope that the Senate, at its next session, will insist on intrusting the management of the census to other and better hands, "and reject Porter's appointment even at the risk of delaying the work of preparation."

A MEDICAL PRACTICE SCHOOL.

BALTIMORE, May 10, 1889.

NOT the least interesting feature in the scheme of university education planned by Johns Hopkins of Baltimore was his provision for a medical school in connection with a general hospital, to be built and organized on the most approved methods known to modern science. The importance to medical education throughout the country of the opening of this hospital—the avant-courrier of a great medical school—may be seen by the following quotations from two recognized medical authorities:

"It is disgraceful, and yet it happens constantly, that men are graduated by prominent medical schools and colleges in this country, without ever having listened to an abnormal heart-beat, seen a case of measles, or assisted at an obstetrical case."

"In the munificence of Mr. Hopkins we have the prophecy and possibility of a reform in medical education which will be general in its character and permanent in its results. Incorporated into the University as an integral part of its system of education, the Faculty of Medicine will be required to subject its students to the same tests as are required in the other departments. . . . There can be no doubt that a school thus organized and conducted would at first repel medical students; . . . it is equally certain that in the near future such a school would be the centre of attraction to the profession in all parts of the country, and would assume a *national* character and importance."

The inception, organization, and christening of such a "national" institution would seem, therefore, events of national interest. That they have been such, the presence at the hospital's formal opening, May 7, of distinguished medical men from all parts of the country testified, while cordial words from many not present evidenced the universal opinion of the profession that Baltimore ought to become "the seat of a school of medicine such as does not now exist in this country."

Mr. Francis T. King, President of the Board of Trustees, made the opening address on behalf of the Board, and reported as a result of their stewardship the seventeen buildings now finished, and the sum, in addition to the trust originally received, of $113,000 surplus income reinvested. Dr. John S. Billings, U. S. A., as a medical critic, demonstrated the special adaptability of the hospital structures for two distinct lines of work—*i. e.*, the care and cure of the sick, and the education of trained practitioners and investigators—making frankly prominent the great need of development in this latter field of medical effort. As acting-chairman of the Hospital Board and President of the University, Mr. Daniel C. Gilman explained the close connection that has always existed between the discoveries of pure science and the practical amelioration of human pain—a relation that becomes still more intimate where research and application go hand in hand and are encouraged by adequate endowment.

The lay public may here fairly ask why the "opening" of this particular hospital, with less than two hundred free beds, should be held to mark an era in medical education. The answer to this query can best be given, first, by an account of the growth of the hospital *idea* as finally embodied in the present group of buildings, and secondly by an outline of the plan of organization which gives the hospital organic relation to the University, so that, in the words of Dr. Billings, "the true university spirit will pervade, stimulate, and encourage the hospital work."

The embryo which has developed into such an institution first appears in a letter of Mr. Hopkins himself, addressed to his Trustees in March, 1873, in which he directs that the plan they select must permit of symmetrical additions to the buildings first constructed, so as ultimately to care for 400 patients, while in construction and arrangement "it must compare favorably with any other institution of like character in this country or in Europe." The majority of the patients were, "without regard to sex, age, or color," to receive medical or surgical treatment free of charge. There must be, in connection with the hospital, a training-school for female nurses, and a home for convalescent patients in the country. Finally, "*in all arrangements in relation to this hospital, bear constantly in mind that it is my wish and purpose that the institution shall ultimately form a part of the Medical School of the University.*" Mr. Hopkins died shortly afterwards, and in 1875 the Trustees directed their building committee "to confer with five distinguished physicians . . . who have made hospitals a special study." The physicians selected were men of reputation from Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington, and New Orleans, who consequently had grappled with the same general problems, but with varied conditions of climate, temperature, and types of disease. Elaborate plans were furnished, which, printed in book form, were sent to specialists all over the civilized world for suggestions and improvement.

At that time the main question for city hospitals was the choice between the pavilion system, which admits buildings of two or more stories, permanently constructed (of which the Herbert Hospital in England was instanced as "a good modern type"), and the barrack system of one-story structures, destructible in whole or in part, which had been successfully used in our civil war, but of which no prominent example then existed. With rare good sense, the Trustees expressed the belief that there should be "some general principles of hospital hygiene and of hospital treatment, fixed and immutable," and that their aim was to adopt that system, pavilion, barrack, "or a selection of the good features of each," which would result in a harmonious whole, specially adapted for the advanced educational work contemplated. Both the Trustees and their medical advisers felt that the plan of the hospital must depend upon the nature and degree of its relations to the Medical School of the University, and that its value as a pathological department of a leading educational institution should be the pivot on which both plan and organization must turn. All realized that an opportunity had presented itself to form a medical practice school which, being financially independent, could afford to consult the welfare of students and the advance of knowledge. Thus fortunate in its freedom, it was clear that the Johns Hopkins Medical School should strive for "quality, not quantity; the seal of its diploma should be a guarantee that its possessor is not only a well-educated physician, but that he has learned to think and investigate for himself, and is therefore prepared to undertake, without danger of failure from not knowing how to begin, the study of the many problems still awaiting solution."

Such being the united lay and professional interpretation of Mr. Hopkins's wishes, let us see how the Trustees have carried them out, and whether this hospital can justly claim the title given it by an eminent London surgeon, "the hospital of the century."

The grounds of the hospital, including four entire blocks (about fourteen acres), through which streets have been permanently closed, are one hundred feet above tide-water. The buildings are of brick, with trimmings of dark blue-stone. These include an administration building, apothecary's building, kitchen, laundry, bath-house, nurses' home, male pay ward, female pay ward; an octagon ward, two-storied; three common wards, one story; an isolating ward, with twenty rooms for patients; nurses' rooms, bath-rooms, diet kitchen, etc., amphitheatre, dispensary, and the pathological building. All these are widely separated, and, with the exception of laundry, autopsy buildings, chapel, and greenhouse, are connected by means of covered corridors one story high, while the top of these corridors forms an open terrace walk on a level with the ward floors. One-half the free wards, those on the south side of the central garden, are still to be built, as needed. Every appliance and arrangement that the skill, ingenuity, and experience of modern science in Europe and America can suggest has been availed of in the plan and finish. Intelligent care of the sick, absolute freedom from contagion, convenience for study and research, and facilities for demonstration and instruction are all provided for, so that a combination of advantages for patient, student, and physician is here attained to an extent not possible in other less extensive or less generously endowed institutions. An elaborate system of air and water-pipes, flues, shafts, and valves, with independent coils and cocks for each ward, permit at will ideal conditions of ventilation and temperature. One hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit can rapidly be changed to the temperature of the external air; nay, more, in each ward the air surrounding every pair of beds can be regulated separately to meet the needs of different cases, while foul air can be taken off from the top or the bottom of a ward. The nurses' home has room for sixty women.

Provision is made for thirty resident students in addition to the medical staff. Besides the ordinary hospital ward service, these favored students will have such practice and instruction as comes through a large dispensary and well-equipped pathological laboratories, ample space existing for work in every branch of pathological investigation. When we are told that only about 5 per cent. of the graduates of the eighty medical schools of the United States have "had any opportunities worth speaking of to study and treat disease in the living man," we can understand why those members of the profession who have its honor, as well as the increase of knowledge and the decrease of suffering, at heart, have looked with hopeful and cordial expectation to the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital and the establishment of its Medical School—that school which is to be the link between it and the University, between research and practice, between knowledge and mercy.

"From the time of the first announcement of the Hopkins bequests to the present, scientific men all over the world have been keenly interested in the plans and methods of carrying them out. Whenever and wherever the problems of higher medical education have been discussed within the past ten years, there has been speculation as to the probable course of the Johns Hopkins Medical Department and the influence it would have on the standard. . . . Some of this influence has been even exerted in advance, . . . for the plans of this hospital have stimulated changes in some of our best medical schools, and have been copied . . . in some of our latest hospitals."

To those fortunate students who, "with a sound basis of preliminary education, . . . and with acquirements but little below those for granting the B.A. degree in the University, when they commence," can prove their fitness for admission to its wards and laboratories, the Hopkins Hospital offers lavish opportunities for study in the wide field of medicine. Its opening and the establishment of the Medical School promise an advance all along the line of higher medical education. Its scheme for investigation and practice brings into due relation the many paths that open up to the earnest student and lover of mankind an approach to the true anthropology of the future, "the culmination of finite knowledge." We can vaguely measure the value of the heritage of the intelligent medical student of this generation, under advantages like those of the Hopkins bequest. It is because the men who control it have so far shown due appreciation of its capabilities, opportunities, and responsibilities, that the medical profession has wished it Godspeed.

In the selection of officers, the Trustees are pursuing the same policy which, within the first decade of its existence, gave the work of the University a world-wide reputation. The cosmopolitan character of the few appointments so far made on the hospital staff stamps the national character of the institution. Men and women in the prime of life, they have drawn their past training and experience from the best universities, hospitals, and training-schools for nurses in this country and in Europe, and have willingly left fields of usefulness in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Canada, and London to take earnest part in the building up of this new clinical department of a great medical school that is to be.

BOULANGER IN ABSENTIA.

PARIS, May 2.

"EXIT BOULANGER." The drama which has kept France and Europe attentive for several months, has been interrupted in the most unexpected manner. The hero is gone, is no longer on the stage. This *coup de théâtre* has taken everybody by surprise, and, for a few hours at least, the curtain has fallen.

In order fully to understand this surprise, we must go back to the last election in Paris, which took place on the 27th of January. The Government had opposed Boulanger with all its power, and he was elected by an enormous majority; 250,000 electors had cast their votes for him, and, for every three men you met in the streets, you could safely assert that two had voted for the "General." When the result was proclaimed, Paris seemed mad with joy, and people said to themselves, "There is no Government left (*il n'y a plus de gouvernement*)." I will not now analyze the reasons of the Government's defeat. It is enough to say that at the moment when General Boulanger was daily attacking the Constitution and urging its revision, the then Prime Minister, M. Floquet, wished to force the Chambers to unite in convention, and spoke himself of revising a Constitution which it was his duty to defend. He acted like a fireman who should himself set fire to the house. The absurdity of such a policy was felt even by the Radicals, and, on some trivial question, the Cabinet was upset, and the section of the Republicans which had opposed M. Floquet's revision scheme had to form a new administration. This administration had in reality no programme: its only mission was to destroy Boulanger—"delenda est Carthago." Jules Ferry, who, ever since the Tonkin affair, has been so unpopular that he cannot himself be the head of a Cabinet, has been, in reality, behind the scenes, the inspirer of the new policy: the present Ministers may be considered as his Ministers. Jules Ferry had long ago declared war on General Boulanger, had called him a "Saint-Arnaud de café concert," had opposed his own unpopularity to the General's popularity, had especially turned the sentiment of the Senate against a man whom he represented as a future dictator.

The Senate has many attributions. Some rather vague articles of the constitutional laws give it the right to erect itself into a high court of justice, and to judge the President, the Ministers, and generally all persons who have endangered the security of the State and entered into any plots against the State; when the plot has become an *attentat*—that is to say, when there has been what our law calls a beginning of execution (*commencement d'exécution*), to assume all the rights of a court of law, to make rules for the procedure, the interrogation of witnesses, etc. As it is distinctly said in the constitutional law that the Senate has such rights only in case there has been an *attentat*, the Senate, instead of contenting itself with passing rules for a state trial, made a law which organized its own powers in view of such a trial, and, after this law was voted, it was sent to the Chamber of Deputies, in order to become a complete law. It was passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and it must be well understood that the high court of justice, with all its machinery of procedure, all its definitions of competency, everything, in fact, that constitutes its mode of action and its power, is acting in accordance not with any interior or traditional rules of the Senate, but with a law hastily passed for the special case which is now in view.

It is not the first time that our High Chamber has sat as a court of justice: the Peers of the Restoration judged Marshal Ney, but Marshal Ney had clearly committed an *attentat*, he was guilty of high treason. Sent against Napoleon, who was returning from Elba, he joined Napoleon, though he had promised Louis XVIII. to bring him back as his prisoner. The Peers of 1830 had to pass judgment on the Ministers of Charles X.; but these Ministers had signed the famous *ordonnances*, which were a violation of the *Charte*—they had not only plotted such a violation, they had accomplished it. I might cite other state trials under Louis Philippe, under the Republic of 1848, under the Second Empire; all these trials were always determined by positive deeds, by crimes, by open acts of rebellion. The last occasion was the death of the journalist Victor Noir, who was shot by Prince Charles Bonaparte, towards the end of the Second Empire.

In the present instance, it is difficult to understand why the Senate has been constituted as a high court of justice. There is nothing in what we know which can justify the convocation of an exceptional tribunal. We have a complete arsenal of laws, which seem quite sufficient in case M. Boulanger or his friends have done anything in view of corrupting the army, or the public functionaries, or the police. As for their attacks on the present members of the Government, or the Chamber, or their open desire to revise the Constitution, we see nothing illegal in them. The country has been covered with cheap pictures of Gen. Boulanger, but every Frenchman has a right to send his photograph or his picture to the seven millions of French electors. Paulus, the café-concert singer, has popularized the name of Gen. Boulanger, in singing "En revenant de la revue," and "C'est Boulange, Boulange, lange, c'est Boulange qu'il nous faut," but Paulus has also sung songs on Gambetta; he may tomorrow give us another political lesson in music. When M. Thévenet, a Lyons lawyer, who has become Minister of Justice in the present Cabinet, sent for M. Bouchez, the Procureur-Général, and asked him to sign a report which was to be addressed to the Chamber of Deputies, in order that Boulanger might be arrested, M. Bouchez asked, not unnaturally, to see the documents which had formed the basis of this report. The documents, M. Thévenet said, were kept in a room in the palace of the Minister of Justice; the keys of the room could not be found; M. Bouchez was pressed to sign, and he preferred to resign. A successor was found for him in the person of a M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire (who has written some novels under the name of Glouvet). It was during this interim that Boulanger was advised that the Minister of Justice would ask the Chamber for permission to arrest him; and, before the warrant could be issued, he had just time to leave Paris and to flee to Brussels.

Nothing can equal the astonishment produced by this flight. Paris is only five hours distant from Brussels, and for days there was an incessant exodus of visitors to Brussels. The tranquil little city was becoming the centre of a political agitation, and Boulanger, feeling that he was becoming embarrassing to the Belgians, who are a neutral nation, and obliged by their neutrality to be on their guard on all sides, chose to go to England freely, so as not to be obliged to go unwillingly a few weeks afterwards. What will be the effect of his absence? We have many proverbs which answer this question: "Les absens ont toujours tort," "Loin des yeux, loin du cœur," etc. I have from the beginning felt that the flight of General Boulanger would greatly hurt his cause. If he had taken hold of the popular imagination, it was in great part because he was a soldier, a young general. His biographies, spread over the country by millions, represented him as a dashing soldier, on his black charger on the battle-field, on a barricade, always in a heroic attitude. He was the new Bonaparte, Bonaparte on the bridge of Arcole. He was destined by Providence to rid the country of the swarm of lawyers, of *avocats*, of politicians, to chase the money-changers from the temple, to give us a strong, authoritative, energetic Government. The idol of the popular mind has lost something of its prestige.

In vain does Boulanger say, to explain his flight, that he was and is still ready to appear before his natural judges—before the judges of the correctional courts, or before the jury of the Court of Assizes; that he only refuses to appear before the Senate, as the Senate is composed of his political enemies. When you play for such high stakes as the government of a great country, something must be risked; and I cannot help thinking that, in his own interest, M. Boulanger would have done better to allow his enemies to imprison him, and to make him stand a solemn trial before the Senate. If there

is nothing in the evidence which will be brought against him to prove that he attempted to change the government by violent means; if he had been face to face with his accusers, and had been able to show and to prove to them that he had done unto them what they had done unto other governments or administrations, the Senate, even as it is now composed, would have found it very difficult to convict him. And if he had been unjustly convicted, there would have been a great popular reaction in his favor.

"L'absence est le plus grand des maux." The public mind is always timid; the popular imagination which was a few months ago surrounding the image of Gen. Boulanger with ideas of courage, of heroism, surrounds it now with mysterious ideas of treason, of corruption. "Where does the money come from?" You hear this question on all lips. People are beginning to inquire into the budget of Gen. Boulanger: how can he lead the life he leads, and keep in exile a sort of court? Who pays for the papers, the pamphlets, the portraits? Some will tell you that certain rich Americans are giving themselves the amusement of paying for a revolution in France. Others make dark hints, speak of secret funds, of fortunes made by unfair means. The legend is attacked in its very origin.

At the present moment it looks as if the popularity of Boulanger were waning. Many people are not a little ashamed of having expected so much of him. The great majority look for a distraction. The Eiffel Tower, the Exhibition, the centenary of 1789, console many for the loss of their idol. You feel in the country a general sentiment of uneasiness, of vexation; it is like a spoiled child who has been robbed of a favorite doll. As for the future, nobody thinks of it; it is all darkness. The various parties had been disorganized by Boulangism, they have not yet been reorganized. If there were general elections to-morrow, the electoral world would be a perfect chaos, without any centres of crystallization.

MR. FROUDE'S NOVEL.

DUBLIN, April 27, 1889.

THE title of romance is hardly applicable to Mr. Froude's new book, 'Two Chiefs of Dunboy, an Irish Romance of the Last Century.' It does not contain a suggestion of "love," much less love passages or any interesting position as between man and woman, except, perhaps, the hero's midnight return over the mountains under the guidance of a peasant girl. There is no story. Yet the book is readable. There are brilliant descriptions which will hold their place in the memory. The conversations are heavy and unnatural. Kerry peasants and settlers of a time when in fact little but Irish was spoken in Munster, speak among themselves, and address to each other in what might be thrilling situations, essays conceived in the spirit of the present day; and where we have the vernacular, it is too much the stage Irish vernacular of the music-halls.* The work is, in truth, not a romance; it is a political essay—'The English in Ireland in the Nineteenth Century' recast and somewhat modified for present electioneering purposes. It will, on the whole, hardly add to the prestige of Mr. Froude as an author. It shows all his faults as a partisan exaggerated. The canvas is too small, we may say the object of the book (the belittling of a people) is too hateful, to allow full play for his genius. It may provide ready to hand a few more arrowheads for the quivers of Liberal-Unionist orators; it certainly will not attract the Irish towards Liberal-Unionist rule or the rule of the professors.

The scene is laid between Nantes and Kerry in the middle of the last century. The narrative has to do with the fortunes of a settlement of Puritans, in Kerry, under the guidance of a noble-hearted Col. Goring, doubtless suggested by Col. Gordon. There is a vivid picture of the smuggling of goods and men carried on with France consequent upon the insane commercial code of the period and the repressive measures to which the Catholics were subjected. Morty Sullivan is the hero on the Franco-Irish side—a man with all the supposed faults of the Irish nature and all its supposed virtues—a man whose character evidently bettered with the author as he proceeded. We have an ideal and in the main natural Irish exile of the period, Patrick Blake of Nantes, who has become rich by the smuggling trade with Ireland; whose hopes for his country's relief from oppression are ever green; who is always ready to spend and be spent in the cause. The description of his stores and residence on the Loire will long rest in the memory of the reader, as will that of Col. Goring's rose and fuchsia-covered cottage over Dunboy harbor—an anachronism, by the by, as fuchsias were a much later importation into this country.

As for the Irish in general, Celts or Saxons, they are a lost people, whether in the wilds of Kerry or amidst the quasi-civilization of Dublin. Indeed, on the whole, the real natives are described as less repulsive than the degenerate descendants of the planters of Cromwell and William III.

"The Irish are only dangerous to those that are afraid of them" (p. 259).

"You know enough of the people of Ireland to be aware that the last thing you can get from any of them is the truth" (p. 269).

"The Irish make good soldiers, sir," answered Goring, "and no man can be a good soldier who has not fine qualities in him of some kind. Certain races are like the nobler kind of dogs. Train a dog and rule him, and he becomes brave, loyal, faithful, affectionate, and wise. Give him liberty, and he grows into a mangy cur or a ferocious wolf" (p. 287).

"The Irish race have been always noisy, useless, and ineffectual. They have produced nothing, they have done nothing, which it is possible to admire. What they are they have always been, and the only hope for them is that their ridiculous Irish nationality should be buried and forgotten" (p. 350).

"None are braver than we when cows' tails are to be cut off or the enemies of the country shot from a hiding-place" (p. 370).

"If you can believe those glorious ballad singers and annalists of ours, we were no better than cannibals of the Pacific" (p. 371)—another of the many anachronisms which appear to me to pervade the book. The Pacific was little in the minds of even educated people until after Cooke's discoveries, some twenty years later than the date at which the narrative is laid.

"I don't want children of mine to grow up ignorant heathen, or Papists, which is worse" (p. 336).

The impression given of the fiendish barbarity of the Irish people; the abandoned frivolity of the upper classes; the general drunken confusion of society; the absence of all order, is in nowise justified by contemporary travellers and writers. Things were bad enough, and evils were natural and inevitable in the system under which the country groaned. The picture Mr. Froude draws of Ireland at that time is about as fair as one would be of England at the same period based upon the Newgate Calendar, the then undoubted venality of political life, and Hogarth's illustrations. Seeing that, according to the author, the Anglo-Irish were as bad as the Irish themselves, we are left somewhat at a loss as to his remedy for the state of things delineated in this book, which is evidently meant to apply to Ireland as it now is. His only hope seems to lie in a new Cromwell and a fresh plantation of Ireland every generation. Mr. Balfour is perhaps about as near as possible to the author's ideal, considering the sickly prejudices of the nineteenth century.

"God help Ireland, then," said the Colonel sorrowfully. "God help us and send us another Oliver" (p. 292).

"When Ireland was conquered by Cromwell, and the Irish people, like the Canaanites, had forfeited their estates by their cruelty and wickedness, the land was distributed amongst the soldiers of his army. There were those who thought it ought to be apportioned by merit. But the noblest and best preferred to leave the choice to Providence, and declared they would rather receive by lot from the Lord a patch of barren mountain than the finest soil in Ireland by the judgment of man. What those saintly men said to Cromwell, I must say to you" (p. 323).

The proofs of those men being so saintly as depicted in the subsequent history of the country since it was parcelled out among them, are not so evident. The fault doubtless was that any of the accursed Irish race was left; the desirability of their total extermination is more than hinted in one passage.

Some of the descriptions of scenery are charming. "Beautiful it was as ever; the quiet islands of the Kenmare River, dark and solid, and the far-off Skelligs rising blue on the horizon, as if shaped out of transparent mist"—this and many other passages show that Mr. Froude well knows the scenes he delineates. Probably by yachting and boating he became familiar with the coast. The interest of the book would have been enhanced by the addition of a map of Kerry. We have read few more spirited descriptions of a sea-chase and fight than that between the *Æolus* and *Doutelle*, and, seeing that the Irish privateer had the best of it in the end, the passage may yet find a place in Irish reading-books.

The volume has many and weighty admissions on the Irish side of the question:

"They [the Irish] would bear from their natural leaders what they would not bear from us; and if we have not made their lot more wretched, we have not made it any better. There is not a race in the world who would not be happier or more loyal if they were governed by a firm and just hand" (p. 80).

"The mountains bear our names, our hearts are in our glens and among our own kinsfolk, and we wish for no better. Here we have lived; here, if it please your Honor and his Lordship, we would like to remain undisturbed, and if ye will just lave us alone it is all that we will desire of ye" (p. 127).

"Each people in this world likes its own ways, and little is the good that comes from forcing them" (p. 129).

"The sun never shone upon a land more beautiful than Ireland as nature made it. It had possibilities of unbounded fertility, if human industry and human sense would do as much for it as had been done for the most neglected corner in any other country in Europe. The people were passionate and emotional, capable of devotion and self-sacrifice, loyal and affectionate to any one who would lead them and care for them. But the soil was a desert, and some subtle poison had corrupted the character of a race. . . . What did it all mean? Why, after 600 years of Saxon rule, did the Irish race remain essentially unchanged? If England was not guilty of their disorders, she had not found the spell that would cure them" (p. 156).

"The Irish, lawless though they be, feel as much horror as other people at the baser forms of crime" (p. 170).

"'I can never forget this night,' he [Col. Goring] said. 'I have heard others say that the faults of the Irish are the faults of a noble

*Mr. Froude falls into the common error of making our people mispronounce *ie* and *ee*—*prâst* for *priest*, etc.—which they seldom or never do. When the mass of the population learned English, *ea* was pronounced â (as in hay) by educated people—and this they still very generally, in some parts of the country, adhere to—*say* for *sea*, *baste* for *beast*, *tay* for *tea*. Inaccurate observers then naturally think it all right to give *prâst* for *priest*, *same* for *seem*, etc.

nature which has been wrenched out of its proper shape. I believe it now; for in no race in this world could I have found man or woman who would have risked what you have risked to save one whom you have been told to look on as the enemy of your country'" (p. 175).

At pages 293 and elsewhere is eloquently set forth the case of the destruction of Irish industries for the supposed benefit of English traders:

"When the actions of men are measured in the eternal scale, and the sins of those who had undertaken to rule Ireland and had not ruled it are seen in the full blossom of their consequences, the guilt of Morty, the guilt of many another desperate patriot in that ill-fated country, may be found to bear most heavily on those English statesmen whose reckless negligence was the true cause of their crime" (p. 455).

Mr. Froude's novel is meant to illustrate an episode in the struggle between what he considered English civilization and Irish barbarism. It bears the motto, "Under which King, Bezonian? Speak or die." Irish barbarism has, according to our author, obtained the mastery. Force is the only remedy.

I turned from the perusal of this book to attend a great meeting in Birmingham, where some 5,000 of the English people expressed their determination to pursue a policy of justice—of throwing the responsibility of government upon the Irish people themselves. I felt the heart of that great nation beating with hopeful trust in us. I moved among the best of English men and women who had devoted themselves to the Irish cause. Thoughts of true union flooded my own being and marked the faces and demeanor of other Irishmen there (rebels to a rule such as we have had in the past, and such as endures under the present administration); and I had no difficulty, when I had returned to the perusal of this volume, in answering the question, "Under which king?"—under which policy is the settlement of Ireland to be effected: coercion or conciliation; that advocated by Froude, or that of Gladstone? D. B.

Correspondence.

ANOTHER VIEW OF ARIZONA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 4th inst. is an article, dated March 15 and signed "W. G. B.," which does great injustice to Arizona, her climate, resources, and people. I am certain the writer knows little of the vast and varied resources of this Territory or its capacity for Statehood, and still less of the desires of her people on the subject. The Legislature which recently adjourned provided for the election of delegates to a constitutional convention to be held in this city in January next, and in doing so obeyed the wishes of nine-tenths of their constituents who are anxious to see Arizona admitted to the Union. "W. G. B." misrepresents popular sentiment when he affirms that "the proposal for Statehood falls rather flat, except with a few elderly politicians who feel that they are fitted to adorn the Senate Chamber of Congress without further delay." The great majority of us feel that we have outgrown Territorial nonage, are able to manage our own affairs in our own way, and are therefore ready to assume the duties and responsibilities of Statehood.

With an extreme length of 378 miles and a width of 339 miles, an area of 113,929 square miles, a magnificent patrimony of 72,915,560 acres, a soil capable of producing every variety of fruit, vegetable, and cereal known to the temperate zone; mines of coal, copper, iron, gold and silver, inexhaustible in extent; lakes of salt, springs of petroleum, and forests of pine, cedar, spruce, juniper, ash, and oak of as great extent as in any State or Territory; with a population of about 100,000, rapidly increasing—why should not Arizona say to Congress, We are ready and willing to receive the jewels of State sovereignty?

Arizona has a taxable property, as officially stated by Governor Zulick in his official report to the Secretary of the Interior, of $75,000,000. She has 20,000 square miles of lumber forests; she has in her mountains, parks, and plateaus, where the rainfall is from twenty to thirty-five inches per annum, twenty millions of acres of land, whose enormous crops of wheat, oats, and root vegetables can be grown without irrigation. The completed canals and those under construction will reclaim two millions of acres of land, every twenty acres of which will support a family. The amount of land which can be reclaimed under a thorough system of irrigation, by impounding the storm-flood water and reserving it for times of want, cannot be definitely ascertained until the United States Geological Survey has concluded its labors, but that it will be very large goes without saying, for in many localities, as in the Little Colorado Valley, where the rainfall is from twelve to fifteen inches and the mountains surrounding furnish natural basins for the storage of water, it is an inexpensive task to store all that is required for the one or two irrigations necessary to raise a crop.

Lieutenant Wheeler, in one of his reports of exploration in Arizona, institutes a comparison between that portion of this Territory between meridians 111 and 113° 45′ and parallels of latitude 34° and 35° 45′, by no means the best arable portion, and the eastern portion of southern California and southern Nevada in the same latitude.

	California and Nevada Per Cent.	Arizona Per Cent.
Agricultural, irrigable, and arable land.	2	25
Timber	6	10
Grazing	88	30
Barren	4	35

It is quite certain that the body of agricultural land irrigable and arable will make 25 per cent. of the whole, the timber lands 20 per cent., the grazing lands 35 per cent., the barren lands not more than 20 per cent.; and the so-called barren lands are well grassed, and have many mines rich in mineral, gold, silver, and copper, that will be worked to a profit when railroads give cheap transportation on products and supplies.

"W. G. B." quotes approvingly from a recent article in the *Political Science Quarterly* as follows, to the effect that "the only occupations possible on any extended scale are mining and grazing, both of which tend to produce a system of manners and morals, personal and political, entirely unlike those of agricultural communities." Had he been familiar with the history of California, he would have known that in the early days it was affirmed that she could never grow wheat for home consumption; that up to fifteen years ago the central portion of the State, where now are the magnificent vineyards of Fresno County, the fields of grain and alfalfa that have advanced the lands of Kern and Tulare Counties from two dollars to fifty dollars per acre, was declared to be worthless except for sheep. Up to ten years ago the great possibilities of southern California were unknown and unrecognized. Orchard lands, unimproved, which with water rights now command from $200 to $500 per acre, could then have been purchased at from $5 to $15 per acre. The physical features of central and southern Arizona are the same as those of southern California. The Santa Cruz, San Pedro, Salt, and Gila Rivers, which drain this section, afford an abundance of water for irrigation. The soil, an alluvial deposit varying in depth from six to twenty feet, made up from the detritus of the surrounding mountains through the wash of ages, has a vigor of production unsurpassed in the temperate zone. Combining the fertility of pure alluvium with the warmth of tropical sand, it reaches the acme of fecundity. The Pima and Maricopa Indians, whose reservations are in the Salt and Gila valleys, have for centuries cultivated the same lands without change of seed or exhaustion of the soil, producing, after their crude system of agriculture, better average crops than are grown in any of the wheat-growing States east of the Mississippi River.

"No one," says Orange Judd of the *Prairie Farmer*, "will waste any sympathy upon farmers compelled to irrigate their lands in California, in Colorado, in New Mexico, or Arizona, providing they have fertile soil, a genial climate, and enough of ready available water for irrigation." Doctors disagree. "W. G. B.," speaking of Arizona farmers, says: "They work the farms with their own hands, struggle helplessly with the great railroads over rates, and in too many instances wear away an unhappy life under the money-loaners' 2 per cent. per month." In no country is farming more profitable than in Arizona. The ruling rate of interest on real-estate securities is 12 per cent. per annum. In the valleys of the Salt and Gila, where there are reclaimed more than 500,000 acres, which the canals now under construction will treble, there has never been a farm sold under foreclosure; the same is true in a general sense of farms and farmers in Verde, Williamson, Little Colorado, and other valleys in northern Arizona. There is no place where a man upon a lesser acreage can support a family and accumulate a store for old age than in central and southern Arizona. Wheat yields from twenty to twenty-five bushels per acre, barley thirty, alfalfa from six to eight tons. Raisin grapes give a greater return than in any portion of the known world: the vines at six years give eight tons per acre of grapes, which, on account of the great amount of saccharine matter and the facilities for curing (no artificial heat being required), yield 35 per cent. raisins. All citric and deciduous fruits ripen here three weeks earlier than in the most favored localities of California. In a country where alfalfa gives a net profit of $25 per acre annually, as is the custom in all parts of Arizona, and where the orchardist sells his crop on the trees or vines at from $100 to $200 per acre, it is idle to waste sympathy upon the farmer.

The settlement of Arizona has been retarded by Indian outbreaks; for thirty years after it passed under the American flag there was a struggle between civilization and barbarism, and all of us mourn the loss of friends and kindred, the best and truest of our race, whose lives were sacrificed in the long and deadly struggle. With the removal of the Chiricahua and Warm Springs tribes to Florida, peace was insured to the Territory, and her advance has been most rapid. Capital and labor are

combining to develop all our latent resources. The Walnut Grove storage reservoir, built at a cost of nearly a half-million dollars, in Yavapai County, it is claimed, will add 100,000 acres to the cultivable area of that locality. A like company is being organized in Pinal County, calculated to reclaim 1,000,000 acres, one in this, Maricopa, to serve 250,000 acres, besides smaller enterprises in other localities.

It is a fact, demonstrated by scientific investigation, that Arizona at one time was most densely populated. In the Salt River valley, according to Professor Cushing, there was a population of 300,000 souls; in the valleys of the Santa Cruz, the Pueblo Viejo, and along the Gila for several hundred miles, are found traces of old water-ways, the ruins of dwellings, the tools and farming utensils of the husbandmen of long ago, who supported themselves by agricultural and horticultural pursuits. If this land, seven or eight centuries ago, as archæologists claim, under the rude processes of cultivation known at that time, supported a dense and prosperous population, why, under modern conditions, can it not be done again? It is true that the cultivation of the soil by the artificial application of water is somewhat new to the Eastern farmer, as are also the crops; but with water to use in quantities great or small as his crops require, he has no concern about failure, and an abundant harvest is always secured. Oranges, lemons, olives, raisin-grapes, and kindred products are also a new thing to him as to "W. G. B.," but it is a most profitable investment for labor and money, and one that can be at all times relied upon to yield a profit of at least $150 per acre when the trees and vines are in full bearing.

What Arizona needs is more railroads. Had it not been for the restrictive legislation of the Forty-ninth Congress in limiting Territorial indebtedness to 4 per cent. of the taxable property, there now would have been a road from Prescott to Phœnix, which would have opened up a large agricultural, mining, and farming country; the road from Flagstaff would have been built through Globe into the Gila and Salt River valleys, which would have opened the great forests of the Mogollon, the coal fields of Gila County, besides making available a large body of rich arable land, where wheat, oats, and root vegetables can be grown without irrigation. At present neither Territory, county, nor city can lend its credit to works of internal improvement. The Harrison act of 1886 blocks the road. Congress says practically to Arizona, We will not help you to reclaim your desert lands, build railroads, nor develop the sources of wealth Nature has placed at your door; and *you shall not do it.*

"W. G. B." says: "As to the direct effect of climate, there has not been time to test it. Few men have been here as long as twenty years, and the most thriving towns of the south are scarcely ten years old." Of the population of Arizona there is as large a proportion who have dwelt here for twenty years as in any Territory. The principal southern towns are Tucson and Phœnix, each with a population of about 7,000. Tucson, next to San Augustine, is the oldest town in the United States; Phœnix was located in 1869; Florence in Pinal County is sixteen years old, Yuma (Yuma County) thirty years old, Tombstone (Cochise County) eleven years old. The climate has not been tested? Write any reputable physician what he thinks of it; he will tell you that there is no malaria, that the winds which in Southern Arizona rob the day of oppressive heat, pass from the Gulf of California over several hundred miles of desert which acts as a desiccant, leaving the atmosphere dry to the last degree, and that in consequence it is the sanitarium of those afflicted with lung troubles.

The warmest weather I have ever felt was in New York when the thermometer stood at 100°. In Arizona we have a variety of climate equal to the Empire State. Around Prescott and Flagstaff, and in other localities of from 4,500 to 6,000 feet altitude, the days in summer are pleasant, the nights cool, always requiring one or two pairs of blankets for comfortable sleeping. In the lower valleys it is warm from June 15 to September 15. During this time the thermometer will range at midday from 105° to 112°, about the same as at Hanford and Bakersfield, California; but, strange to say, there is no fever, and men in the harvest field do full days' work without exhaustion or sunstrokes. Lieut. W. A. Glassford, United States Signal Corps, in referring to the heat in our southern section, says:

"It is recorded as extreme, yet no one suffers, and sunstrokes are unknown. This is usually accounted for from the purity and dryness of the air. Both are true; but the dryness is perhaps the correct reason. . . . The ordinary exposed thermometer gives the shade, the wet bulb the sensible temperature. The difference is illustrated by wetting one hand and exposing both to the atmosphere. One is dry and feverish, the other moist and fresh. I have calculated the difference between the shade and sensible temperature at Yuma during the heated hour of the day and it is about 30°. At New York or Washington it is only a few degrees, and is often identical. The highest shade temperature ever recorded at Yuma is 118°. When the heat is at this point the sensible temperature is about 88°. The shade temperature at New York being 105°, the sensible temperature is certainly near 100°. The difference between the mean shade and the mean sensible temperature for July is over 17° at Yuma. These considerations of the sensible and shade temperature will account for the absence of any detrimental effects from the extreme heat of Arizona."

As to the morals of the people of Arizona, we compare favorably with any American community. Men are as true to their families and our officials as faithful to their trust here as elsewhere. In no city or town are private dwellings locked and barred at night; burglaries are rarely known. That "Nevada, Utah, and Montana are Northern States" gives them no advantage over Arizona, which has in natural wealth resources equal if not superior to either of them. We have wealth and population sufficient to take care of ourselves; and as a Territorial government was never intended to be more than temporary, we feel that Congress should not longer deprive us of a voice in the Government we are taxed to support.

T. E. Farish.

Phoenix, April 26, 1889.

"LABOR" AND PRISON LABOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* very justly denounces the folly exhibited in the management of some of the prisons in our country; *i. e.*, in that the convicts are kept in idleness. It also seems inclined to blame organized labor for such condition. Now, as President of the Federated Trades here, and as one who has sat in the councils of labor unions in several States, I claim to know something of what workingmen desire in relation to this matter.

In brief it is this: They want all contractors driven out of penal institutions. They want the State-account system introduced. They want the business confined to one or two industries.

There you have it in concise form, and I fail to see any injustice or folly in the demands. The trouble is, that the workingmen are fooled out of their promised legislation through the influence of those who profit by the contract system. They elect men who promise to abolish contracts, and then the contractors get in their work by compelling the people to support the convicts in idleness, thus making the legislation so odious that the people gladly rush back to the contract system in order to be rid of the undue burden of supporting the convict in idleness. If the plan were carried out in full, it would be beneficial all around. We can always tell closely how many convicts there will be in a State for a year to come. Thus we know how much raw material to purchase and how much of the finished product will be placed on the market at a certain date. It introduces order into the present anarchy of convict-labor management, and can be made to pay, too, if it's pay we are looking for.

Eugene Hough.

Oakland, Cal., April 29, 1889.

LOCAL AND STATE ASPECTS OF PROHIBITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of May 2, after referring to the decrease of crime in Iowa under prohibition, you speak of a combination of local option and high license as if it would surely bring to the State all the good results, at least, of prohibition. Now the decrease in crime which has been noted, if it is in any way the result of prohibition, must occur wholly in the rural districts, for the free whiskey which prohibition gives the cities must certainly work in the other direction. Do we, then, get the same results from local option as from State prohibition, in the country and smaller towns?

At first glance it certainly would seem as if local option ought to give the country the benefits of prohibition while avoiding its evil effects in the cities. But this is not the case. All through this State, for instance, are communities which would give majorities for prohibition on a State vote, but in which local interests and friendships make it impossible to obtain the passage of local anti-license laws; and when, in addition, one considers the communities without a prohibition majority, but with near enough to one to enable a State law to be fairly well enforced, it is evident that, for the State at large, the two systems produce very different results.

As a believer in high license and local option, I mention this consideration because it should be taken into account in a fair judgment on the Prohibitionists' claims. H. G.

Omaha, Neb., May 5, 1889.

A GOOD AND GREAT MAN'S OPTIMISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In cheering contrast to the gloomy utterances of Bishops Potter and Huntington and to your somewhat pessimistic article on "A Century of Democracy," in the *Nation* for May 2, I notice the glowing statement of the Hon. John D. Long in your truly pious contemporary, the *Independent* for April 25. Mr. Long contributes a short article on "Washington, the Good and Great Man," in which he makes the following assertion, which certainly shows a sublimely optimistic faith in "progress": "*Men were not so good or so great in his [Washington's] day as in ours;* and yet Washington is preëminently the good and great man, and nothing describes him better than that simple phrase." (The italics are mine.)

Whether these better and greater men are common to the whole country, or whether they are limited to some particularly favored section—for example, Massachusetts—is not indi-

cated by the learned writer. It is comforting to be thus assured that our national development has not been merely a material one, but has, in spite of what may seem to be indications to the contrary, been equally a moral and intellectual progress. P. W. A.

A PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an exceedingly interesting review of Ball's 'History of Mathematics,' the reviewer says (*Nation*, No. 1242, p. 330) that the question, "If the third of six be three, what will the fourth of twenty be?" is a simple problem, and that the answer is 7½.

On the contrary, the question is, as Ball calls it, absurd. The only proper answer is, that the fourth of 20 will remain 5, whatever ridiculous suppositions you make about the third of 6.

And if it be said that we must perform the same operation on 20 : 4 that we have performed on 6 : 3, we have not removed the difficulty, because 6 : 3 can be made to assume the value 3 in a variety of ways. The reviewer assumes that we either multiply the 6 by three halves, or the 3 by two thirds; and either of those operations applied to 20 : 4 gives us 7½. But 6 : 3 becomes equal to 3 when we add 3 to the 6. Add 3 to the 20 gives 23 : 4, equals 5¾. Or subtract 1 from the 3 gives 6 : 2=3; subtract 1 from 4 gives 20 : 3=6⅔. Or multiply the 6 by 4½ gives 27 : 3, = 9, the square root of which is 3. Multiply 20 by 4½ gives 90 : 4= 22.5, the square root of which is 4.743. There is no reason why 4.743, or 6.667, or 5.75, or either of forty other numbers, is not as good an answer as 7.5, the reviewer's answer.

Thomas Hill.

[Whether, in any given case, it is worth while to make an absurd supposition or not, is a question depending upon circumstances. What follows, according to the legitimate principles of logical reasoning from a given supposition, is always a proper question, with the propriety of which the absurdity or foolishness or insanity of the supposition has nothing to do. Stated formally, the hypothetical proposition, "If A is B, then C is D" may be perfectly true, although the supposition that A is B may be ridiculous, foolish, insane, absurd, or worthy of any other epithet you may choose to apply to it. Dr. Hill says "the fourth of 20 will remain 5, whatever ridiculous suppositions you make about the third of 6." Undoubtedly; but so will the third of 6 remain 2, whatever ridiculous suppositions you make with regard to it. Dr. Hill entirely mistakes the logical meaning of the question, and falls into the very trap which the old arithmeticians set for him.

Stated more fully and clearly, the question is this: If we absurdly suppose that the third of 6 is 3, what is the proportionate absurdity we must make in regard to the fourth of 20? The proper solution of the problem, stated in the form of the "rule of three," is as follows· As 2, the true third of 6, is to 3, the absurdly supposed third, so is 5, the true fourth of 20, to x. Taking the product of the extremes, $2x$, and equating it to the product of the means, 15, we have the equation $2x=15$, or $x=7\frac{1}{2}$, the proper answer. By reasoning wholly analogous, the answer to Tartaglia's question can be shown to be 15, as the reviewer stated.

The rest of Dr. Hill's letter seems to us wholly irrelevant, and to require no remark. —Ed. Nation.]

TAPSALTEERIE AND *TOPSYTURVY*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "A. I.," in No. 1240 of your journal, calls attention to the poet Burns's *tapsalteerie*, "a word on which," as he humorously remarks, "the Scottish dictionaries throw a good deal of darkness." The passage he quotes for it, with two others in which Burns has the expression, are also adduced in a letter I have received from "A. A. T." of Washington City. At the time I discussed *topsyturvy*, none of those passages was present to my memory, nor had I access to the etymological vagaries of the Scotch lexicographer, Dr. Jamieson.

The editor of the great 'English Dictionary' now in course of publication, Dr. Murray, on my consulting him with reference to *tapsalteerie*, has obligingly sent me some notes, the substance of which it seems desirable that I should communicate.

In his native county, Roxburghshire, for one district of Scotland, *topsieteerie* is a term well known, while *tapsieteerie* is current in other parts of the country. These he regards as merely dialectal forms of *topsyturvy*. His mention of *tapsieteerie* is an addition to our previous knowledge; and Burns's *tapsalteerie*, he says, is generally considered as a whimsical substitute for it, on the assumption that *taps*, "tops," and *al*, "all," were among its original elements. The terminal *teerie*, he surmises, may have been corrupted, through *turrie*, from *turvy*, by dropping *v* after *r*, as in *ser*, for *serve*.

It does not appear to have been shown that Scotch literature, between 1623, when Lithgow used *topsoltiria*, and the days of Burns, with his *tapsalteerie*, reveals any variant of *topsyturvy* containing the syllable *ol* or *al*. That a historical connexion between the two forms may be discovered is possible. It is possible, too, as I have already suggested, that typographical error was responsible for more or less of *topsoltiria*, which, had I known of *tapsalteerie*, I should not have proposed, as I did, to trace, in part, to the Italian *sotterra*.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 20, 1889.

FROM RUSSIAN INTO FRENCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There seems to be an impression prevalent that the French translations from the Russian are more trustworthy, and better represent the originals, than those made into English directly from the Russian. The French translations that I have examined are illustrative of one great theory of "the art," namely, that a translation should reproduce not the style but the general content of the original, as opposed to the counter theory that the form and style should be reproduced as faithfully as possible. In translating Count Tolstoi's works, for instance, the latter theory leads necessarily to a certain baldness. The Russian author says *on pashól*, "he went (off)"; the Frenchman translates it or expands it into "Après avoir exhalé sa colère, il s'en fut chez lui"—which is picturesque, but does not represent the original. That is a very characteristic mode of treatment. But in the case of an author like Count Tolstoi it seems to me due his greatness to reproduce him in all his rugged strength, even with his invented words and his favorite polyglot.

A more serious case of the French gratuitousness in dealing with Count Tolstoi is to be found in M. Michel Délines's 'La Physiologie de la Guerre' (known in English as 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign'). This example is as follows:

"Ils partaient sans se rendre compte de ce qu'il y avait de grandiose dans le spectacle de cette vaste et riche capitale abandonnée par ses habitants, et livrée ainsi en victime aux flammes, car une grande ville construite en bois et désertée par ses habitants était fatalement destinée à brûler."

The original, literally translated, is this:

"They [*zhíteli*, the inhabitants] drove away, and thought not of the majestic significance of this vast, rich capital, abandoned by its inhabitants and evidently to be burned (not to plunder, nor to set fire to empty houses, is not in the nature [soul] of the Russian people)."

That the vast rich capital was *constructed of wood*, and that it was destined by fate to be burned because it was abandoned by its inhabitants, is an example of the Frenchman gilding gold. That my criticism may be free from all appearance of disingenuousness, I will add, however, that the idea conveyed by or into the sentence quoted from M. Délines's translation is found later on in chapter vii of the same work ('War and Peace,' vol. iii, part 3, chapter xxvi, *ad finem*), where it is declared that "a city built of wood" (*derevyánnui górod*) and occupied by an enemy careless of fire could not help burning. But Count Tolstoi delights in paradox, and there is no reason why a translator should try to reconcile apparent or actual contradictions.—I am, etc.,

Nathan Haskell Dole.

Hedgecote, Jamaica Plain, April 29, 1889.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'The Ice Age of North America, and its Bearings on the Antiquity of Man,' by Prof. G. Frederick Wright, with ample photographic illustrations; 'Days Out of Doors,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott; 'In the Wire Grass,' a novel by Louis Pendleton, and 'Luce,' a romance by Paul Lindau.

J. B. Lippincott Co. issue directly the first volume of the 'Cyclopædia of the Diseases of Children,' edited by Dr. John M. Keating, and 'Laramie; or, the Queen of Bedlam,' by Capt. Charles King.

The Long Island Historical Society will soon print, for subscribers, about one hundred and fifty unpublished letters of Washington, from its manuscript collections, in a large and handsome octavo volume, entitled 'George Washington and Mount Vernon.' It will contain a portrait of Washington, not heretofore engraved, from an original painting by Charles Peale (1787), owned by the Rev. Mason Gallagher of Brooklyn; also a portrait of Betty Lewis, Washington's only sister. The historical introduction and annotations will be prepared by Mr. Moncure Daniel Conway, biographer of Edmund Randolph. The collection is said to possess uncommon interest, abounding in curious and characteristic personal details, and conveying a very realistic conception of Washington as a master, a neighbor, a husbandman—a man concerned with minutest details of private affairs at a period (1793-1799) when his public action affected the interests of the world.

The Palestine Exploration Society announces that Mr. Guy le Strange's work on 'Palestine according to the Arabic Geographers' is completed in manuscript, and will be published in the autumn.

We duly announced the appearance of the enlarged edition of Prof. Villari's classical work on the life and times of Savonarola, and we have now the pleasure of recording its appearance in an English dress at the hands of Signora Villari (Scribner & Welford). The book is too generally known as the most complete and satisfactory account of the Florentine prophet, and of the exceedingly complex conditions which gave occasion to his extraordinary career and caused his martyrdom, to require more than the statement that it is now accessible to English readers in a faithful and fluent version. Necessarily the appendices of documents which gave to the original edition an especial value for students, are absent, but the volumes are enriched with a new preface, dated February 10, 1889, in which the author defends himself temperately and forcibly from some recent criticisms on the view which he has taken of Savonarola's position and of Machiavelli's opinions concerning him. Prof. Villari's intimate familiarity with all the sources of Florentine history in the fifteenth century is too absolute for his positions to be successfully impugned. A number of appropriate illustrations are scattered through the volumes, the most interesting of which is a facsimile of Savonarola's autograph abstract of his sermon of February 27, 1491.

Prof. Alessandro d'Ancona of the University of Pisa, well known for his studies in folk-lore as well as in history, has just published an excellent edition of the 'Journal du Voyage' of Montaigne, under the title of 'L'Italia alla fine del Secolo XVI.; giornale del viaggio di Michele de Montaigne in Italia nel 1580 e 1581' (Città di Castello: S. Lapi, 1889). The text is printed as originally written, partly in French and partly in Italian, and is illustrated with copious notes, which are of great importance. There is appended to the book a *catalogue raisonné* of the travels in Italy, and descriptions of Italian customs in foreign languages, down to the year 1815. Although it is not perfect, it is by far the best bibliography of Italian travels that exists.

The book of Marcellin Pellet, 'Napoléon a l'île d'Elbe,' which was noticed in the *Nation*, No. 1231, is confirmed in most of its facts by another book, drawn from different sources, 'Napoleone all' isola d'Elba' (Milan: Fratelli Treves), by Giovanni Livi, now Director of the State Archives at Brescia. This author lays great stress on the Italian intrigues and plots to persuade Napoleon to devote himself to the Italian cause and unify Italy, by allowing himself to be proclaimed Emperor of the Romans and King of Italy. These overtures were still toyed with by Napoleon when the state of France showed him that his return thither was possible, and his decision was hastened by the discussions at the Congress of Vienna.

The republication of O'Meara's book on Napoleon at St. Helena naturally revives the old discussion about Sir Hudson Lowe. It may be remarked that the popular opinion adverse to that person is fully confirmed by the official reports of Baron Stürmer, the Commissary at St. Helena of the Austrian Government, which were published at Vienna in 1886 by H. Schlitter. A French translation by Jacques St.-Cère, has been published at Paris, at the Librairie Illustrée; but, with a carelessness which is growing with French publishers, the book has no indication of the date of its publication. Further confirmation can be found in the Reports of the Russian Commissary, Count Balmain, which were published in 1867 in Bartenieff's historical journal, the *Russkii Arkhiv*, in the original French, and which we believe have never been reprinted, so that they are practically inaccessible outside of Russia. The Reports of the Marquis de Montchenu, the French Commissary, would probably also prove interesting; and it is to be hoped that some one will take the trouble to edit and print them.

'The History of Preaching,' by the late John Ker, D.D. (Armstrongs), is made up of selections from the lectures of the author, delivered as Professor in the Theological Seminary of the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland. Something more than half the book is given to the German pulpit since the Reformation, and this is its most valuable part, the remainder being devoted to a rather unsatisfactory account of preaching in the Jewish Church, in New Testament times, in the Oriental Church, and in the Western Church down to the sixteenth century, and to the many "lessons" which it behooved the Professor's hearers to draw from the history. Dr. Ker was a leading preacher of his day, and these lectures show him to have been a man of broad, if somewhat old-fashioned, learning. There is an abundance of shrewd comment to be found in his pages, as witness the following remark about Chrysostom: "He was envied by many of his fellows on account of his popularity, and disliked by them because of his secluded life and reserved manner. The people do not feel this fault; fellow-ministers do. If a popular preacher is to be liked by his brethren, he must be very frank and human."

The readers of 'Pleasant Hours in Sunny Lands' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd), by I. N. Lewis, A.M., LL.B., will heartily agree with the author in his feeling "that too little care has been taken in relating" the incidents of his tour around the world. Two sentences will be sufficient for examples of his style. The Chinamen "are amusingly peculiar in tone and inflection, and you must keep out of sight, as from a frog-pond, when curiosity or amusement leads one to draw near, if you wish to listen to a genuine colloquy, and to which, in fact, it bears closer resemblance than anything else I can imagine." The flat-boats "are full of merchandise from these rich fields, but like a trio on our city sidewalks, if you wish very much to hasten, the slimness of the man or the breadth of his two female companions hardly afford the necessary patience for a stoppage in transitu." We are not sure, however, that the publishers are not more to blame than the author for permitting so many imperfect and unmeaning sentences to pass uncorrected. Some of the illustrations are interesting reproductions of photographs.

The eleventh instalment of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas,' now in process of publication in a new edition (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann), introduces Africa with a first sheet, and the United States with a fourth. The Dark Continent has for some time been the cartographer's most interesting domain, and the rapid development of the Congo State is furnishing daily fresh knowledge of the great inland water-courses, forests, and populations. Any new African map having the authority and the excellence of Perthes's will be eagerly welcomed.

Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the April number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, deals with English wills of Way, Wyman, Archdale, Shrimpton, Yeamans, and other New England and Virginia families. There is a list (one of a series) of alumni of the University of Pennsylvania who have held official positions; another, by Judge Richardson, of Harvard alumni who have received honorary degrees as named. For the rest there is the usual variety in this issue of the oldest and best of genealogical periodicals.

We read in the newly published Proceedings of the Wisconsin Historical Society that its bound newspaper files number 5,557 volumes, and are surpassed in extent only by those of the National Library at Washington. A long list is given of the early files of papers published in Holland, Great Britain, and this country from 1650 down to 1799, nearly complete as far as they go. They are a rich quarry for historical students. The pamphlet concludes with a monograph on the "Fur Trade of Wisconsin," by Frederick J. Turner.

We have received also the Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences, containing, besides a variety of scientific papers, a memorial of the late Prof. David S. Sheldon, whose portrait serves as a frontispiece. Dr. Frederick Starr embodies the observations of some thirty-five correspondents in a diary of Iowa thunderstorms for 1887.

Paris Illustré for May 4 (International News Co.) is a capital Exposition number, showing photographically the wonders of the Eiffel Tower, the interior of Machinery Hall, and samples of the interesting group of dwellings, of all times and nations, which measure the adaptation of man to his environment in the successive stages of his civilization. Add portraits of M. Eiffel and of M. Berger, one of the directors. The account of M. Eiffel's previous career as an engineer is very instructive.

A very agreeable account of the brief career of Eugène Renduel, the great publisher who gave his imprint to the chief lights of the Romantic school of French writers, forms the leading article in *Le Livre* for February. We say brief because, after ten years of this distinction, his health compelled him to retreat to the country, and shortly to make a definitive choice between his old calling and a purely rural, outdoor life, which meant practical oblivion until he passed away some thirty years after. The determination, we feel, was a happy one for him. Two portraits of this amiable and able man accompany M. Adolphe Jullien's paper. M. Jullien is in turn depicted in the April number, in connection with a very just eulogy of his recent works on Wagner and Berlioz; his effective use of contemporary caricature to illustrate his narrative being the main thought of the paper by M. Francis Rénier, who introduces several examples of this authentic kind of portraiture from the musical biographies in question. Alexander Dumas, who, with George Sand, Mérimée, and Janin, was one of the signal absentees from Renduel's list of authors, is celebrated in the May number on a side little known, to foreigners at least. M. Charles Glinel presents a nearly exhaustive list of Dumas's poetic performances, and in several instances prints the verses themselves for the first time. The quantity of all this is more surprising than the quality. Some imitations from Pushkin are interesting on account of the African blood which tinged both Dumas and the great Russian poet.

We read in *Le Livre* that in August next the *Journal des Débats* will celebrate its centenary in a volume reviewing its past, with the collaboration of such weighty names as the Duc d'Aumale, A. Dumas *fils*, Renan, Taine, Léon Say, Vogüé, John Lemoinne, Legouvé, Cherbuliez, Gréard, etc. Fine illustrations after Ingres, Delacroix, etc., will adorn the work, which will be issued by Plon.

The *Nuova Antologia* for March 16 contains an interesting article by D'Ancona on the popular songs of Piedmont, under the form of a review of the book by Costantino Nigra, 'I Canti popolari del Piemonte' (Turin: Loescher).

One may read in the Milan *Perseveranza* for April 1 a narrative of extraordinary interest by Prof. C. Magenta, describing the demonstration of his brilliant antiquarian deduction that a certain urn in the Certosa of Pavia, supposed to be a mere monolithic simulacrum, was the cunningly devised monkish hiding-place of the remains of the Duke Gian Galeazzo Visconti and Isabella of Valois. Both bodies were in fact found within, with fragments of clothing, etc., but entirely despoiled of all valuables such as were associated with them when in 1562 they were committed to the urn. Drawings were made of the Duke's skull, whose size and shape were notable and agreed well with the extant portraits. The skeleton showed his stature to have been not less than 1.80 metres (say 5 ft. 9 in.). The opening was made with due formality on April 2, and the remains were redeposited.

In the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library of Florence for April 15, it is stated that the Dante collection on which the library prides itself has been recently considerably augmented. To say nothing of his minor writings, the collection now embraces no fewer than 420 editions of the 'Divina Commedia.' Of these, 323 are in Italian, 33 in French, 31 in German, 10 in English, 9 in Latin, 5 in Dutch, and 9 in other tongues. A Swedish version of the first seven cantos of the "Inferno," and a Bohemian of the entire Comedy—the only complete one in that language—are among the latest accessions.

A circumstance well worth recording is the winning of two of the Boylston prizes for declamation at Harvard College last week by colored undergraduates, one of whom was first and the other fourth on the list. The competition took place, as usual, at the Sanders Theatre, in the presence of a large and interested audience, and the speaking was exceptionally good; and Clement Garnett Morgan and Edward Burghardt DuBois are conceded to have fairly won their honors. Mr. Morgan, who is uncompromisingly black, chose a passage from Carl Schurz on the Emancipation Proclamation, and rendered it in a manner to touch deeply those whose memories could bridge the chasm even of a single generation.

—At the close of the exercises attending the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital at Baltimore, President Gilman announced that a fund of $100,000 had been subscribed for the support of the University. This amount, together with the accumulated surplus still on hand, and the income which has not been cut off through the suspension of dividends by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, will suffice to carry on the University without contraction of its work for the next three years. This was the object of the subscription; the amount was subscribed chiefly in sums of $5,000, and almost entirely by Baltimoreans. It was raised very quietly, without special solicitation, and without any organized effort on the part of the University authorities; the names of the donors have not been published. Baltimore having thus stood in the breach, and secured the unimpaired efficiency of the Johns Hopkins University for the immediate future, it would be very gratifying if the friends of university education throughout the country would now take up the cause and permanently strengthen the foundation of the University. In addition to the completion of the $100,000 fund, President Gilman announced the gift of $20,000 by Mr. and Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull, to endow a lectureship of poetry, and an equal sum from Mr. Eugene Levering, to be used for building purposes. We have sufficiently expressed (*Nation*, December 10, 1888) our conviction that no better application of money to the service of the higher education could be found at the present time than in assisting the Johns Hopkins University, either by adding to its general fund or by endowing special departments or professorships.

—A memorial has lately been addressed to the Lord President of the Council and the Chancellor of the Exchequer by members of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, expressing a hope that measures may be taken for allowing selected candidates for teacherships in the elementary schools to spend the whole or part of their time of training at the Universities. No attempt was made to get a large number of signatures, but rather, as it would seem, that the names signed should be in some sort representative. Fifty-nine such names are subscribed to the memorial, all of which are those of heads of houses, professors, readers or lecturers, or fellows of colleges, save two—the names of the late and of the present head-master of Rugby. The memorialists say: "We are of opinion that such a mode of training would be free from defects which have been attributed to the present system, and that the body of teachers in elementary schools would gain by the admission of a portion of their number to a share in the life and traditions of the Universities."

—Doubtless this would be a very desirable thing; and doubtless, also, it may be accomplished in spite of many obvious difficulties. The question of residence, for instance, might be got over, as has been already suggested, by affiliating some of the present training-institutions with colleges in Oxford or Cambridge, and allowing two years' residence in them to count as one year at the University. This would greatly diminish expenses. The chief objection to the present system of training-colleges is that which has so often been brought against the theological schools—that not only is their range of teaching narrow, but they foster a narrow professional feeling in their scholars. Life in a great university might correct this. Another consideration which makes the proposed scheme desirable is, that the present training-colleges are largely denominational, being for the most part, though not entirely, in the hands of the Church of England. The influence of the Church of England is very great, perhaps predominant, at the Universities also; but the colleges are strictly undenominational (with a few exceptions), and, at any rate, there is a freer air at Oxford or Cambridge than there is in any training-school. Since the memorial spoken of above was presented, a general meeting of the Teachers' University Association has been held at Toynbee Hall in London, and the memorial was a subject of discussion. So far as appears from the reports, the meeting was entirely in its favor. The chief speaker was Prof. James Bryce, and he brought forward one argument for the scheme of which, we confess, we had never thought. "It was a great misfortune," he said, "that the university teachers could at present classify teachers who had not been to a university as if they belonged to a lower order: and it was highly desirable to make the teaching profession feel itself one and undivided, as was the case in the United States."

—Attention was directed some months ago to the manifest improvements in the manufacture of optical glass brought about by the researches of Prof. Abbe of Jena. The possible advantages in telescope construction were there hinted at, but they have only now been realized, through the painstaking investigation of Dr. Hastings of Yale University. In selecting from an extended series of the new German glasses, with widely varying optical properties, Dr. Hastings was hampered by the fact that a serious deterioration of the polished surfaces of many of these glasses will take place on ordinary atmospheric exposure. While this is not a practical limitation in making microscope objectives, it was necessary to regard it as such in the case of telescope objectives, where the larger and more costly lenses must be permanent, or their final cost will render them wholly impracticable. In the *American Journal of Science* for April, Dr. Hastings develops a general method for determining the secondary chromatic aberration for a double telescope objective, and describes a telescope newly made by himself and sensibly free from this defect. Selecting from the catalogue of the Abbe glasses two which appeared, from the inspection of their optical properties, to form a most advantageous combination, Dr. Hastings first made from them prisms, and redetermined their optical constants with great precision. With these data he found it possible to calculate an objective whose achromatism should be sensibly perfect.

—It remained to make such a telescope. This was necessary in order to afford practical demonstration of the value of the new combination, both in point of absence of the residuum of color always present in the ordinary telescope, and as to the expected gain in the defining power of the telescope. As a practical optician, Dr. Hastings had already much experience, having ground and figured several object glasses—among them one of 9.5 inches diameter now mounted at the Johns Hopkins University; and it is a matter of regret that disks of the new glass were not available of a nearly equivalent aperture, for the practical test. As it was, the largest objective which could be made from the pieces at his command was of 2¾ inches clear aperture, and these were accurately figured to the curvatures and thicknesses indicated by his computations. On beginning to observe, the most surprising feature was the astonishing beauty of the images in the new telescope. The fringe of purple light familiar to all users of telescopes was wholly wanting, and only a trace of it was found to exist, on imposing the conditions most suitable to its exhibition. The customary astronomical tests of its defining power were applied, with highly satisfactory results: objects which, in an ordinary telescope of equivalent aperture, require careful looking, appeared strikingly plain. Sundry other tests which need not be instanced here have been conducted by Dr. Hastings, and lead to the significant gain of nearly one-fourth in the effective capabilities of the new telescope over the achromatic objective of the usual construction. It may be expected that the difficulties in procuring large melts of the new glass will not prove insurmountable, and that the gain in the performance of large telescopes will be greater than Dr. Hastings has demonstrated it to be for small ones.

—The Geographical Bureau of the Home Department of the Japanese Government is doing for the people of Nippon what our Signal Service accomplishes for us. A fat bundle of pamphlet publications just received from Tokio shows that tri-daily telegraphic weather reports from the whole of the empire have been gathered since 1883. For many months past these have been published in the daily newspapers. The number of telegraphic reporting stations in Japan is thirty-one, and from these, together with five stations in Corea and China, with less

frequent exchanges from Manila in the Philippines and Vladivostok in Siberia, the reports are made up. Since the first published list of observations made in 1874, the climatological values obtained have become more and more exact. The apparatus used in the central observatory, which is situated at the highest point within the old castle in Tokio, is of the finest and most sensitive sort from Europe and the United States, supplemented by special instruments of native manufacture. Direct magnetic observations have been carried on for several years, with self-registering and other apparatus. The study of marine meteorology and that of seismic disturbances is also attended to. The official Government work is supplemented, with great popular benefit, by the Meteorological Society, which publishes a journal, of which we have received several copies. It has been found that the theories of meteorology which, in other parts of the world, have been supposed to be fixed principles of the science, are only of moderate value for the Japanese archipelago. The forecasts depend largely upon the skill of the superintendent, and are much more successful as relates to rain than to wind. Thus far about seventy per cent. of the predictions made in Tokio have been found to be correct. In addition to the value of the cautionary signals displayed from forty-nine stations, the results of the system of observations are frequently inquired for by architects, engineers, medical men, and surveyors. The director, Mr. J. Araii, is ably assisted by Mr. Ernest Knipping, a German gentleman whose writings, along with our own Prof. T. C. Mendenhall's, are of standard value. The monthly publications of the Central Observatory are amply supplied with maps and diagrams, with letter-press in English. The more popular *Meteorological Journal*, for local reading, now in its eighth year, is in Japanese.

—M. Jules Barbey d'Aurevilly, one of the last, or the very last, of the French romantic writers of the time of Théophile Gautier and his *gilet rouge*, has just died in Paris. The date of his birth is not exactly known, but it was some time between the years 1802 and 1808. He began to write in 1825, but all of his earlier works failed of success. In 1830 he disappeared, like Waring, and was unseen and unheard of for twenty years. In 1850 or 1851 he came to light again, and filled many columns of the *Pays*, in the course of the next few years, with sonorous and dithyrambic criticism, of the sort with which his time and his school have made the world familiar, and even weary. A dozen or more novels followed, of which, perhaps, the best known is 'L'Ensorcelée.' It is not so much as a man of letters that he will be missed, but as a man of letters who was also a relic—a relic of romanticism, of dandyism, of a certain picturesque type of Catholicism and of aristocracy. His death is sure to set running a current of anecdote and reminiscence, much of which will doubtless be interesting reading. The stream, in fact, is already beginning to flow.

MOTLEY'S CORRESPONDENCE.

The Correspondence of John Lothrop Motley, D.C.L. Edited by George William Curtis. With portrait. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1889.

The correspondence of an illustrious man, printed often more because of his reputation won in some one field than for the interest of the letters in themselves, is an unfair test of his intellectual ability or social attractiveness; and in the case of an historian in whose work the telling mental qualities are largely different from those which give vivacity and brilliancy to impromptu letters, this test works with special incompleteness. Motley certainly, in addressing his wife, children, and a few intimate friends, did not write for immortality. He had not the point in style, the variety in interests, the copiousness of opinions which give charm and body to a collection of personal letters; and, although he mingled in the society of famous men and fine women, and was near to great events, he had not that quickness of eye and literary power of brief description which could have painted the historical scene before him in a picturesque and enlivening manner. His methods of conceiving history were alien to such a task; he required a large canvas and heroic figures, and something of the breadth that goes with the spectacular, before he could deploy his mind and imagination. And, besides, there was so considerable a moral element in his enthusiasms, a sense of the forces of history so deeply underlying his serious work, that he was to a certain extent disarmed and taken at a disadvantage in the presence of the personal, the immediate and fragmentary character of passing and incomplete events. These two volumes, consequently, notwithstanding their real interest in many ways, are a disappointment, if any one looks in them for more than illustrations and fuller knowledge of the man's character as it was in daily and private life; but if one is content to look for no more than this, they afford the portrait of an American whom his fellow-countrymen will be more proud to acknowledge after their perusal —one who did honor to his country by his personal bearing among men, by his living and thinking in ordinary ways, quite as much as by his literary fame.

He belongs distinctly to a type that is passing away, or at least is suffering such changes outwardly and inwardly as to be taking on a new form. He was one of the Boston boys when Boston was more preëminently a commercial town, with all that means on the social side of life. He was educated at Bancroft's Northampton school and at Harvard College, and at an early age went to Europe for legal study at German universities and for travel, and of all these opportunities he made a serious use. The first stirring of his historical imagination and the beginning of his fluent and ample style may readily be discerned in his pleasant letters home, which are what such letters from such a youth should be, but have only autobiographical value. The trial of his talents in novel-writing, and the reasons why he selected the Netherlands as the scene of his historical labors, are not touched upon in these letters, and it may be said that the collection suffers from the lack of continuity in the series, both here and in later life. After his departure for Europe, however, there is sufficient material for the reader to make out plainly and fully the quiet student life he led, the absorption of his mind in his work, and the visitings of doubt and melancholy which must attack a solitary scholar before the recognition of his powers by others, in judgment upon definite work already accomplished, gives him confidence in himself. The publication of his first volumes, from which he apparently did not hope for success, settled his position as an author to be widely and seriously regarded, and he set to work to continue the series with a renewed energy which shows how much he was invigorated by the warm applause he had received. Of his labors in the workshop, however, the letters afford the very slightest glimpses—they are singularly free from the burden of his daily tasks, and, while we might desire to see more of the student at his desk, the fear of egotism seems to have haunted him to such a degree that he spoke of himself and his doings, even to his wife, with an uneasy consciousness, and was always glad to drop the subject. His occasional separation from his family and his long absence from home required him, nevertheless, to give some account of his days, and to this necessity the correspondence is mainly due.

The more entertaining chapters are naturally those which detail, almost like a diary of dinner engagements, his association with leading persons in England, and, more narrowly, upon the Continent. In London society he was received with great cordiality from many, and with courtesy and distinction from all. What was his charm it is impossible to discover from his own account of the matter, and others have not told us; but he must have been singularly agreeable to have won and kept the consideration of the circle in which he moved. He was interested first of all in the eminent literary men and statesmen of the day, and in the group which was noted for kindly disposition to Americans. His portraits of these people lack condensation and vividness; he was better at describing a character than a personality, and consequently he has not written anything of them specially remarkable. It is rather the tone in which he speaks than the words he uses which exhibits their impression on him, and this is necessarily diffused and unquotable. No man is more agreeably presented than the aged Lord Lyndhurst, who at the time of the war wrote to him as a fellow-countryman, remembering his birth on American soil; but this characterization is not made in any one passage. Mrs. Norton, too, and Lady William Russell are similarly a part of the pleasure which the letters give, as a picture of humane and hospitable English life, but they are mingled with the various scenes. Of others of more public note, Thackeray, Macaulay, Brougham, Palmerston, Milman, Hallam, the books are already so full that these slight reminiscences of them are neither fresh nor informing. Thackeray appears as "a colossal infant—smooth, white, shiny ringlety hair (flaxen, alas, with advancing years), a roundish face, with a little dab of a nose upon which it is a perpetual wonder how he keeps his spectacles, a sweet, but rather piping voice, with something of a childish treble about it, and a very tall, slightly stooping figure," and without any distinction in his talk more than in his white choker. Macaulay is a sick man, whenever seen, with the cough which foreboded the end, a blank face, and "as it were badly lighted," nothing luminous in his eyes nor impressive in his brows, a spacious forehead "scooped entirely away in the region where benevolence ought to be, while beyond rise reverence, firmness, and self-esteem like Alps on Alps," while the eyes beneath are almost closed with swollen lids. Motley, who did not wish to talk, did not find him too much an autocrat of the conversation. Brougham, with snow-white and shiny hair, a knobby and bumpy head, furrowed with age, and a vast mouth, is principally remembered by this observer for his incredible nose, which he wagged like an elephant's proboscis. These, however, are all familiar features, and even "Dizzy," as Mrs. Norton describes him, "with a black velvet coat lined with satin, purple trousers with a gold band running down the outside seam, a scarlet waistcoat, long lace ruffles falling down to the tips of his fingers, white gloves with several brilliant rings outside them, and long black ringlets rippling down his shoulders," would not be strange except for the impossibility that the eye labors under in endeavoring to retain his youthful figure as a

thing to be believed in. Of more interest is the sketch of Maximilian just before his departure to Mexico: "About thirty, with an adventurous disposition, some imagination, a turn for poetry," an author "not without talent," who "relieves his prose jog-trot by breaking into a canter of poetry; an adorer of bullfights, who half regrets the Inquisition, and considers the Duke of Alva everything noble and chivalrous, and the most-abused of men." The Comte de Paris is better treated—"a model of what a young prince ought to be in manner, in character, in conversation, in accomplishments. To be sure, he bribed me by his unaffected, sincere, and enthusiastic interest in my country; a more loyal and ardent *American* does not exist than this King's son." Other royal personages are to be seen on the page, always through republican eyes, and usually not to their advantage, except in the case of the frank and straightforward King of Holland and his refined and womanly Queen, always the unassuming friend of the best within her horizon.

To his countrymen, however, the most welcome part of these volumes is not what they tell of the great ones of the earth, or of the social grace and hospitableness of England in its highest circles; but rather the fulness and clearness with which they reveal the unspoiled American heart which, through long residence in foreign lands and in the midst of aristocratic fascinations, Motley kept beating in his breast. No word can now be breathed against his patriotism or his entire adhesion to and belief in the democracy of his own country. His sketch of Austrian society, in which birth alone gives station, might be expected to contain some comment from one whose chief claim to attention was not diplomacy but literature. He could not be flattered, he says, to be received as a diplomatist when he could not be as a man. In his reflections upon English aristocracy he is not less loyal to the traditions in which he was bred. He acknowledged himself to be a spectator in London, and had no desire to be "one of themselves." After stating the committal of America absolutely to the future of democracy, he goes on to say:

"For me, I like democracy. I don't say it is pretty or genteel or jolly. But it has a reason for existing, and is a fact in America, and is founded in the immutable principle of reason and justice. Aristocracy certainly presents more brilliant social phenomena, more luxurious social enjoyments. Such a system is very cheerful for a few thousand select specimens out of a few hundred millions of the human race. It has been my lot and yours to see how much splendor, how much intellectual and physical refinement, how much enjoyment of the highest character has been created by the English aristocracy; but what a price is paid for it. Think of a human being working all day long, from six in the morning to seven at night, for fifteen or twenty kreutzers a day in Moravia or Bohemia, Ireland or Yorkshire, for forty or fifty years, to die in the workhouse at last! This is the lot of the great majority all over Europe; and yet they are of the same flesh and blood, the *natural* equals in every way of the Howards and Stanleys, Esterhazys and Liechtensteins."

And again he says:

"I don't think there is any danger of my losing my American feelings and my Republican tastes, and I trust I can look on these scenes of exquisite and intelligent luxury objectively, as the Germans say, without confounding the characters of spectator and actor. . . . Much as I can appreciate and enjoy æsthetically, sentimentally, and sensuously the infinite charm, refinement, and grace of English life, especially country life, yet I feel too keenly what a fearful price is paid by the English people in order that this splendid aristocracy, with their parks and castles, and shootings and fishings and fox-huntings, their stately and unlimited hospitality, their lettered ease and learned leisure, may grow fat, ever to be in danger of finding my judgment corrupted by it. At the same time it is as well not to indulge too long and too copiously in the Circean draughts of English hospitality."

Doubtless he was fortified in his patriotism by the intense passion aroused by the civil war. In all he has to say of that conflict (and he has very much to say) there is the touch of a burning enthusiasm, of an overflowing interest, of personal anxiety and hope, of a home-felt share in the defeats and triumphs of the country's cause. He had the misfortune to differ from his father upon these topics, and he did not permit himself to speak of them to him; but in his letters to other members of the family he gave full expression to his feelings. He perceived with great definiteness the lines of the conflict, and especially the contest of moral forces and the issues of civilization involved in them. In devoting his life to the story of liberty in the Netherlands he had gone to school at the fountain; and he was so grounded in the love of the ideas the national cause stood for, as well as in the affection for his own country which life abroad in his case could only intensify, that he was bound, as by a natural law, to throw himself heart and soul into the Northern cause. He was able in consequence to state the question so clearly and forcibly in England as to do great service there, before he returned to this country to be near the scene of affairs; and after his appointment to Vienna he kept in close connection with that body of Englishmen who, with Bright and Mill at their head, befriended our interests.

The episode of his return home in 1861 is one of the capital chapters in the volumes. He represents the scene, the feelings, the confusion of the time, as a part thereof; and, whether at Boston or Washington, his pulse tells the beat of the hour. The optimism of the nation at its first awakening is reproduced in him with almost amusing completeness; and throughout the war the readiness with which he recoiled from the depression of defeat, and the vigor of his faith in our triumph, are attractive traits of his character. The anecdote of his finding himself in so oppressive a solitude when he received the news of the fall of Vicksburg is pathetic; he "screeched it through the keyhole" to his daughter; but "you," he says, addressing Dr. Holmes, "who were among people grim and self-contained usually—who, I *trust*, were *falling* on each other's necks in the public streets, and shouting with tears in their eyes and triumph in their hearts—can picture my isolation." This is the contemporary life of those years still warm on the page; and many of these pages are dedicated to the joys and sorrows, public and private, of the time, in a way to deepen regret in our minds at the memory of the unmerited trials which so true an American heart suffered at the hands of our national Government.

His estimate of the men of the war is also a close rendering of contemporary feeling, especially with regard to the military hope of the hour, Scott or McClellan or Grant. The most interesting of these, however, is the impression he obtained of Lincoln, whom he saw only for a short hour at the opening of the fight. He was struck at once by the substantial characteristics of the President, and, in his case, this was notable; there is nowhere any wonder expressed that a "backwoodsman" had come to so responsible a place, but only gratitude that an honest and true man was at the helm. He writes of him as early as June, 1862, with noticeable accuracy: "I think Mr. Lincoln embodies singularly well the healthy American mind. He revolts at extreme measures, and moves in a steady way to the necessary end. He reads the signs of the times, and will never go faster than the people at his back. So his slowness seems sometimes like hesitation; but I have not a doubt that when the people wills it, he will declare that will." And after the assassination, recurring to his first impression of Lincoln, he writes: "He seemed to have a window in his breast. There was something almost childlike in his absence of guile and affectation of any kind. Of course, on the few occasions when I had the privilege of conversing with him, it was impossible for me to pretend to form an estimate as to his intellectual power, but I was struck with his simple wisdom, his straightforward, unsophisticated common sense. What our republic, what the whole world, has to be grateful for, is that God has endowed our chief magistrate, at such a momentous period of history, with so lofty a moral nature and with so loving and forgiving a disposition." Perhaps in all these few lines of encomium which from time to time he writes upon the leading figures of the war, we may discern the hero-loving imagination working before the facts were accomplished; but it was Motley's good fortune to have nourished his mind with contemplation of such men in the great struggle of the Netherlands, and he was thus in a position more readily to appreciate them.

It remains to say a word about Motley's friendship with Bismarck, which is a leading topic in the volumes. They were college friends, or even schoolboys, together, and the tie which bound them was this early one cherished through years by both of them. They recognized the vast difference in their political creeds, but they also agreed that the condition of affairs in Prussia and America differed as widely as their views, and their friendship fortunately was so purely personal that opinion did not enter into it as any part of the cement. Bismarck's letters are almost boyish, or old-boyish, in spirit, and are half rollicking. They show the Chancellor out of his gravity; but this is only to see him more near. The accounts which Motley furnishes of the household arrangements and private habits of the Bismarcks fill out the picture; and if there is something of the German country baron and of squirearchy in them, this is the homeliness of truth. Bismarck appears in a more amiable and noble light; his sincerity is much dwelt upon, his force and grasp are rather indicated than shown, but the conversation died on the air that heard it. The most valuable passage is the following:

"He said he used when younger to think himself a clever fellow enough, but now he was convinced that nobody had any control over events—that nobody was really powerful or great; and it made him laugh when he heard himself complimented as wise, foreseeing, and exercising great influence over the world. A man in the situation in which he had been placed was obliged, while outsiders, for example, were speculating whether to-morrow it would be rain or sunshine, to decide promptly, It will rain or it will be fine; and to act accordingly with all the forces at his command. If he guessed right, all the world said, What sagacity—what prophetic power! If wrong, all the old women would have beaten him with broomsticks. If he had learned nothing else, he said he had learned modesty."

It may be said generally—and it is pleasant to be able to say such a thing of a collection of private letters—that this correspondence presents every one whom it brings forward in a way to win regard for him and not to lessen it. The social reminiscences, bare as they often are, are pervaded by hospitable and kindly feelings, and the literary and political portions are without any disagreeable traits, but, on the contrary, show Motley's friendliness and

patriotism, and a readiness to take men at the best possible, which now honor his memory. It is, nevertheless, his own reputation that will be increased and endeared by these proofs of his devotion. His belief in his own people, his anxiety to serve them in places of honorable ambition or in private station, and his humane and sanguine temperament in the great conflict of his generation, his laboriousness in his studies, and his unaffected friendliness with many persons of intellect, refinement, and good-will, make us the more glad to know that he remains, after all his disappointments, to the last line of his pen unalienated from ourselves.

We have observed many misreadings in the text, which are so unusually numerous in a work of this kind that we here correct the more important. Vol. i: 35, Tieck's *Phantasus;* 127, canal *smells;* 169, *successively;* 182, *sixteenth* century; 190, l. 6 from foot, *reviewed?;* 274, marshalling *with* his baton; 355, déjà *lu;* 359, l. 5 from foot, *plant.* Vol. ii: 7, lieutenant-*colonel;* 268, *Laugel;* 313, "dynastische Ausbeutung" is translated *prejudices;* 315, "sonderbar" is translated *immoral;* 317, l. 3 from foot, *unconscionably;* 325, l. 8, *passion* malheureuse; 336, l. 20, *paternally;* 355, l. 6, *Thursday;* 399, l. 16, *alternation.* The index has noticeable defects, but we mention only the startling entry of the Boott Society, which turns out to be the Boston Saturday Club! Some of these errors appear to have resulted from the English manufacture of the book.

NATIVE LIFE IN INDIA.

Indian Life, Religious and Social. By John Campbell Oman. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1889.

THE materials of which this little book is composed have not been brought together from remote or out-of-the-way sources. Nevertheless, there is a value attaching to them which, as a rule, is grievously wanting in learned and philosophic dissertations on the religion and philosophy of the Hindus. They consist of sketches, drawn direct from the life, of the manner in which the Hindu religion, as it exists to-day, affects, in his daily life, in his acts, and in his thoughts, the Hindu as he exists to-day. The treatment does not pretend to be systematic or exhaustive; but just as a sketch is, oftentimes, a great deal more suggestive than the finished picture, so is it here. These random side-lights thrown on the moral and social condition of the people of India disclose in a very striking way that moral and intellectual helplessness which caused them to succumb, and keeps them in subjection to a handful of alien conquerors.

If we take an average Englishman and contrast him with an average Indian, there is no such difference between the two as to account for their relative positions. The Indian possesses, perhaps, the quicker and more agile intellect of the two. He is, man for man, not less brave, not less diligent in his vocation, not less quick in the acquisition of knowledge. Whence, then, comes the unquestionable superiority of the man of the Western world? It comes, we should say, from his interpretation of life and the world taken as a whole. All Englishmen, no matter how they might classify themselves in a religious census, are practically of one faith in this respect—that they regard Man and Nature as subject to an order intended for the use and advantage of reasonable creatures. Hence, except in cases when the sense of self-interest throws his mind into a state of torpor, the Englishman cannot rest content with a state of things which shocks or baffles his reason. This logical curiosity to get at the reason of a thing is the spring and motive power of all which the Western world vaguely describes as "progress." It is just this reasonable interpretation of the universe which is wholly absent from the moral and intellectual conceptions of the native of India. The universe, in his eyes, is literally a region of Chaos and old Night, regarding the activities of which it is impossible to predicate anything with certainty. The invisible world is peopled by countless myriads of lawless and capricious beings, who can be bribed or otherwise compelled to put their supernatural powers to unjust and malicious uses as readily as a corrupt and underpaid state official.

Unity and continuousness of purpose are not to be expected from a people under the domination of such a belief as this. Living in a world thus thickly beset with hidden dangers, the Hindu feels that his only chance of safety is to go on for ever doing the thing which he, his father, his grandfather, and all their fathers before them have been accustomed to do. "Custom" is the authority to which all men bow. They have sacred books, as all the world knows, but as the power of reading and interpreting these is practically extinct throughout India, except in two or three places of learning, there exists no standard of "custom." The number of castes, for example, was originally four; at present they certainly number not less than four thousand, and probably more; and the amount continues to increase because any little section of men who follow a trade in common, or who have a common way of propitiating the gods, or who eat together, become, after a brief persistence in the practice, a new and distinct caste. There being no passage from one caste to another, it follows that this rapid multiplication of castes splits up the community into a multitude of little organisms, each possessing its own separate principle of life, and walled off, so to speak, from every other. Practically, the first and greatest duty of the Hindu is to preserve his caste. He cannot evade this obligation even when he has lost all faith in the reality of caste, for a Hindu who has lost his caste becomes an out-caste in the true etymological sense of the word. No one, either of his own or any other caste, can give or sell him food; no one can receive him into his house; no one, either parents, wife, or children, can hold any intercourse with him unless they, too, are prepared to become outcasted in consequence. And the preservation of caste means perfect submission to whatever is customary, no matter how gross, monstrous, and irrational it may be. The words which Shakspere has put into the mouth of *Coriolanus* are exactly descriptive of the intellectual and moral anarchy in which this slavish reverence for custom has landed the Hindus:

> "What custom wills, in all things did we do 't,
> The dust on antique time would lie unswept,
> And mountainous error be too highly heap'd,
> For truth to overpeer."

Here, by way of illustration, is a "specimen" from these mountains of error taken from Mr. Oman's pages:

"During an excessively dry summer, as I was sitting one evening in the open air, the clouds began gathering rapidly overhead. Every one was anxiously looking out for rain. The sultry heat had caused an outbreak of sickness, and the price of food had gone up considerably. I remarked to a native standing beside me that we would now in all probability have the much desired rain. He looked up towards the dark, overcast sky above, and then, shaking his head doubtfully, expressed his fear that the rascally *bunniahs*—vendors of food, grains, and other articles of consumption—would not let it rain. This idea was a new one to me. I was familiar with the old Hindu notion that the dark clouds are malicious demons who obstruct or intercept the rainfall, and are only overcome by Indra's flashing thunderbolts, which rend them asunder in the interests of the human race and the parched and gaping earth. But I had never heard that the bunniahs were credited with meteorological powers of so very important a character. I pressed the man to explain his remark. 'Don't you know,' he said, 'that it is to the interest of the bunniahs that the prices of all articles of consumption should be as high as possible, and that rain should not fall. Well, to attain their object, they make cakes of wheat flour and other things, and then deliberately deal with these heaven-sent gifts in such a manner as to offend the gods and make them withhold the rain.'"

The Hindu conception of Nature is, in short, the exact antithesis of that which is regarded as axiomatic by the Western world. Not only do the ideas of uniformity, persistence, unvarying succession of cause and effect find no place in it, but Nature is looked upon as in all its operations guided by an unpredictable caprice. And what is supposed to be true of Nature is no less true of Man. In the absence of any authoritative standard of belief and conduct, it is impossible to exaggerate the wild chaos of beliefs which possesses the population of India. These eccentricities would rapidly degenerate into practices of unspeakable atrocity and sensuality but for the strong restraining hands of the British Government. Only a few months ago a man was tried for the murder of his wife. It was proved at the trial that he had, with the consent of his victim, and in the presence of his fellow-villagers—the local police assisting at the ceremony—gouged out the eyes of the wretched woman on the strength of a dream which assured him that if he did so the eyes would be replaced by eyes of pure gold. These crazy superstitions, combined with the benumbing effect of caste restrictions, appear to have destroyed, at least for the time, the power of sustained and coherent thought in the Hindu mind. It is altogether lacking in initiative and originality, as is clearly seen in the efforts of the "educated classes" (so called) to provide themselves with a religion in lieu of that which their English education has destroyed.

The academical feebleness and languor of these endeavors is, perhaps, the most distressing symptom of the present condition of India. Mr. Oman has devoted two or three of his best chapters to an account of some of these, and clearly perceives their unreality and uselessness. The educated Hindu has learned, in his college days, that it is a bad thing for a nation to break with its historic past—that religious reformations are effected, not by a fundamental change of creed, but by going back to the primitive sources of national faith—and, on the strength of these propositions, tries to bring about a religious revival by affecting to believe in the divine inspiration of the Vedas. It is all a make-believe—the very theory of inspiration being borrowed from missionary teaching—and, consequently, brings, and can bring, no fruit to perfection. In short, the reason of the Hindus, from long centuries of acquiescence in unreasoning superstition, has become so enervated that it cannot be roused resolutely to grapple with the mysteries of existence or the practical problems of conduct. All it aspires to do is to play with these questions—to store the memory with the opinions of Western thinkers, without caring to assimilate or digest them. So far as there is any movement of thought in British India, it is "all borrowed—all second-hand roar;" and while this state of things continues, and India is not assailed from without, British domination is in no danger of overthrow.

HARE'S AMERICAN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW.

American Constitutional Law. By J. I. Clark Hare, LL.D. In two volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1889. Pp. lxxxi, 1,400.

JUDGE STORY'S treatise upon the Constitution of the United States, written more than fifty years ago, has now, in many parts of it, a remote and inadequate quality. Judge Cooley's excellent volume is concerned with "the constitutional limitations which rest upon the legislative power of *the States*." We have here, in Judge Hare's book upon 'American Constitutional Law,' a competent and worthy exposition, in the hundredth year of our national existence, of that body of legal doctrine to which the Constitution of the United States has given rise in the aspect which it presents to-day. It is a book of the first importance, dealing in a large way with great and difficult questions, yet careful, close of texture, and showing a keen discrimination.

It is divided into fifty-nine "lectures," for it embodies a course of lectures delivered at the Law School of the University of Pennsylvania; and it is a multiplication by four of that smaller volume, printed merely "for the use of the class" in 1885 and little known here, which has attracted such favorable attention from English critics like Dicey and Bryce. The key-note of the book is struck in the short preface, in which the author takes notice of "*the growth* of the Constitution of the United States," and adds, after adverting to the war and the questions which it raised:

"A vast and untravelled field was thus thrown open for critical examination and research, and years may pass before it is thoroughly explored. Under such circumstances the duty of a student of public law is both difficult and obvious. Jurisprudence is a science which must suffer unless pursued with a single eye to truth; and, while the decisions of a court of last resort are conclusive between the parties, they are also steps in the process by which an accurate conception of public and private law may ultimately be attained. A writer who passes them in review should therefore . . . not hesitate to state his own [opinions] and the grounds on which they have been formed. Should he err in such an endeavor, he may still hope that his mistakes will be corrected by abler thinkers, and may indirectly contribute to form the public opinion which, in the long run, guides legislators and courts."

We have, then, a treatise which recognizes in the Constitution of the United States an instrument adapted to the needs of a growing and developing nation, intended, as the author quotes Sir Edward Coke, "to live and take effect in all successions of ages." And it is a treatise which, in stating the adjudicated law, does not hesitate here and there to accompany it by searching criticism. Judge Hare is no mere stater of decisions. He perceives clearly the exact worth of judicial decisions, and so their frequent shortcoming and inadequacy; and his long experience upon the bench gives weight to all his comments. "The current of decision," he tells us, "sometimes varies like the tides, as every lawyer finds who relies on precedents."

Roughly, the book may be separated into eight parts, of which one deals with introductory and historical matter, another with provisions in the nature of a bill of rights, another with questions relating to jurisdiction and procedure, and others with the general topics of taxation, eminent domain, the regulation of commerce, war, and money. These are not altogether the divisions of the book itself, and they do not altogether follow this order. But a sufficiently accurate notion of the contents is got when it is said that something under a fifth of the work is given respectively to the first and third subjects in the above order, and about twice as much to the second; and that the rest, somewhat under a quarter of the book, is divided among the other titles; the first two of these being a little more fully dealt with than the others. The first part in the above division will interest not merely the lawyer, but any intelligent reader. The author is full in his treatment—a little too full, some may think; but he is always clear, agreeable, and instructive. It is the old story, but it is illustrated by many striking suggestions, as in the part where the writer points out that, a hundred years ago, the English had already in a sense made the acts of King, Lords, and Commons subject to the test of law, unless when they acted conjointly in making an act of Parliament; and "all that remained for the framers of the American Constitution was to render that which was true of the several parts of the English Government applicable to the Government of the United States as a whole." The essential character of our Revolution as being no revolution at all, but only the breaking of links with the old country, to the end that we might continue to live as before, is pointed out; and also the fact that our several States never had a recognized, separate national existence. The author gives life to his pages by the clear expression now and then of his opinions upon such topics as the views and personal qualities of Jefferson, the Chinese immigration, the condition of the civil service, and the ridiculous rules of our political parties which operate effectually to exclude from primary meetings the very salt of the organizations.

In considering the principal amendments to the Constitution, and those clauses in the body of the instrument relating to citizenship, the obligations of contracts, *ex-post-facto* laws and bills of attainder, which have been collectively called, sometimes, a bill of rights, Judge Hare gives a wide scope to their remedial and protecting efficacy. Far as the Supreme Court has gone in what it includes under the notion of a "contract" and a "law" which impairs it, Judge Hare would go further; and he also supports the wide conception of an *ex-post-facto* law and a bill of attainder which is given in Cummings vs. Missouri and *ex parte* Garland. On the other hand, he seems to adopt the restricted meaning of the privileges and immunities of a citizen of the United States given by the majority of the court in the Slaughter-house cases: "They include," he says, "whatever the Constitution expressly or impliedly confers, and nothing that it does not grant." Judge Hare, like Mr. Justice Miller, seems to give too wide a scope to the *decision* in the Dred Scott case. We take that to have been accurately given by two learned writers, since distinguished as Mr. Justice Gray and Judge Lowell, in a pamphlet of thirty years ago. Mr. Bryce puts it in the same way in his recent admirable book. Instead of its being true that it was then held that "a man of African descent was not and could not be a citizen of a State or of the United States," the case went no further in its *decision* than to hold that when a slave is taken by his master to a place where slavery is prohibited, and then comes back to a slave State and is a resident there, and is held by the highest court there to be a slave, he will be so regarded by the courts of the United States. Of course, the *dicta* of that case are a wholly different matter. In connection with remarks touching this case, Judge Hare observes that in this country "an erroneous interpretation of the Constitution [by the Supreme Court] is conclusive on the Legislature." Why should that be so? Conclusive, of course, as regards the case decided. But why should not the Legislature, like any jurist or private citizen, while bowing to all decisions of the courts, persist in its denial of a false interpretation of the fundamental law? Certainly, the text of this permanent instrument is one thing, and the interpretation of it by an ever-shifting body of judges is a very different thing. As Jackson might rightfully veto the new bank charter when he disputed the interpretation of the Constitution made by the Supreme Court, although we may well believe that his legal conclusion was wrong, so for sufficient cause Congress may at any time, in the exercise of its sound judgment, rightfully present, by new legislation, a new question for the courts; or may put its judgment on record in the form of a resolution. The Constitution is final, but the interpretation of it by a court can never be final, except as it is approved. It must always be subject to the searching and revising judgment of the learned, and to what Judge Hare has called "the public opinion which in the long run guides legislators and courts." Meantime, prudence and the requirements of orderly administration will often keep a legislative body far inside of what it may rightfully do.

Judge Hare has a full and very learned consideration of the subject of money and the legal-tender decisions. He supports the result reached in the later decisions of the Supreme Court, and with weighty argument. But he is far from approving the view that it is the power to borrow money which supports the making of Government notes a legal tender. He rests the power upon the right to regulate foreign and inter-State commerce, which is indeed a sufficient foundation. We commend his powerful arguments to writers who find themselves able to condemn the judgments of the Supreme Court on this subject with the easy confidence of Mr. John Fiske in his latest volume. This subject is not a new one to our author. Twenty-five years ago, in Borie vs. Trott, in 5 Philadelphia Reports, Judge Hare sustained the constitutionality of the legal-tender statutes of that time in an opinion which is not surpassed by anything that has since appeared.

The discussion of that fast-developing and portentous topic, the regulation of inter-State commerce, is full of instruction, but we can barely refer to it. Judge Hare has nothing to say on the curious matter of the legal status of our Indians. We wish that he might be led, in another edition of his book, to discuss more extensively a subject which has never yet received the full exploration which it deserves—namely, the precise nature of the question which the Supreme Court of the United States has in hand when it is considering the constitutionality of an act of Congress, and how far it is a different question when it is reviewing the act of a State legislature as touching a Federal question. But we must stop. It is easy to see that Judge Hare's book is the most important one of our time upon the subject which it treats.

The United States: Facts and Figures Illustrating the Physical Geography of the Country, and its Material Resources. By J. D. Whitney. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1889.

IN selecting Prof. J. D. Whitney to write the article upon the Physical Geography and Statistics of the United States, for their new edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' the editors made a wise choice. Among the older

geologists of the country he stands in the foremost rank, both in point of learning and of wide practical experience. Of that branch of his profession which occupies itself with the present relief of the earth's surface, its physical geography, he has made a special study, and, what is comparatively rare among those who aspire to be considered students of pure science, he has occupied himself largely with the problems of geology which have a direct practical bearing upon the development of the mineral resources of the country; the work which he published in 1854, upon the Metallic Wealth of the United States, having been for a long time the only trustworthy and scientific account of our wonderful mineral resources.

Those who are personally acquainted with Prof. Whitney will hardly be surprised to learn that, as stated in his preface, he feels that an injustice was done him by the cutting down and condensation of his article, "so that the meaning was often obscured and sometimes even rendered entirely unintelligible," and that he has republished the article, as originally presented, as a separate volume, a handsome octavo of over 450 pages, entitled 'The United States.' It consists mainly of a full and able discussion of the physical geography, and a briefer account of the mineral resources, with short chapters upon population and immigration, public lands, agricultural products, manufactures and foreign commerce, which were bodily excised by the editors; to which have been added, as an appendix, able papers on geographical discovery, cartographic progress, and barometric hypsometry (or the methods of determining the elevations of mountains). It is evident that, for the sake of the conciseness necessary for such a work as an encyclopædia, the editors are justified in omitting from an article such portions as are not of essential importance to the elucidation of the subject treated, but, in changing the language of an author, too great care cannot be taken lest his meaning be thereby rendered obscure or even unintelligible. An excellent illustration of how slight a change may accomplish this is unintentionally afforded by Prof. Whitney on page 331 of his own work, where, by printing "it" instead of "its gold," the meaning of the quotation in which it occurs is entirely reversed. The safer course in such cases is to submit all changes to the author's approval; but this is not always practicable.

Prof. Whitney's work in general bears the impress of great erudition, in both a literary and a scientific sense, and of a mind capable of broad and impartial generalization. Hence the occasional instances of a want of charity towards fellow-workers who may differ with him scientifically or personally are the more striking by contrast with the general tone of his writing. Such an instance is found in his characterization (page 321) of those who hold that trees once existed on the Western prairies, but have been destroyed by fire. His own view, that the treelessness is due to the exceeding fineness of the soil, which is known to be unfavorable to forest growth, seems more in accordance with observed facts; but the former view is still held by men occupying important positions in geological circles. He still holds to the theory that the iron ores of Lake Superior are of eruptive origin, in spite of recent investigations which have convinced all other geologists of prominence of the contrary view. In his account of the Comstock lode he quotes freely from the publications of Church and Lord, but makes no allusion to the intermediate and scientifically more important work of Becker. Again, in his admirable sketch of the progress of American cartography during the past half century, he completely ignores the general topographical map of the United States which is being made by the United States Geological Survey, and whose progress, although its publication as a topographical map has not yet been authorized by Congress, might readily have been ascertained from the annual reports of the Director. It would have been interesting had Prof. Whitney extended the comparative analysis of methods and results which he has made of the previous surveys, much to the disadvantage of those under Wheeler, to this later undertaking, which has the element of permanence wanting in the others, and which hence bids fair to be carried to completion.

The above are but minor blemishes in an able and admirable work, which forms a most valuable contribution to the literature of popular science. It is to be regretted, in the interest of the reading public, that Prof. Whitney, instead of confining himself to his article as originally written, did not enlarge his article on Mineral Resources to the fulness of his classic work on Metallic Wealth above mentioned; the annual value of our metallic products having increased during the third of a century which has elapsed since the publication of the latter from 79 to 250 millions of dollars.

The Authorship of the Fourth Gospel, and Other Critical Essays. Selected from the published papers of the late Ezra Abbot. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1888. 8vo, pp. 501.

THIS collection of Dr. Abbot's papers will be welcomed by all critical students of the New Testament. Scattered about, as they were, in various periodicals, access to them was not easy, and their importance makes it desirable to have them within reach. It is hardly necessary to say that these essays are characterized by laborious research and conscientious discrimination. Whatever the subject Dr. Abbot discussed, no matter how minute the points involved, he bestowed on them an untiring care that was never satisfied till it had explored all accessible ground and questioned the most trustworthy authorities. His answers to inquiries of correspondents were as faithfully worked out as his articles in magazines. An illustration of his piety towards the details of his science is found in his little dissertation on the name of an editor of the Greek Testament, which appears on the title-page as G. D. T. M. D., "Gerhardus de Trajecto Mosae Doctor." As Trajectum Mosae is the Latin name of the Dutch town Maestricht, it had been assumed by many that the editor's name was Van Maestricht; Dr. Abbot shows, from about a hundred authorities, that he was a German (his grandfather having fled from his native city to Cologne), and wrote his name Von Mastricht. It is a small matter, but it is a specimen of his work; he owed much of his power to the necessity he felt of being accurate.

Most of the essays are discussions of the text of short New Testament passages or of editions of the Greek Testament. There is not one of these that does not contain digested collections of facts which it would cost any man great labor to make. Dr. Abbot's own accuracy made him a sharp observer of other men's inaccuracies. Mr. Burgon, a Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, wrote a work in defence of the genuineness of the twelve last verses of the Gospel of Mark, in one of the appendices to which he maintained that there were certain notes of antiquity which infallibly set the Vatican manuscript before the Sinaitic. Dr. Abbot subjects his seven arguments to a searching examination, and, by an overwhelming array of facts, shows that not one of them can stand—a result which, in view of Mr. Burgon's confident and dictatorial tone, introduces the element of the humorous into the discussion. Tregelles, also, a man of very different calibre from Burgon, receives a like treatment from our critic, who, though courteous, was always outspoken. Some of these discussions are models of textual criticism. We can barely mention Dr. Abbot's exegetical work. His articles on the construction of Rom. ix. 5 (where, according to the common translation, Christ is said to be "God over all, blessed for ever") are mines of grammatical learning, and show at the same time a fine hermeneutical feeling, a delicate sympathy with his author's train of thought, and minute acquaintance with his literary style.

The principal paper in the collection is that on the authorship of the Fourth Gospel. In an essay of a hundred pages one could not treat the whole subject; Dr. Abbot confines himself to a few points in the external evidence, and deals especially with the question whether the Fourth Gospel is used by Justin Martyr and the early Gnostics. The value of the essay lies in the carefulness with which it sifts alleged citations from the Gospel, and its full discussion of the various explanations which have been given of the similarity between the evangelical text and passages in writers of the first half of the second century. The famous 'Supernatural Religion' receives the chastisement which its slovenlinesses richly deserve. Dr. Abbot's original contributions to the question discussed are most of them given in the form of notes at the end of the article. It would perhaps be going too far to say that he has finally settled the question of the quotations involved; but his array of evidence going to show that Justin used the Fourth Gospel is very strong, and no one can pass it over lightly. He makes a similar argument for the use of the Gospel by the Gnostic Basilides, A.D. 125; but here the testimony is less satisfactory.

The interest of these discussions for the literary history of the Fourth Gospel need not be pointed out. What is their bearing on the question of authorship? The use of the work by Justin, and especially by Basilides, would throw its composition back towards the year 100, and so far support the church tradition which ascribed it to the Apostle John. But this argument must not be pressed too far. A church tradition is not infallible; and if the literary conditions placed the composition of the Gospel before the death of John, still, the opinion which connected it with him might mean no more than that the author was believed to have derived his material wholly or in part from the Apostle. And, further, if it be supposed that the Apostle was the author of the Gospel, its value as a source for the life of Jesus must be judged of from its contents. If the Johannean authorship were established beyond doubt to-morrow, it is hardly probable that the opinions of critics respecting the discourses ascribed to Jesus would be thereby materially modified.

Hearty thanks are due to Prof. J. H. Thayer of the Harvard Divinity School for the friendly care he has bestowed on this memorial of one of the most eminent of modern New Testament critics. The book is well printed, and is provided with adequate indexes.

Archives of Maryland. Correspondence of Gov. Horatio Sharpe. Vol. I. Edited for the Maryland Historical Society by Wm. Hand Browne. Baltimore. 1888.

THE period covered by this work, 1753–1757, is

more recent than that of the previous publications of the Maryland Historical Society, and also more replete with interesting and stirring events. The year 1754 saw the beginning of the struggle between France and England for the possession of North America, in the attempt by the French to carry out Galissonière's gigantic idea of uniting their settlements from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico by a cordon of military posts. In pursuance of this scheme, a small fort at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela Rivers was seized, awakening the liveliest alarm among the English colonists. Maryland and Virginia, from their proximity to the path of French invasion, felt especially concerned, and a force was sent out by Gov. Dinwiddie, under the command of Col. Washington. In a skirmish with a party of French led by De Jumonville, the latter was killed and his command dispersed; but Washington was soon after forced to capitulate at Great Meadows. The French always asserted that De Jumonville had been unfairly attacked while on a peaceful mission; and Washington was further mortified by a phrase inserted in the terms of capitulation, which spoke of the French officer's death as an "assassination"—a slur on the British arms which seemed to be admitted by Washington's acceptance of the terms and signature to the articles. He finally explained that one of his officers, in making an oral translation of the articles to him (as his own knowledge of French was imperfect), had softened the ugly word "assassination" into "death."

Sharpe's considerable military experience caused him to take the lead among his brother governors in directing and supplying the sinews of the war, which now began in earnest. He displayed the greatest energy and activity in organizing the campaign and obtaining and forwarding supplies. His incessant correspondence with the governors, the Proprietary, the chief officers, and the home authorities gives a most minute record of all events of interest. Especially did Sharpe afford a shining exception to Braddock's reproach of lukewarm support by the colonial authorities. He exerted himself to the utmost to further that unfortunate expedition, and, when all went wrong, to repair the disastrous effects of the defeat. Far from receiving hearty coöperation and support in his work, the Governor was hampered or opposed at every turn by the parsimonious course of the Assembly, which, after the tradition of representative bodies, used the purse-strings as its weapon against the Proprietary when they were at variance. Hence the unqualified expressions of disgust with the Burgesses which appear in Sharpe's letters to England. For instance, he calls them "men of small fortunes, no soul, and very mean capacities"; and again, in a letter to his brother, he congratulates himself on a prorogation of the Assembly, "that I have rid myself of a parcel of wretches whose company I begin sincerely to detest." We find him proposing to the home authorities solutions of the much-vexed question of how the colonies might be compelled to contribute to support the war for the common defence; in 1754 he suggested a stamp duty, which was tried with such ill-success eleven years later. We notice the appearance of several other germs which afterwards developed into the great struggle for independence.

The materials for the present volume have been taken from the manuscript letter-books of Sharpe, and a mass of letters to him, in the collection of the Historical Society; and in small part from the Calvert Papers, on whose recent discovery and acquisition the Society is to be congratulated. Like its predecessors, this volume is furnished with full and careful indexes, and is altogether an extremely valuable contribution to our knowledge of a most important period of American history. The State of Maryland has honored itself by the publication of these Archives, in which the historic sense, skilful and scrupulous editing, and admirable typography have been combined in an unusual degree. From this stage on, the support annually given to the enterprise must be even more cordial than heretofore, as the Revolutionary era is approached, and men and events come to view whose connection with our own time is plainly traceable.

A History of England. By the Rev. J. Franck Bright, D.D., Master of University College, Oxford. Period IV. Growth of Democracy. Victoria. 1837-1880. With maps and plans. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1888. Pp. 596.

We have at various times called attention to the admirable History of England by the Rev. J. Franck Bright, the successive volumes of which have appeared at intervals during the last fifteen years. The fourth volume, now before us, brings the work down to the year 1880, thus completing it. It is a work, as will be seen, of not far from the dimensions of Green's larger history, but is totally different in its character, being rather, in the old fashion of histories, carefully arranged by reigns and dynasties, and holding to the chronological plan as closely as is possible in so complicated a work. The two books supplement each other admirably, as the reader of Green's glowing pages often misses something of the methodical arrangement of the ordinary history. But Mr. Bright is by no means deficient in the qualities that go to make a popular historian. He tells his story extremely well, soberly, but with a good degree of animation, and his judgment is cool and sound.

The shape of the book is against it—it is too small for its thickness, and thus loses in attractiveness; but its accessories—index, chronological tables, etc.—are of the best. The present volume (1837-1880) will be found a remarkably full and satisfactory history of our times, occupying nearly 600 pages. In each administration we have a complete list of the members of the Government, and at the commencement of the volume there is a list of contemporary sovereigns. There are ten maps and plans, all good and some excellent. We think it a mistake, in the plan of the battle of Alma, to have the points of the compass inverted. It might be well if our school atlases had such a variety of arrangement as not to encourage the notion in children that the north is *up*, but for an isolated map it is misleading to disregard the prevailing convention. It is also a pity, in the map of the Southeast of Europe, that boundary lines are not given.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, J. O. Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode Islanders (born in the Eighteenth Century): also Twenty Charts of Roger Williams's Descendants to the Fifth Generation. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Baker, M. N. The Manual of American Water-Works. 1888. Engineering News.
Boyesen, H. H. Vagabond Tales. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. Miss Crespigny: A Love Story. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.
Caird, Mona. The Wing of Azrael. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Devey, Louisa. Letters of the late Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton, to his Wife. G. W. Dillingham.
Dunham, Dr. M. E. Here and Hereafter: This Life a Type of the Life to Come. Utica: William T. Smith.
Durand, J. New Materials for the History of the American Revolution. From Documents in the French Archives. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Esperanto, Dr. An Attempt toward an International Language. Henry Holt & Co. 25 cents.
Genung, Prof. J. F. Handbook of Rhetorical Analysis. Studies in Style and Invention. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.25.
Goethe. Faust: a Tragedy. 2d Part. Vol. II. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Gould, John. The Birds of Great Britain. The Birds of New Guinea. The Trochilidæ or Humming Birds. Each in 25 parts. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Gozlan, L. Valentine: A Novel. The United Service Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Hartley, Dr. I. S. Sundays in the Adirondacks. Utica: William T. Smith.
Malory, Syr T. Le Morte Darthur. Faithfully Reprinted from the Original Edition (1485) of William Caxton. Edited by H. O. Sommer, Ph.D. Vol. I. Text. London: David Nutt.
Miss Kate; or, Confessions of a Caretaker. Frank F. Lowell & Co. 30 cents.
Shields, M. O. Izma; or, Sunshine and Shadow. J. S. Ogilvie.
Smith, C. J. Synonyms Discriminated: A Dictionary of Synonymous Words in the English Language. New ed. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Smith, T. E. V. The City of New York in the Year of Washington's Inauguration, 1789. Printed for the Author.
Sneddon, D. Burns Holograph Manuscripts in the Kilmarnock Monument Museum. With Notes. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Starr, Prof. L. Hygiene of the Nursery. 2d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.
Stebbins, Genevieve. Society Gymnastics and Voice Culture. Edgar S. Werner.
Temple, Sir R. Lord Lawrence. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
The Ideals of the Republic; or, Great Words from Great Americans. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Timsol, R. An Alien from the Commonwealth. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. My Religion. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Tuckerman, B. The Life of General Lafayette. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Tuttle, H. Studies in Psychic Science. M. L. Holbrook.
Valentine, Jane. Time's Scythe. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Venn, J. The Principles of Empirical or Inductive Logic. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Verschoyle, Rev. J. The History of Ancient Civilization: A Hand-Book. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Villari, Prof. P. Life and Times of Girolamo Savonarola. With Portraits and Illustrations. 2 vols. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford. $9.
Waller, M. E. A Cathedral Story. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Waller, M. E. The Rose-Bush of Hildesheim. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. Baldy's Point. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Waring, Mrs. Clark. The Lion's Share. Belford, Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Warner, Anna. A Servant of the King: Incidents in the Life of the Rev. Geo. Ainslie. John Ireland.
Weir, J. F. The Way: The Nature and Means of Revelation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Wentworth—McLellan—Glashan. Algebraic Analysis. Solutions and Exercises Illustrating Fundamental Theorems. Parts I. and II. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60 each.
Wheeler, W. A. An Explanatory and Pronouncing Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction. 19th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Whitney, Prof. J. D. The United States: Facts and Figures Illustrating the Physical Geography of the Country and its Material Resources. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Whittier, J. G. The Tent on the Beach. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Wilde, P. The International Medical Annual and Practitioner's Index. 1889. A Work of Reference for Medical Practitioners. E. B. Treat & Co. $2.75.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 23, 1889.

The Week.

It appears to be generally believed that the President will appoint his law partner, Attorney-General Miller, to the vacant place on the Supreme bench. There are signs, even among the Republican organs which are already subsidized or hoping to be subsidized, of surprise and disgust at such a proposition. But there is really no occasion for surprise that Mr. Harrison should think of giving so great an honor to a man who would never so much as have been thought of for such a place, by his most partial friend, if he had not been the President's law partner. As Senator, Mr. Harrison showed plainly that he regarded public office as a private benefit for his family and friends, and it could not have been expected that as President he would take any different view.

Senators Cullom and Farwell, according to common report, have "locked horns" with the President on the appointment of an Internal-Revenue Collector whose office is at Springfield, Ill. This is the home of Mr. Cullom, and it seems that an amendment of the Constitution has been surreptitiously and secretly adopted which provides that when an Internal-Revenue Collector has his chief place of business near the domicile of a Senator, then the Senator, if he belong to the same political party as the President, shall name the Collector, and nobody else shall have anything to say about it except to acquiesce in the nomination so made. This amendment would be No. 16 in the list, taking precedence of the two others that have been frequently accorded that place—namely, the one granting woman suffrage and the one recognizing God in the Constitution. Leaving out of view the mode and manner of bringing this clause into the fundamental law, we are moved to inquire why the internal-revenue collectors should be more particularly put at the disposal of Senators than United States marshals, district attorneys, pension agents, collectors and surveyors of ports, sub-treasurers, and other functionaries whose business extends over a large territory, but whose offices are for convenience fixed at some large town or city. The affair is very mysterious, however we look at it. We hope that the President and Congressman Cannon will take heed how they run counter to the Sixteenth Amendment.

If the news from Indianapolis be true, that a special examination has been ordered in that city to provide clerks to take the places made vacant in the post-office by a projected "clean sweep," it will make the position of the civil-service reformers in that quarter more trying than ever. They have all along been among the most faithful and uncompromising of the disciples. The more the heathen raged around them, the more fervid their faith grew. They deserted President Cleveland's standard because of his aberrations from the strict line of orthodoxy, and vouched for Gen. Harrison's soundness. Their position now is, therefore, one particularly embarrassing. But there is not the least sign that they fear to meet the crisis in the only way known to honest men. They refuse to condone any slips or backslidings on the part of the new Administration, and demand unceasingly the observance of the law in spirit and in letter. As they operate principally in and around Gen. Harrison's "home," their troublesomeness in his eyes may be readily imagined. By the way, we observe that the New York *Tribune* is becoming alarmed. It calls on "the hungry horde" to stop exerting "a tremendous pressure on the appointing officers." It also calls on "some unthinking persons" not "to confound civil-service reform with the practices of the last Administration," and asks certain "quarters" not to "make contemptuous references to civil-service reform." But we doubt if either "the hungry horde" or "the unthinking persons" will pay much heed.

The appointment of Hirsch to succeed Mr. Oscar Straus as Minister to Turkey comes somewhat untimely, while the Presbyterian General Assembly is in session in this city. The chief American interests in Turkey are those of benevolence. We have little trade with Turkey, but we have very important missionary and educational establishments there, maintained by the Presbyterians and Congregationalists. Besides the direct work of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions and the American Board, there are a number of large colleges, such as Robert College, at Constantinople; the Syrian Protestant College, at Beirût, the Armenia College, at Harpût; the Anatolia College, at Marsovan; the Central Turkey College at Aintab; a number of important girls' boarding-schools or colleges in various cities, and the Bible House at Constantinople. These provide the most important educational, if not religious, influence of all those that are regenerating Turkey. Now let it be remembered that all this American influence in Turkey, backed by the whole influence of the Christian Church in this country, so far as it is interested in Turkey, has been united in seeking the retention of Mr. Straus as the American Minister at Constantinople. It is true that he is a Jew, as his successor is, but he has given himself to his duties with an assiduity which has no parallel in the succession of our representatives at the Porte. He has not sought to have a good easy time, to see the sights of the East, to hobnob with the Sultan, but he has done what no other man has been able to do in opening schools shut by the Turkish authorities, and securing the withdrawal of edicts prohibiting the circulation of books or the erection of needed buildings. An indifferent minister is a great loss to this very important and influential American colony in Turkey. Therefore, missionaries, societies, colleges, and, we may add, the Philadelphia Directors of the American Exploring Expedition now at work excavating in Babylonia, all used what influence they had to secure the retention of Mr. Straus, but in vain. The post is given to an active politician, who doubtless has political claims, or the party in his State has claims, which are much stronger than those represented by the General Assembly of the church in which Mr. Harrison is a ruling elder, or by the American residents and institutions in Turkey. For Elder Harrison's own sake, it would have been better if he had delayed the announcement of the successor to Mr. Straus until after the adjournment of the General Assembly.

When Mr. Cleveland became President, a Republican, of course, was Postmaster of New Bedford, Mass. As in the case of Norwich, Conn., and hundreds of other important offices, the Democratic President furnished what even the Boston *Journal* at last confesses to be a "conspicuous" illustration of the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform, by allowing this Republican incumbent to serve out his term, although it lasted for two of the President's own four years. A Democrat named Carpenter was appointed as his successor in 1887, and has proved a most efficient Postmaster. No complaint of his administration was ever heard, and leading Republican business men assured him of their desire that he should serve out his term, among the number being Mr. Lemuel LeB. Holmes, a well-known Republican, and a member of that party's City Committee, and Mr. Jonathan Bourne, one of the most prominent Republicans in southeastern Massachusetts. About a month after the inauguration, however, Mr. Carpenter called upon Mr. Holmes, and told him that he had heard he was to be removed. The very next day came a telegraphic announcement of his removal. A few days later an explanation was sent out that the removal was made for alleged inefficiency. So gross an outrage did Mr. Holmes consider this that he went to Washington in order to seek an explanation. Postmaster-General Wanamaker told him that the removal of Mr. Carpenter was made upon representations of Pay-Director Thornton of the United States Navy, charging inefficiency, dated April 2, endorsed by Congressman Randall under date of April 4. Mr. Wanamaker said that the judgment of such a high official was deemed sufficient cause for the removal, and that the endorsement of the Congressman amply justified it, the Congressman being entitled to represent the wishes of his people at Washington. It was the circumstance of these two letters alone which led to the removal.

Mr. Holmes replied that it was not right. The people, he said, were satisfied with Mr. Carpenter's administration, which had been perfectly efficient, and the spirit of civil-service reform seemed to demand that he should be permitted to serve out his term. The Democrats, upon coming into power, after having been shut out from the offices for twenty-five years, had retained the Republican postmaster for two years, and the comparison which would be drawn would be unfortunate for the Republican party, and it would be difficult to meet the criticism which would surely be made in the fall. He sought to impress the fact that no dissatisfaction or inefficiency existed. He further pointed out that Mr. Thornton was in New Bedford very rarely, and that his only business with the office was the reception of an occasional letter. He had made no complaint, nor had he had any communication with the Postmaster or his clerk. Mr. Wanamaker finally suggested that Mr. Holmes should make a written protest against issuing the commission, which he did, and the Postmaster-General promised to withhold the commission until he could confer with Mr. Randall. Upon his return to New Bedford, Mr. Holmes made further protests by mail against the outrage, but the correspondence was finally closed by this letter from Postmaster-General Wanamaker under date of May 7: "I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your esteemed letter, and say that on further consultation with your representative in Congress the Department has issued a commission to the Postmaster of New Bedford, Mass."

The very feeling tribute of Col. Elliott F. Shepard to the late Allen Thorndike Rice suggests the fitness of his appointment as Mr. Rice's successor as Minister to Russia. Malicious persons insinuated that the Colonel was himself a candidate for this place when Mr. Rice was chosen. They pointed to the fact that while he had abundant words of laudation for all the other new ministers, he said nothing about Mr. Rice. Some said that he refrained from praising Mr. Rice on strictly moral grounds. But this was a mistake, for it is now plain that he always held Mr. Rice in the highest esteem, both morally and intellectually. However that may be, a vacancy exists, and who more fit to succeed to it than a sorrowing brother editor? We hope that President Harrison will avail himself of this opportunity to elevate the tone of our diplomatic service, for although journalism would suffer by the Colonel's absence from this country, the cause of orthodoxy would be strengthened in Russia by the presence at that court of the most religious Republican in the world.

It is scarcely worth while to review formally the work of the New York Legislature which adjourned on Thursday. It passed several excellent measures, including the Saxton Ballot Bill, the Fassett Prison Labor Bill, and the Excise Bill, some of which the Governor may allow to become laws. In general character, the members showed themselves to be inferior to the very low standard of previous years; their conduct in reference to the ceiling scandal and the "deal" bills of this city surpassing in partisan subserviency anything which has been seen at Albany for several years. The Republican members, who were in the majority in both houses, allowed themselves to be moved in solid mass in favor of or against any proposition according as they were ordered by their party boss, "Tom" Platt. They held the Rapid-Transit Bill back until they were ordered to push it ahead in return for promise of offices and patronage from the Mayor of this city. When the Governor failed to sanction this bargain in all its details, they instantly blocked the progress of the bill again, and began fresh negotiations with the Mayor. There was no concealment about these proceedings, and in this respect the late Legislature was the most shameless that we have had since Tweed's time. The Republicans took the ground openly that they were in Albany, not to legislate for the best interest of the State, but to use their power as the majority to levy "blackmail" upon Democratic officials who had offices to bestow.

The ceiling scandal burst upon the Assembly when it first came together in January last. For more than five months it was with the members constantly. They had it investigated by two committees and by two sets of experts. These inquiries showed beyond the shadow of a doubt that the State had been swindled at least $120,000 on a $270,000 contract. It showed also who the guilty parties were. The first investigating committee made a whitewashing report mildly censuring the more guilty, having hastily stopped its inquiry lest more damaging evidence should be forthcoming. This report was so obviously in the interest of the swindlers that even the Assembly could not rest content with it, and a new investigation was ordered, the first report having been adopted in the meantime. The second committee found much more specific evidences of fraud, and would have found still more had not the chief swindlers taken to their heels, carrying with them their incriminating documents. This second committee made a report which, if adopted, would have enabled the State to regain some of its stolen money, would have protected it against further swindling, and would have brought the guilty persons into court. What did the Assembly do in this emergency? Openly and deliberately it took the side of the swindlers by substituting for this second report the first report, which had already been once adopted. This brought the refugees back in full confidence of immunity.

The *Tribune* ventures to say that "the conspicuous and well-known Trusts are all Democratic in management, and operate without regard to the tariff." Then, by way of illustration, it adds that "the Standard Oil owes nothing to the tariff, nor the Cotton-Oil Trust; and the Sugar Trust secretly consorted with Mr. Mills and his Dark-Lantern Committee in the preparation of their free-trade bill, and helped to get it votes." We have no doubt that Democrats are quite as willing as Republicans to make money out of Trusts, but we observe that they are not so successful in that line. When it was charged in the Senate (by Mr. Dawes, we believe) that the Standard Oil Trust was a Democratic concern, Senator Payne replied that every one of its directors was a Republican in politics, and that its ownership was Republican by an overwhelming majority; and nobody ventured afterwards to deny or question the truth of what he said. The Cotton-Oil Trust is now controlled by the Standard Oil Trust —so the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* tells us. The Sugar Trust certainly did all that it could for Harrison and Morton in Brooklyn, and its influence was not inconsiderable. We presume, however, that it "consorted" with all committees at Washington that had anything to do with the tariff. It is the usual course, we believe, of all persons, firms, corporations, and Trusts that enjoy protection under the tariff, to "consort" with those who have tariff bills in their charge, without squeamishness on the subject of politics. If we owned any certificates in the Sugar Trust, we should sell them the very moment we learned that the Trust showed any bashfulness about going to Washington and consorting with any party or committee that happened to be uppermost. The *Tribune* shows a disposition to throw overboard the protective duties that the Trusts feed on, "when protective duties are, in fact, used as a means of restricting production and denying the benefits of protection to consumers." The field of debate here opened is a wide one. Every Trust will be able to show that it does not fall within the *Tribune's* category.

The recent decision by the Inter-State Commerce Commission as to the rights of negro passengers on railroad trains is heartily endorsed by leading Southern newspapers. The decision was rendered in the case of a colored preacher who bought a first-class ticket from Augusta to Atlanta, but was compelled to ride in a "Jim Crow" car, half of which is devoted to smokers. The Commission held that the railroad company may separate passengers according to color, but that it must make the cars provided for white and colored passengers equal in comfort, accommodations, and equipment for persons paying the same fare. "Of course," says the Macon *Telegraph*, "the Commission could have decided this case in no other way. Clean, comfortable cars should be set apart for negro passengers. They are required to pay the same fare as passengers in the best coaches, and no discrimination should be made against them in the matters of accommodations and the preservation of order in their separate cars." The *Telegraph* says that the Central Road sets apart a first-class coach, as good as any on the train, for the exclusive use of colored passengers, and no white person is allowed to ride in that car, as no negro is permitted in the first-class coach for whites. This plan, it thinks, meets the full requirements of justice to all, and it considers it the

most satisfactory arrangement that can be made for both races.

Wool "tops" are admitted at our customhouses at a duty of ten cents per pound, which is the same rate as that of unwashed wool. Tops are pieces of broken yarn which the weaver throws aside as waste. But tops can be used to make good merchantable cloth if there is a sufficient inducement to do so. That there is such an inducement is made clear in a report of Consul Grinnell of Bradford, England, who says that the exportation of tops from that district to the United States during three months has exceeded by more than one million pounds the production of genuine waste in a whole year. The secret of the matter is, that tops are composed of scoured wool, upon which the duty is three times that of wool as it comes from the sheep's back, or thirty cents per pound. It becomes an advantage to the American manufacturer, therefore, to import broken yarn, and, of course, the Bradford spinner or comber is ready to produce anything that there is a market for. So we have the interesting spectacle before us of a foreign manufacturer producing good yarn, and then deteriorating its value by breaking it in small bits in order to get it into this country, where it may be restored by another laborious process to nearly as good condition as before. All this is by the way of "protecting American industry."

The idea of settling the labor problem on some sort of international plan, so that there shall not be any serious competition between the laborers of different countries, has been running in the heads of the labor agitators on the Continent of Europe for a long time. The Swiss Government has so far acceded to their wishes as to call an international conference, to meet at Berne, to arrange for something like uniformity of conditions in the factories of different countries, so that there shall be in all the same hours of labor and the same restrictions on the labor of women and children. All this calls forth from M. Leroy-Beaulieu one of his most vigorous protests in the *Économiste Français*, on the ground that uniformity of manners in different countries, if it could be brought about, would be fatal to our civilization; that uniformity of weights, measures, and money, and of all the laws regulating international dealings, is a good thing, but uniformity of life among the men and women of different countries would put an end to all progress and development, and ought not to be aimed at. He maintains, moreover, that, owing to the difference of the productive power of labor in different countries, uniformity of hours would be the ruin of those countries in which the laborer has, in order to compete with more favored races, to make up for the inferiority of his powers by lengthening his hours of toil. For instance, he points out that, if the Frenchman, Spaniard, Italian, or Hindu were to insist on having as short a day as the Englishman or American, he would be hopelessly beaten in the markets of the world, because he cannot accomplish as much in the hour as the Englishman or American can.

Late European newspapers occupy themselves a good deal with the proceedings of the Catholic Congresses that met during the last week in April and the first in May at Malines, Oporto, Madrid, and Vienna. All these assemblies, which should perhaps be called Ultramontane rather than Catholic or even Roman, spoke with a unanimity which would be surprising if it were not also suspicious. In almost identical words, each demands "the entire and complete sovereignty of the Supreme Head of the Church, which is necessary to him for the fulfilment of his office of pastor and teacher," and each shows covert or open hostility to the Italian Government. Whether all this will end in anything more and worse than talk, nobody can say. The *Temps* seems somewhat alarmed, and thinks that the assemblies are the Council of Clermont of a new crusade, and that Peter the Hermits will not be lacking; but the *Temps* is never overbold. To most eyes the Temporal Power looks like the deadest of all lost causes. One does not forget that the Popes came back again after the Babylonian captivity; but one remembers at the same time that the Babylonian captivity was a long while ago.

This unanimity of the Catholic conferences in demanding the restoration of the temporal power has been followed up, or rather accompanied, by some stern measures in the same direction at Rome. Mgr. Bonomelli, the Bishop of Cremona, lately wrote a pamphlet called 'Rome, Italy, and the Real State of Things,' advocating the establishment of some sort of *modus vivendi* between the Pope and the Italian Government. His pamphlet has just been condemned by the Congregation of the Index, which has special charge of wicked publications, and the author has been compelled to read a retraction of it, and profess his penitence for having written it, in the pulpit of his own cathedral at Cremona. Possibly, however, he may take some comfort in the news that since the condemnation the Secretary of the Congregation who signed the decree, Mgr. Saccheri, has disappeared from Rome, leaving behind numerous debts and mourning creditors.

One of the most curious things in the attitude of the French Radicals is the appetite they show for being offensive to the pious Catholics of the country, still a very large and influential body. There was doubtless much to be done in the way of "laicization" after the Republicans came really into power, owing to the abnormally influential position given to the clergy in French politics under the Empire, and to a sort of superiority to the law which the French Bishops have enjoyed ever since the conquest of Gaul by the Franks. The invaders found the Bishops the only remnant of Roman rule, enjoying great eminence and authority, and were converted and civilized by them; and ever since then the French Bishop has been more of a potentate than his confrères in any other European country except Italy. To the French peasantry since the Revolution he has always figured as the equal of the Prefect and the General commanding the Department, as the representatives of earthly dominion and power. The Republic has therefore hard work in thrusting him "out of politics," as we should say—that is, in making him understand he is neither more nor less than a plain citizen. But the Republicans have in all work of this kind apparently taken pains to offend Catholics and to shock their prejudices. One of the worst things they have done in this direction is their effort to have theological students, heretofore exempt, compelled to serve three years in the army. The Bishops say, with great force, that if this be insisted on, they might as well shut up the seminaries, because, after three years in barracks, it would be impossible to make a priest of any young man, and the material for good priests is already sufficiently scarce. But the more the Bishops protest, the more strenuously the Radicals push their point, and it is probable that disagreement on this question with the Senate will lead to the breakdown of the army bill now pending.

Detailed information regarding the action of the Government in prohibiting speculation in gold on the Bourse of Buenos Ayres shows that it was a rigorous measure rigorously executed. As soon as the new Minister of Finance, Señor Varela, came to his post, he bent all his efforts to reducing the premium on gold. But in spite of all he could do, the price of gold steadily advanced from 135 last December to 160 in February. He attributed this largely to the speculation of the Exchange. In February, the Minister showed, the dealings in gold amounted to $90,000,000, while the actual needs of commerce would not have called for more than $5,000,000. It was on March 20 that the decree was issued declaring all buying and selling of gold, not for immediate delivery and immediate use, to be illegal. More than this, the doors of the Exchange were closed at once by the police and a guard of soldiers stationed before them. The members of the Exchange naturally felt themselves highly aggrieved, and would not agree to live up to the terms of the decree, which was the reason why the Government resorted to extreme measures. The larger part of the press strongly opposes the new law, yet it is popular with the country at large, and there seems to be no immediate prospect of its repeal. The effect upon the price of gold, however, has not been what the Minister of Finance hoped and predicted; that has changed but little since the date of the decree. He maintains, of course, that the speculators are still at work secretly to keep up an artificial price and prove the decree useless. However this may be, with the imports so largely exceeding exports, and especially with such a constant drain of gold to pay interest on the immense foreign loans, a specie basis for the Argentine Republic is not yet in sight.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND ITS PLEDGES.

THE PARTY'S PLEDGE.

The spirit and purpose of the reform [in the civil service] *should be observed in all Executive appointments*, and all laws at variance with the object of existing reform legislation should be repealed, to the end that *the dangers to free institutions which lurk in the power of official patronage* may be wisely and effectually avoided.—*Republican National Platform of 1888.*

THE PRESIDENT'S PLEDGE.

In appointments to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. Only the interest of the public service should suggest removals from office.—*Harrison's Letter of Acceptance.*

HOW THE PLEDGES HAVE BEEN KEPT.

WANAMAKER, JOHN. Appointed Postmaster-General in return for his efforts in raising a large campaign fund during the closing weeks of the Presidential campaign, to be used in securing Harrison's election. Has been a clothing-dealer all his life; took no important part in politics till last year, and never held public office till selected for the Cabinet. Is a professing Christian of unusual activity, and Superintendent of the Bethany Sunday-school in Philadelphia.

CLARKSON, J. S. Appointed First Assistant Postmaster-General in return for his services as Vice-Chairman of the Republican National Campaign Committee. Mr. Clarkson was also the editor of the *Iowa State Register*, which warmly supported Harrison. Since his entry to office he has distinguished himself by the unprecedented rapidity with which he has removed Democratic postmasters and appointed Republicans in their places.

TYNER, JAMES N. Appointed Assistant Attorney-General for the Post-office Department for political services; was formerly First Assistant Postmaster-General, and was asked to resign by President Arthur and Postmaster-General James because he had once been a lobbyist in behalf of the Star-route thieves, who were then being prosecuted, and it was impossible to place any confidence in him.

VAN COTT, CORNELIUS. Appointed Postmaster of New York as a recognition of the Republican Boys, among whom he has long been a leader; has been a professional politician all his life, and at the time of his appointment had no knowledge whatever of the postal business, or any fitness whatever for the duties of the office. In appointing him the President displaced Mr. Pearson, who had held the office for eight years, who had, though a Republican, been retained for four years by President Cleveland, and who had been as efficient a Postmaster as the city or the country had ever had; and thus put the office back into politics, or into a condition from which it had been taken by President Grant when he appointed Mr. James in 1873.

VANDERVOORT, PAUL. Appointed Superintendent of Mails at Omaha as a reward for his services as a politician; held a similar position under Postmaster-General Gresham, and was dismissed by him in 1883 for insubordination, for making false reports to the Department, and for being absent from his post of duty 265 days in one year. The leading Republican newspaper of Nebraska, the Omaha *Bee*, says of him: "Vandervoort is an inveterate braggart and liar. . . . The nickname of 'Vanderbum' is not a slander. It is a matter of common notoriety that Vandervoort's associates, when he was chief clerk, were ward-bummers, roustabouts, and rowdies of the lowest degree. It is notorious that he often detailed railway mail clerks from the service to assist him in packing ward caucuses and fighting at political primaries, and substituted for these regular mail clerks irresponsible vagabonds and bummers who were transported in the mail cars in charge of the mails without even taking the oath. It is notorious that Vandervoort was hired and paid by the Union Pacific Railroad for conducting the legislative oil-rooms at Lincoln, with their drunken orgies and vile methods of decoying members into corruption by downright bribery." These facts about him were published at the time of his appointment, on April 23d last, but he is still retained in the service.

LOVING, J. T. Removed from his clerkship in the Railway Mail Service, and, when he applied to the Superintendent for the cause, was told: "The action was taken in consequence of no fault on your part, or for reasons affecting in any way your character or standing as a citizen. The reasons for your retirement were of a political nature."

CARUTHERS, WILLIAM. Appointed Postmaster at Norwich, Conn., a place having been made for him by the removal of a faithful official fourteen months before the latter's term had expired; under President Cleveland, the Norwich Republican Postmaster had been allowed to serve out his term and two months besides, being retained in office one year and four months after Cleveland came in; but the Democratic Postmaster whom Cleveland appointed, and who has conducted the office on civil-service reform principles, has been removed by Harrison fourteen months before the end of his term, and his successor, within twenty-four hours after taking possession, discharged every Democratic employee except one.

GIFFORD, CHARLES H. Appointed Postmaster at New Bedford, Mass., in spite of the protests of the leading Republican newspaper of the city and of leading Republican politicians, who declared that the Democratic incumbent was an efficient and faithful official, who conducted his office on civil-service reform principles, and should be allowed to serve out his term. The same Republican authorities called attention to the fact that President Cleveland had allowed the preceding incumbent to retain his office two years after the Democratic Administration had come in, and urged that the Harrison Administration maintain the same principle. All protests were in vain; the Democrat was removed without cause two years before his term had expired, and a Republican put in his place.

ROBERTS, ELLIS H. Appointed Assistant United States Treasurer at New York city as a reward for his services in supporting Harrison in the Utica *Herald*, of which he is the editor.

TANNER, JAMES. Appointed Commissioner of Pensions because of his campaign services in rallying the soldier vote; has been a professional soldier politician for many years; has no fitness for the duties of the office, and is an avowed advocate of almost unlimited pensions.

PORTER, ROBERT P. Appointed Superintendent of the Census as a reward for his services in supporting Harrison in the New York *Press*, of which he was the editor. Is a most unfit man for the place; is an Englishman by birth, and was formerly an advocate of free trade. He changed his principles soon after he changed his country, and became a violent and dishonest advocate of protection; wrote a series of letters misrepresenting and maligning his native country, juggling with and distorting figures to make them bear false witness against it; and was caught during the Harrison campaign making a false and misleading quotation from the report of a Parliamentary Commission. His general reputation as an unsafe statistician is so bad that he has felt obliged, since his appointment, to publish a card saying that he will make a "fair and honest census." His appointment is yet to be confirmed by the Senate.

EGAN, PATRICK. Appointed Minister to Chili as a recognition of the value of the votes of the Irish faction led by Patrick Ford; the appointment is said to have been granted as a special favor to Ford. Egan was at the time barely a citizen of the United States, having been in this country only a few years.

REID, WHITELAW. Appointed Minister to France as a reward for supporting Harrison in the New York *Tribune*, of which he was the editor.

HALSTEAD, MURAT. Appointed Minister to Germany as a reward for his services in supporting Harrison in the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, of which he is the editor.

HICKS, JOHN. Appointed Minister to Peru as a recognition of his services in advocating the election of Harrison in the Oshkosh *Northwestern*, a Wisconsin newspaper of which he is the editor; if he has any other qualification for the place, it has escaped mention.

NEW, JOHN C. Appointed Consul-General at London as a reward for his services in supporting Harrison in the Indianapolis *Journal*, of which he was the editor; except for his partisan services he would never have been thought of for the place.

JARRETT, JOHN. Appointed Consul at Birmingham as a reward for organizing laboring men to vote in favor of protection; has

been the paid agent of the heavily protected iron manufacturers to do this work for several years.

HIRSCH, SOLOMON. Appointed Minister to Turkey. He is an Oregon politician of the "Tom" Platt order, has large wealth, but no fitness whatever for office.

PLUMMER, JOHN F. Appointed Government Director of the Union Pacific Railway as a recognition of what the *Tribune* calls his "splendid work" for Harrison, as President of the Republican Dry-Goods Club of New York city: he circulated the forged quotations from the British press by cartloads, after they were known to be forgeries and had been withdrawn from circulation by the Home Market Club of Boston. The *Tribune* says, also, in explanation of his appointment, that he organized the Business Men's Campaign Committee, which "gave generous support to the party."

HARRISON, CARTER B. Appointed United States Marshal in Tennessee because he is the President's brother.

SCOTT, REV. DR. JOHN. Appointed to a small office in Washington Territory because he is the President's father-in-law.

SAUNDERS, ALVIN. Appointed a member of the Board of Registration and Election in Utah Territory, salary $5,000, because he is the father-in-law of the President's son.

MCKEE, FRANK. Appointed Deputy Collector of Customs in Washington Territory because he is a brother of the husband of the President's daughter.

A GOOD BEGINNING.

SECRETARY WINDOM and Assistant-Secretary Tichenor, one or both, are entitled to commendation by taxpayers not only for declaring, in a Treasury order to customs officers issued a few days ago, that a rule laid down in a recent court decision will be carried into practice, but for attaching to the circular order a literal copy of the text of the opinion of the court. To be sure, that decision does not interfere with the *present* effort of manufacturers and protectionists to increase customs taxes by executive order; but it is nevertheless encouraging to see the Treasury return to a practice stopped by Colonel Tichenor's predecessor, which stopping resulted in so much improper conduct and scandal.

We do not dwell upon this subject in order to criticise the doings either of Secretary Fairchild or of Assistant-Secretary Maynard, however great may be the irritation, indeed, the exasperation, which tariff reformers feel on discovering that, while they were toiling during the last Presidential election to reduce customs and surplus taxes, the Treasury was yielding to the intrigues of protectionists in a way to increase such taxes by Treasury order. Mr. Fairchild and Mr. Maynard have both retired from office, and what we now say in regard to their un-Democratic conduct in increasing customs taxes is said in order that tariff reformers may clearly see and appreciate an evil to be "jumped upon" (to use Bishop Potter's phrase), and may discover the tricks by which protectionists can so use the law for the collection of taxes ordered by Congress as to accomplish the levy of taxes which Congress has not ordered. We are dealing with tariff reform and the protection of taxpayers, not with Mr. Fairchild or Mr. Maynard. We are engaged in exhibiting a contrivance to nullify the will of Congress, invented by cunning manufacturers whose agent the Treasury Department consented to be. This protectionist device is so involved in the meshes of intricate customs law that explanation and iteration are needful to enable tariff reformers to comprehend it.

The evidence in our possession does not permit us to doubt that, as soon as the Supreme Court decision in the Langfeld hat-trimming case was made in March of last year, the silk-manufacturers injured thereby began intrigues at the Treasury Department to nullify the effect of the decision. That was accomplished by inducing the Treasury not to send to customs officers the text of the decision, but, on April 25, 1888, to issue instead a circular purporting to give the *effect* of the decision, while in fact giving a misleading interpretation. In that circular, signed by Mr. Maynard, he told the customs officers that the suit was decided in favor of the importers because the velvets in controversy were "commercially known as trimmings, and were generally used for that purpose in making or ornamenting hats, bonnets, or hoods." That was a cunning protectionist misstatement of the decision. The Supreme Court did not say that the velvets were "*commercially* known as trimmings." The language of the Court is: "There was no controversy in the evidence as to whether these velvet ribbons were or were not trimmings." Nothing was said about the commercial meaning of "trimmings," or whether the word had in 1883 a commercial as distinct from a popular meaning. Having adopted that cunning protectionist gloss, Mr. Maynard then told customs officers that, under the decision of the Court, they must thereafter find, in order to levy the lowest rate of 20 per cent. (1), that the fabric was "*commercially* known" in 1883 as "trimmings," and (2) "chiefly used in making or ornamenting hats, bonnets, and hoods." The result of that interpretation enabled the manufacturers to bring about the levy of 50 per cent. on what the Supreme Court had said should pay only 20 per cent. Tariff reformers may hesitate to believe that protectionists did or could accomplish such Treasury falsification of a decision by the Supreme Court, and to convince them we will present some of the facts which are before us.

On May 31, 1888, Collector Magone wrote to the Treasury Department describing an importation, and declaring that, under the decision of the Court in Langfeld's case, he had directed taxes to be levied thereon at 20 per cent. Naval-Officer Burt refused to liquidate the entry at that rate, and insisted that the legal rate should be 50 per cent., under the Treasury circular of the previous April. Here was a situation which required prompt treatment by protectionists. What happened? Assistant-Secretary Maynard wrote to Collector Magone as follows: "It has been represented to the Department, at a personal interview, by Mr. Cheney and other silk-manufacturers, that some doubts exist in the minds of the appraising officers at your port as to the scope of the Department's instructions of the 25th ultimo, addressed to the Collector at Philadelphia, *for the purpose* of carrying out the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of Langfeld against Hartranft, setting forth the general principles regarding the classification of imported hat materials and trimmings." And thereafter, on June 29, 1888, he wrote to those in New York who, in the controversy, represented the importers, "that, in view of the differences in opinions and practices which exist among the officers of the customs, the question as to the classification of such articles is to be submitted to the Board of United States Appraisers for their consideration at the conference to be held in New York on the second Monday of July next." The importers were invited to submit their views at that time. On July 7, 1888, the importers replied to Mr. Maynard that they could not "assent to the usefulness or propriety of subjecting the decision of the United States Supreme Court to any review for the purposes of administration, or otherwise, by a board *not recognized by law*"; but yet, if such a course was to be adopted by the Treasury, it would be "of course essential that the Board selected by the Department should be possessed officially of the text of the decision," and that the Board should be distinctly told by the Treasury that the Appraisers are "to be guided by the decisions of the United States Supreme Court *as officially reported*." In the reply by the Treasury, dated July 11, 1888, it was said: "The Conference already has the decision of the United States Supreme Court of the Langfeld case, which was promulgated in the Department decision of April 25, 1888." Here the intrigue, begun by the protectionists, is clearly disclosed. The importers asked that the text of the decision of the Court be submitted to the Conference, and not the interpretation "promulgated" by Mr. Maynard.

In answer, the importers, on July 12, 1888, wrote to the Department that the circular of April 25, 1888, "contains neither the language of the decision of the Supreme Court nor the text of the statute." They added that "it may be of interest to the Department to know that the omission of a copy of the decision in the Langfeld case from any instructions hitherto officially published by the Department, has been a constant matter of comment, if not embarrassment, to numerous customs officials who have had occasion to act upon it." On July 17, 1888, Mr. Maynard declined to furnish the customs officers with the text of the decision of the court, declaring that the circular of April 25, 1888, had been "promulgated for the purpose of carrying into effect the decision," and must be sufficient. The result was that the Conference, being constrained by Mr. Maynard's misleading interpretation of the decision, practically over-

ruled the Supreme Court, and ever since taxes on fabrics similar to those then in controversy have been levied at 50 per cent., which the Court distinctly said should only be 20 per cent.

This careful explanation of what was done in the Treasury during the last part of President Cleveland's term has been necessary to convince tariff-reformers that Secretary Windom deserves commendation by taxpayers for returning to the former Treasury practice and sending to customs officers the text of the decision of the courts.

WANTON REMOVALS OF DIPLOMATIC AGENTS.

WILL somebody tell us why either our diplomatic (or even our consular) officers should all be removed, or (which is the same thing) be constrained to resign, every four years? Why should Mr. Morton, for example, have been compelled to resign to Cleveland his office of Minister at Paris, or Mr. McLane to resign to Harrison? Why can we not have a diplomatic career as well as a military career? A law of Congress, not enacted till 1866, forbids a President to remove a naval or army officer excepting in pursuance of a sentence by a court-martial, and neither our liberties nor our welfare have thereby been endangered. Why cannot a law of Congress, of half-a-dozen lines, empower the President to transfer a diplomatic agent from one post to another, modifying his grade and rank, without sending his name to the Senate as a new appointment? Can anybody tell us?

When Lincoln came in, the country was in a peculiar condition, and a general removal of Buchanan's appointments may have been necessary. But the civil war is past. Why compel the displacement of Mr. Phelps at London, or why constrain hereafter the resignation of Mr. Robert Lincoln if he shall prove competent? And if secretaries are efficient and progressive, why displace them, instead of making them fit for promotion? Of course, Cleveland made, in the general rush for removals four years ago, a few bad selections for foreign missions. He should have removed those bad ones when their unfitness became apparent, but he did not, and those Harrison should displace. But should Harrison compel good and bad alike to resign? Apart from personal unfitness, we challenge everybody to give an adequate reason for changing any of our diplomatic or consular officers as Cleveland did and as Harrison is doing. There were no critical foreign questions in 1885, and there are none now in 1889, to justify, or even excuse, such changes. It is undiplomatic for the President to announce to foreign governments a change in party power at Washington. Van Buren, as Secretary of State, was condemned, and refused confirmation by the Senate as Minister to England, for formally authorizing Louis McLane to say as much to the British Minister of Foreign Affairs. If it were not permissible in that form, it should not be in any other form.

It is absurd to make diplomatic changes simply that diplomatic agents abroad may be more complaisant, in a social way, to members of one political party at home than to members of another. Diplomatic agents are not sent abroad to serve individuals in a social way, but to serve the State Department. They are not employed to dine their countrymen or be their commercial or social agents. No diplomatic European agent in Washington thus conducts himself towards his countrymen, or, if he does, his colleagues treat him as an outsider and an interloper. When he performs his work well at the State Department, he has done what he was commissioned to do. No European government selects a diplomatic agent for Washington merely because he is rich, and will take a big house, and will give promiscuous dinners. The day for that sort of business has gone by. A Secretary of State is not to be influenced in diplomacy by those outsiders in Washington who eat a foreign minister's dinners and do society talking. The same sort of qualities win nowadays in practising at foreign courts as in practising before a court of justice. Oftentimes, and generally, the most silent and unattractive men in society and at dinner-tables are they who best manage diplomatic questions. The client and master of a diplomatic agent are not his individual countrymen, but the Minister of Foreign Affairs. Popular speakers, ready writers of letters to their countrymen, and social celebrities, are sometimes the very worst of diplomatic agents. Why, then, when we have trained a good diplomatic or consular agent, do we not keep him in the business?

The *Tribune's* London Squire, writing a letter to New York containing hints to the new Republican Consul-General at London about the proper use of a "swallow-tail coat," has much to say about diplomatic and consular agents, and, among other things, these:

> "The functions of the Consul are primarily commercial; those of the Diplomatist are primarily diplomatic, and Talleyrand is responsible for the maxim that the most important work in diplomacy is often, if not always, social. Society is of no consequence to the Consul as Consul; to the Minister it is of great consequence, and he in return is of some consequence to society."

What are the secondary functions of American diplomatic and consular agents? The "Squire" probably will say the American Minister should be a social "swell." Why, and to what Government end? Since Talleyrand's day all has been changed. The discussion or decision of what diplomatic question pending at London during the last twenty years between England and our country could have been aided, in a way favorable to us, by the social consideration of our Minister outside of the British Foreign Office? When American citizens were imprisoned in Ireland as Irish suspects, was the dining-room or ball-room estimation of our Minister of any appreciable service to our incarcerated fellow-citizens? If the fishery question had been left at London (as it should have been), to be managed by Mr. Phelps, after his powerful notes written to the Earls of Rosebery and Iddesleigh, would a welcome at levees and drawing-rooms, state balls and state concerts have much aided our Minister so to present our "case" at the Foreign Office as to constrain assent? The "Squire" pricks the bubble when he says—

> "To go into the origin of things would carry us too far. Let us be content with them as they are; and as they are, it is to be said that the American, if such there be, who has social ambitions in England, has taken a step towards gratifying them when he has got a diplomatic appointment. It is diplomacy which opened the first door, which gave him the chance; a chance by which many and many worthy young men who sued for a secretaryship and got it, and thought they had got everything with it, have never profited. But that is their fault or their misfortune; not the fault of circumstances or of their position."

The truth is, that when men like the Squire think they are describing successful diplomatists, they are only describing smart Americans who swim well in London because floated, in the beginning, by a diplomatic appointment compelling their recognition. Men like Mr. Adams or Mr. Phelps would be great American diplomatic agents if the Squire's London society knew them not; and for that very reason they should not be removed or compelled to resign.

THE WICKED PROFESSORS.

THEY are at it again—those wicked professors who teach political economy in our colleges and universities. So we learn from the Detroit *Tribune* of May 14, which announces the damning fact under the following head lines:

WHAT MEANS THIS?

FREE TRADE IS TAUGHT AT MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY.

AND THIS DESPITE THE FACT THAT THE MAJORITY WHO ARE TAXED FOR IT ARE PROTECTIONISTS.

PROF. H. C. ADAMS OPPOSES THE AMERICAN SYSTEM.

HE STRENUOUSLY ADVOCATES THE CLEVELAND-MILLS DOCTRINES ON THE TARIFF QUESTION.

During the campaign last year we adverted to the fact that the Chicago platform had no defenders in our colleges, and that the Republican party, in tying itself to such a carcass, must soon lose its character as the representative of the higher intellectual life of the nation. What we said was strikingly verified, a few days before the close of the campaign, when Prof. Bowen of Harvard was invited to write a letter for a Republican meeting at Cambridge, and replied, in hot indignation, that he intended to vote for Cleveland and Thurman. Prof. Bowen said that he had not changed his views on the subject of protection, but that the present tariff was tyranny and not protection. "It is crushing our native industries," he said. "It is taxing nearly all the necessaries of life, and thereby driving our native workmen into numerous and riotous attempts to raise the rate of wages upon which they can no longer subsist. It taxes the artisan and common laborer in his necessary condiments, his daily food, in his clothing, tools, and materials; and this taxation must be kept up, at James G. Blaine's bidding, by the whole Republican party, in order to add a further surplus of about $100,000,000 a year to the many tons

of gold and silver which are already lying idle in the National Treasury." This testimony from the author of the well-known text-book entitled 'American Political Economy' was one of the severest blows that the Republican party received in the campaign, but it came too late to be effective.

The offence of Prof. H. C. Adams is akin to Prof. Bowen's in this, that he considers the question of present importance to be, "not whether a restrictive or a liberal commercial policy is correct in theory, but whether this country has reached a point in its industrial development where it can advantageously drop the restrictions which it has chosen thus far to retain." In a series of lectures to the students of Michigan University, he answers this question in the affirmative, giving a variety of reasons for his opinion. For example, he asks what classes of people are now benefited by the maintenance of a protective tariff, answering his own question in this way, according to the Detroit *Tribune*:

(a.) It is neither the laborer nor the holder of uninvested capital. The proof of this assertion is found in an analysis of industrial occupations in the United States.

(b.) Protection benefits the owners of real estate who, either by situation or peculiarity of product, can, through the medium of the tariff, maintain a monopoly of the home market. The "rental" upon mines, pine forests, and the like is increased by protective duties.

(c.) Protection benefits those who, granted monopoly of the home market by the tariff, are secured against competition at home by patents, or secure themselves against competition by means of trade combinations.

The mass of the American people lie outside these classes.

If a suitable measure of tariff reform were enacted, including the admission of all raw materials of manufacture free of duty, Prof. Adams holds that the purchasing power of wages, salaries, incomes from fixed investments, and self-supporting industries would be greatly increased, and that the United States would take her proper place among the nations of the world as a great commercial nation. These doctrines, the Detroit *Tribune* maintains, were "repudiated by the voters" last fall, and therefore ought not to be taught at the University of Michigan; or, at all events, "a fair presentation should be made of the economic theories adopted by a majority of the people," and "text-books in harmony with those theories should be in the hands of the students."

"We have to deal with a time," said Mr. Lowell in his Harvard Centennial Address, "when the belief seems to be spreading that truth not only can, but should be, settled by a show of hands rather than by a count of heads." The idea that nothing should be taught that is not approved by a majority of the people, presupposes that the majority are as wise as the professors in universities; whereas, if this were the case, there would be no need of universities. Everybody being competent to decide scientific questions, the higher institutions of learning might be shut up, and a great saving of expense effected. Moreover, we must remind our Detroit contemporary that there are no text-books in existence which teach the contrary of what Prof. Adams teaches. There are some that tell us that protection is a good thing for a new country, by way of starting up and diversifying industries. Prof. Bowen tells us these things in his 'American Political Economy'; Frederick List tells us the same—and we observe that Prof. Adams was particular to cite List as an authority on that side. Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson tells us the same. But none of them say that protection is a good permanent policy for a nation, for they all know that that would be sheer spoliation of the many for the benefit of the few. Nor do any of them advocate duties on the raw materials of manufacture. They all know that such duties are in violation of their own theory. But it is one of the grounds of bitter complaint against Prof. Adams that he teaches that duties on wool, lumber, minerals, and dyestuffs are opposed equally to the theories of protection and of free trade.

It would seem to be necessary, therefore, for the editor of the Detroit *Tribune* to prepare a text-book of the kind that he wants, in order to get the right doctrines before the students of Michigan University, for we assure him there are none in the English or in any modern European tongue. Such a book would embrace two leading theses: (1) that protection of copper, for example, is a good permanent policy for a nation, whether copper can be produced here more cheaply than abroad or not; (2) that duties on raw materials should be maintained, whether they tend to cripple manufactures or not. We should like to see such a text-book. We wonder that some far-seeing philanthropist like Mr. Joseph Wharton does not offer a prize for one.

LONDON PICTURES.

London, May 7, 1889.

The second summer exhibition at the New Gallery, which opened last week, is full of interesting work of different schools of painting: realists, impressionists, and idealists hang side by side on the walls, and if the proximity is often trying, the space always left around each work does much to promote harmony.

The excellence of the exhibition is due to the energy of the directors, who began the rounds of selection in the artists' studios at a very early date, and secured what seemed to them most desirable before the works were far advanced enough to have been promised either to the Grosvenor or to the Academy. To the artists the certainty of being advantageously hung was an opportunity not to be foregone. It is always a great risk sending to the Academy, where so many thousands of works are refused yearly for want of space, and where, if accepted, an outsider is liable to see his work skied or floored, and, at the best, fitted close beside four other works. There is no time in such a large collection to treat each artist's work with the consideration he claims for it, and hopes it will receive; the pictures must be packed closely together in order to admit as many as possible. The experience of those who sent last year to the Grosvenor was such as to free them from any sense of obligation to Sir Coutts Lindsay. Several prominent artists, after having been specially invited, had their works returned to them at the last minute with but scant courtesy; to the younger men, in less affluent circumstances, who relied on exhibiting their work, this treatment was a serious loss.

The exhibition this year owes its greatest attraction to the many and various works of Mr. G. F. Watts. His contributions are eight in number. These alone would be sufficient to satisfy the demands of a very large section of the public, for no artist appeals so completely to all classes and all tastes, perhaps, through the wide range of his subjects, the masterly execution, the breadth of treatment, and the great ideal qualities in his work. No. 1, a very forcible study of "A Wounded Heron," was painted at the age of twenty, and was the first picture Mr. Watts exhibited at the Royal Academy of 1837. It is a very realistic piece of painting, which indicates that it is only given to those who have approached nature with reverence to attain the power of creating the ideal so that it should be in sympathy with our modern requirements. "Fog off Corsica" and the "Sea-Ghost" are two subtle studies of mist, sky, and sea, very exquisite in delicate color, and full of opalescent light. In the "Sea-Ghost" an abandoned ship towers out of the mist with gruesome effect. A fine example of the artist's treatment of landscape is the "Sant' Agnese, Mentone," in which a village on the mountain-top meets the clouds. Here we note how Watts infuses a beauty all his own into the simplest subject without destroying truth to nature. In "Good Luck to your Fishing," No. 33, we see a roguish little Cupid hovering over a blue wave after having flung his line, watching patiently for the bite of a fish. The flesh painting here reminds one of Titian in its golden splendor and in the simple, clear modelling of the child's back. The wave, with its crest of foam, is also scintillating in light; the harmony of rich, warm blue, flesh color and creamy white is very delightful.

"Fata Morgana," the most important work shown here, dominates the West Gallery, and is without doubt one of Mr. Watts's masterpieces. It is a design of early date, entirely repainted last year with all the skill and beauty of flesh painting, all the magic of touch, acquired by long experience and practice. The "Fata Morgana" described in Boiardo's 'Orlando Innamorato' floats towards us, with hair sweeping backwards in a deep curve, just eluding the knight who, hot and impatient, seems just about to grasp her. The tangle of trees and creepers through which they seem to be swiftly moving, the draperies carried backwards by the air, the naked figure of the woman, so thoroughly ideal in color and drawing—every line in this design seems to carry out the intention. The picture is throughout full of the richest, deepest color. The knight's helmet gleams blue among the trees, his draperies are of scarlet and orange, and patches of bright blue distance show through the green leaves and brown tree trunks. The contrast between the fair flesh of the will-o'-the-wisp, her smiling, voluptuous face, and flying tawny locks, and the eager brown, manly head of the knight, is very telling.

In "Plutus's Wife," No. 184, we again have an example of flesh painting which is very characteristic and fine in color, but the design is less attractive; we should have liked to see more of the face, which is rolling among gorgeous pillows with wealth of golden hair dishevelled, holding golden coin in her clenched hand. The moral of the picture is obvious: we are convinced that the face would be discontented and unpleasant, but still we cannot help wishing she had visible features as a termination to her splendid throat.

Mr. Burne-Jones sends no picture this year;

it would be too much to expect even of him that he should be prepared to exhibit each year works of such importance and perfection of workmanship as those which hung on these walls last spring. His contributions are limited to drawings in silver-point in the Balcony—studies of the nude, of heads, and of draperies for his pictures, and one nearly life-size figure of Flora in blue and gold, very highly finished and extremely decorative in effect; both, qualities one has learned to expect of this master. Mr. Strudwick may be deemed the one successful follower of Burne-Jones (or rather of his method of painting, for his choice of subjects is very different, and he always does work on a small scale and with even greater finish). He is unfortunately lacking in spontaneity, and does not seem to receive all the appreciation his work deserves. "The Ramparts of God's House," No. 13, is a marvel of delicate execution. It represents souls arriving in heaven. They have the form of beautiful human beings; the Recording Angel sits, book in hand, questioning as they pass; other angels, with wings of great size and prismatic shimmer, holding different offices, are distributed about the ramparts. One angel, sword in hand, stands at the gate to receive the last arrival, who is climbing the steep stairs across which clouds are floating. Some of the angels are playing musical instruments, others are holding wreaths. In the background we see the happy souls sitting in God's house, which is covered with red tiles, with a belfry above in which two large bells are pealing. The principal incident in the foreground is the reception of the "one sinner who repenteth"—the only man in the picture. His nude figure is admirably drawn: he stands with downcast head in a despondent attitude, while beautiful angels are encouraging him to advance with great rejoicing. The tone of flesh is always pale and *matt* in Strudwick's heads; yet he gets an amount of drawing and modelling in each which is quite marvellous, considering their size. The draperies in countless folds recall Mantegna in their crispness and perfection of execution. They are also painted over gold, which adds to their richness of color. The flowers and all accessories are always so right in key of color that there is never any rude transition from ideal to real.

In Mr. Spencer Stanhope's "In Memoriam," No. 88, there is pathetic sentiment and a charming fresco-like quality of color. The girl, who sits at a cemetery gate clad in red, blue and white, holding a dead bird in her hand, looks full of sorrow. It is to be regretted that the head is so wanting in drawing and modelling. The background, an autumnal aspect of the old city walls by the Jews' Burial-ground, Florence, is picturesque and well rendered; as the walls are now being destroyed by removal, the picture has the additional interest of a record.

W. B. Richmond's "Death of Ulysses" is very impressive in composition, and in the solemn chord of color he has struck so suitable to the subject; but by reason of the subject—the futility of human life, the inevitable decrepitude which falls on the strongest—it is not likely to be a popular work. The architectural arrangement of the columns, partly gold, partly stone, leading up to the couch beneath a semicircular window, through which one sees reflections of the setting sun in the sky, is well imagined. As the darkness within, contrasted with the light without, the two aged figures of Ulysses and Penelope look abandoned, and fill one with compassion, so that the picture tells its story, only it is a very sad one. The portrait of Mrs. Buxton, by the same artist, No. 74, is very fine. The color is full and dignified, and we prefer the simple treatment of this charming woman's portrait to his more elaborate attempt, No. 207, "Portrait of the Countess Grosvenor." The evident effort to keep everything light has spoiled the general effect, and the work looks pale and washy, although a careful observer will note with what care the landscape through the circular window surrounding the head is painted, and how well the draperies are arranged and finished. With all this, the picture recalls the obsolete keepsake style of portrait.

Mr. John Sargent's "Ellen Terry as *Lady Macbeth*" will certainly furnish more conversation than any other picture this season. Long before the New Gallery opened, lovers of art had flocked to his studio to gaze upon it, and try to form some opinion concerning its merits. It had been shown at the Dramatic Club, also, so that many had the advantage of being prepared for its remarkable qualities. The work of Mr. Sargent is always very striking because of its sincerity in the first place, and then because he possesses the audacity of trying new effects. His figures have always a living quality about them which distinguishes them from among the conventional portraits that make exhibition walls so dull. In this instance Mr. Sargent has had a splendid opportunity both in subject and costume. *Lady Macbeth* stands before us in a magnificent blue-green dress, covered with beetles' wings, closely fitting the figure, but falling in folds from below the waist. Her long hanging sleeves lined with green sweep the ground; her thick red hair, in two heavy plaits bound with gold, hangs on either side of her. She is holding above her head, with upraised arm, the crown; her eyes, which are fixed on it, seem to gloat triumphantly on it, as with satisfied ambition tempered with a gleam of horror at the remembrance of the crime. The figure, thus clad in strong peacock blue and green, sparkling with the gold of the beetles' wings, stands against a background of bright dark blue. The scheme of color suggests a Limoges enamel in its vividness. The background, however, does not keep its place, but obtrudes itself with a pertinacity which recalls the vulgarity of Reckitt's advertisement. The face, too, is painted with all the make-up as for the footlights, and Miss Terry is not a very skilful artist on her own face. The color is ghastly. With red, half-opened lips, frowning brows, and pale glassy eyes, beneath which black dabs mark too violently the outer corners, the face looks like a mask. On the stage, the effect and light alter everything; but one regrets that the artist should have faithfully rendered in cruel studio daylight this aspect of Miss Terry's fine, expressive face. The painting of the dress is very admirable in touch, and has a surprising effect of facility: it is rather an effort of the school to which Sargent belongs to appear to do their work without effort.

Another important contributor is Alma-Tadema, whose delightful little picture of two girls reading a papyrus, "A Favorite Author," No. 8, contains the usual careful painting of marble and draperies in harmonious colors, with a view from an open window of trees and a sunlit palace and blue sky. The figures, on a small scale, are admirably drawn in natural attitudes. This is the kind of picture Mr. Tadema is most successful in, although the three portraits he exhibits are also very fine—thoroughly studied and striking as likenesses. Mrs. Alma-Tadema sends two pictures, also very remarkable in execution, almost worthy of some old Dutch master in dexterous rendering of textures and still life. "A Summer Sabbath," No. 19, represents a girl asleep over her Bible; the drowsiness of the day is expressed in every detail. In "Soon Ready," No. 98, we see a little girl with her back towards us holding up her hand, having her dress laced by a maid kneeling beside her, while her grandmother, in walking-dress at the door, is waiting for her. A wardrobe, open and full of costumes, fills the background, and gives great scope to Mrs. Tadema's power of rendering stuffs and embroidery; the woodwork, too, is perfectly painted. Another woman artist, whose work is very attractive because of its force and gift of laying on color, is Mrs. Swynnerton. There is such a healthy feeling, as of country air, in her work, that one is arrested by it; and although she does not seem to possess the faculty of expressing beauty in the heads she paints, her sincerity wins us, and we do not feel much inclined to insist on the want of proportion in the sizes of the figures in the "Story of a Princess," or in the manner in which the full-length portrait of Miss L. Wilkinson seems to grow out of the large blue-bells and grass around her, without any suggestion of feet.

Besides a number of studies and portraits in silver-point in the Balcony, very remarkable for purity of line and firm drawing, Professor Alphonse Legros sends two large landscapes, refined in color but rather gray and wanting in interest. Mr. J. M. Swan's pictures are attracting a great deal of attention this year at all the exhibitions, and to this one he has sent "Polar Bears Swimming."

> "We were the first that ever burst
> Into that silent sea."

The movement of swimming is perfectly expressed. The bears, in a phalanx, are invading a cold, iceberg-surrounded gulf; all in the picture is white, and yet it is forcible and full of color. Mr. Arthur Lemon, in No. 97, "A Mid-Day Bath," sends an impressionist picture of great merit—a small child with no clothing, save a very much torn straw hat, in full sunlight, riding one horse into the sea and dragging in another. The horses are nearly up to the knees in water, and are naturally restive under the circumstances. The whole picture is full of sunlight, and the drawing throughout and movement are masterly. We only regret an unnecessary degree of realism in the little boy, whose body is wanting in beauty of form.

Mr. La Thangue, another impressionist sends an immense canvas on which is the portrait of a lady in full evening dress sitting by the fire—painted by lamplight. It has an astonishingly real effect, but is not agreeable as a work of art. Signor Giovanni Costa, a Roman painter of great distinction, has several interesting landscapes, and a figure he calls Virginia de Monti, a girl carrying on her head a basket of weeds. There is too much similarity in the color of earth and of the flesh to make it a pleasing work.

The exhibition is very rich in excellent landscapes of the English school. J. W. North's "Winter Passing Away" is one of the truest and most poetic renderings of the first breath of spring over the still brown earth and leafless trees. Mr. Alfred Parsons's "On Mendip" has a field of daffodils just bursting into bloom in the foreground, and beyond a gray road with cottages the distance is steeped in a blue haze with daffodil sky above. Mr. Boughton's "May Morning in the Isle of Wight" is a green dip between the cliffs: one solitary straggling tree to the right, and, beyond, gray-blue sea and sky meeting in the horizon. Mr. Parsons's "A Backwater," No. 143, is also full of charm; he seems to have given up his rather impressionist manner of painting trees, and to have found an infinitely better method.

A very interesting little piece is the portrait of G. F. Watts at work on his colossal statue, "Vital Energy," by Philip Burne-Jones. The sculptor's studio is painted with great skill and patient fidelity of detail, and the great artist stands in holland pinafore in front of his statue, in an attitude which those who know him will recognize as peculiarly his own while discoursing on his work. "Lord Rayleigh at Work in his Laboratory," also by Burne-Jones, shows that this young painter has struck out in a line he makes his own with great success.

The sculpture gallery has but few works of note. We observe the "Clytie" of Watts, which we have seen before at the Academy; a bronze bust portrait by Onslow Ford; Boehm's Sir H. Layard and John Bright; and less interesting though more ambitious works.

A FEW ANCIENT SITES.—I.

Niffer Mounds, Turkey, March 15, 1889.

One of the few points on the Euphrates which can be found on the maps, and which I shall therefore choose as the point of departure for the identification of my first site, is Meskene, the place to which the enterprising Midhat Pasha succeeded in navigating the Euphrates with steamboats a few years since. Meskene is a Turkish military post (not a town or village), situated at the point where the present caravan route from Aleppo to Bagdad enters the Euphrates valley, a little south of east from the former city, and just below the thirty-sixth parallel of north latitude. Three-quarters of an hour below this are the interesting Arabic ruins given by Kiepert as Kala'at Balis (I could only hear the name Old Meskene) and identified with Barbalissus. Below this the river approaches the western plateau, and for several miles almost washes the foot of the great white cliffs, two or three hundred feet high. This plateau is a plain of gypsum, extending backward into the desert, through which the Euphrates has worn its channel. At the end of these cliffs, on a promontory of the plateau, where the plateau itself becomes lower, and the river bed widens into a broad fertile plain, about nine miles below Meskene, stand the ruins called Kala'at Dibse.

The ruins now visible, like almost all the ruins of this part of the country, are of mediæval Arabic date, of brick, and rather insignificant; but the name and the site are suggestive of something more important. Sachau, in his 'Reise durch Mesopotamien und Syrien,' seeks to identify El Hammam, a day and a half further eastward, with Tiphsah of the Bible, the Thapsacus of Greek and Roman writers, the most important city of this section of the Euphrates valley. So far as I know, he had no other ground for this identification than the certainty that Thapsacus must have been in this neighborhood, and the fact that there were ruins at El Hammam. He was unable to visit the latter place. We spent a night there. There is neither village nor military station, and we encamped in the plain, close to the tamarisk jungle that borders the Euphrates at this point. Fires and armed soldiers, our escort, guarded us from the lions which every one declares to abound in the jungles of the upper Euphrates, but of which we could never find any traces, beyond stories of death and awful mutilation retailed by the native Arabs.

The ruins of El Hammam are insignificant, situated on a low plateau, a couple of miles from the river. The name, "the hot baths," suggests a watering place or health resort, and I am inclined to suppose that, like so many other sites bearing the same name, it was a small place, owing its existence merely to the presence of warm springs, an abundance of which are found in the same geological formation further down the river. On the other hand, the name Dibse seems to perpetuate that of Tiphsah. The site of Dibse, also, commanding a fertile plain, and backed by a narrow defile along the river to the northeast, is favorable for the erection of an important city. Moreover, this site would permit the ready communication with the west which historical references seem to require for Tiphsahor Thapsacus. The fact that the visible ruins are of late date does not militate against this argument from the name and situation, for many of these ancient sites were occupied by successive possessors of the country, for the reasons which gave them their original importance, until a comparatively recent period.

Sachau also failed to visit Halebiyeh, only seeing it from the less important Zelebiyeh on the eastern bank of the river. His description is therefore necessarily inaccurate. The place lies on the west bank of the Euphrates, some thirty miles northwest of Deir, at about 35° 30′ north latitude, and 40° east longitude. It is situated in a side valley of El Hamme, a trachite ridge, through which the Euphrates forces its way by a narrow gorge. As the present caravan route does not follow the river at this point, we were compelled to make a considerable détour in order to visit it. This deflection of the caravan route is probably the reason why it has not been more fully described hitherto. The walls still stand, in the form of a triangle, the shortest side parallel with the river, which here runs due north and south. The apex of the triangle is a very steep, isolated hill, separated from the ridge beyond by a deep valley. The total circumference of the walls cannot be more than a mile and a quarter, and is probably somewhat less. They are still well preserved all around, although built of gypsum, which decomposes very rapidly. The stone was laid in massive, rectangular, oblong blocks. The walls themselves average thirty to forty feet in height, and are strengthened by massive towers every 150 to 200 feet.

Towards the top of the hill on the north, half within and half without the wall, on a bluff, was a large, fine building, perhaps once the official residence of the governor or commander. Two of the original three stories are still preserved, domed within with brick, as were also the rooms in the gate and wall towers, in what may be called an early Byzantine style. Opposite one another in the lower part of the city, on the northern and southern sides, were the two main gates. There was a smaller gate in the southern wall at the foot of the acropolis, and two more on the river front. Between the main gates ran a straight street paved with gypsum. To the west of this were troughs and columns, marking the remains of what seemed to have been a market place, and, hard by, two buildings with apses, exactly oriented, which, so far as the visible remains were concerned, might have been churches. In one of these Mr. Field found a small piece of moulding in what, for forgetfulness of the proper technical term, I shall venture to describe as a square dog's-tooth pattern. This was the only ornamentation found anywhere. On the eastern side of the street, towards the river wall, were found a couple of capitals, one of them Corinthian, of a late, transitional style. Otherwise, the space within the walls below the acropolis was bare of ruins or remains above the surface. At the acropolis the southern wall seemed to have been destroyed, and then rebuilt with fragments of trachite, such as are scattered everywhere about the city. Here there were also remains of a building with underground vaults in brick of a later date than the buildings described above. The valleys about the town were almost ravines, utterly sterile, and thickly covered with fragments of trachite. On all sides were tombs, some cut in the rock and some built upon it, the latter not unlike the Palmyrene tombs in style, but ruder. To the south were traces of two rough walls of trachite across the valley; and a mile below, where the river rounds the last point of the Hamme ridge, a gypsum wall or fort, commanding both road and river, as though danger were especially apprehended from the south.

What the ancient name and history of the place were is not known, I believe. I should suppose it to have been a frontier post of the Roman Empire in the fourth or fifth century A. D., and afterwards to have been occupied by the Arabs, the present acropolis dating from the latter period. It never could have accommodated a large population, and the character of the region in which it is situated shows that that was not the purpose for which it was built. On the other hand, it must have been a strong fortress, and well calculated to hold the line of the Euphrates against an invader, especially when supported by the smaller fortress of Zelebiyeh on the heights opposite; for the Hamme gorge is a natural point of strategic importance.

Three and a half days beyond Halebiyeh, and two days beyond the present town of Deir, the most important place between Aleppo and Bagdad, in north latitude 34° 45′ and longitude 41° east, lies another ruin of somewhat similar character, now called Kan Kalessi, or Bloody Castle. This has been visited, and, I think, described by other explorers. It is situated on the bluffs of the gypsum plateau, close to the west bank of the Euphrates, and not far from the modern Turkish barracks, or post khan, of Es-Salihiyeh. It was built in a rectangular shape, so far as the curving bluffs allowed, the citadel standing on a point of rock jutting out into the valley on the northeast. The southwestern wall, on the side towards the plateau, was about half a mile long, running from ravine to ravine, and supported by eleven towers. This wall was ten feet in breadth, and still stands to the height of fifteen feet. The central gate towers, very massive structures, rise thirty or forty feet, the more northerly having the second story almost intact. Everything, including the foundations at least of the houses, was built of the same crumbling gypsum as at Halebiyeh. The streets, which are regularly laid out at right angles with one another, and are easily traceable between the foundations of the houses, were some fifty feet broad. Outside of the walls are a few ruins, some of them quite massive, which may have been tombs. The whole gives the impression of a Roman town, designed to hold the Arabs in check, like the Turkish town of Deir at the present day.

I am writing at a distance from all books of reference, thrown on the resources of a memory not over-good, and of a knowledge of the later history of the Euphrates valley not so extensive as I could desire. It may be that some of your readers can supply my defective knowledge, and identify satisfactorily these two sites, Halebiyeh and Kan Kalessi.

John P. Peters.

SMOLLETT IN SEARCH OF HEALTH.—I.

Nice, January 21, 1889.

The charms of 'A Sentimental Journey' and Sterne's jibes and jests at Smelfungus have

thrown undue discredit on Smollett's 'Travels,' so that they are rarely read nowadays, except by the student of literary history. They deserve, however, a different fate; and on reading them for the third time here in the place which produced them, where poor Smollett spent eighteen months with a hope of curing a pulmonary affection and of gaining a few more years of life, one cannot but remark the amount of information and the accuracy of observation, and feel that some parts are as good as his novels.

Smollett had been in France once before, in 1748, just after he had finished 'Roderick Random.' It was the year of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle and of the publication of Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois.' He travelled with his friend and biographer, Dr. Moore, the author of 'Zeluco,' and met in Paris Mark Akenside, who in some way offended him, and whom he satirized as the Doctor in 'Peregrine Pickle,' in which novel, too, he utilized most of his travelling adventures.

In 1763 Smollett started again for France—for the Peace of Paris, just signed, which gave Canada to Great Britain, allowed the English once more to travel on the Continent—accompanied by his wife and two young ladies who had been put under her care. He was broken down in health, and worn out by his struggles as a political journalist in editing the *Briton*, which had brought him more blows than pence. His advocacy of Lord Bute had made him quarrel with his old friend Wilkes, and he felt that he had been treated with ingratitude in being thrown over by Bute, when he seemed to be of no more use, although he saw his patron forced to resign a few months afterwards. He was, moreover, disconsolate because he had lost his daughter and only child. As he himself says, he "was traduced by malice, persecuted by faction, abandoned by false patrons, and overwhelmed by the sense of a domestic calamity which it was not in the power of fortune to repair." All this, added to irritable nerves—"systema nervosum maxime irritabile," as he expresses it in his diagnosis of his case—made the first part of his journey anything but pleasant. He was constantly disputing with innkeepers and postillions; was annoyed by bad lodgings, high prices, and extortions, want of respect—or what seemed to him so—at the inns, and the lack of English comforts and conveniences. He could not, or would not, eat at noon, which was then the usual French dinner hour, especially at post stations and country inns, though he admitted that the meals were good and cheap; but must have his breakfast of tea and toast, and therefore ate a cold lunch in the carriage. When he did dine at an inn, his English habits, added to his ill health, would not suffer him to eat at the ordinary, and compelled him to pay high charges for meals served in his own room.

Sometimes he quarrelled with the wrong man, or indulged in a useless and unprofitable fit of anger; as, for example, at Montpellier, where he wished to take the advice of the great physician of the place, but, having heard things "against his character and personal deportment, did not wish to converse with him personally, and consulted him on paper." He wrote out a statement of his case in the medical Latin which English doctors then prided themselves on using, and felt so annoyed and insulted at the reply being in French, that he could not resist the temptation of paying an additional fee in order to tell his colleague—this time in French—that he had not read or could not read his original diagnosis. While the peevish disposition in which Smollett was at that time, certainly affected his views of things, his account of what he saw is by no means—as Sterne said—"nothing but the account of his miserable feelings"; nor is it at all "dreary reading," in the words of his last biographer, Mr. David Hannay. It is impossible to sympathize with the petty mishaps which travellers experience, so soon forgotten nowadays, but which must have been so serious a hundred years ago that it seems strange that so many English—especially with large families—made the grand tour. But Smollett makes you laugh with him as well as laugh at him, and sometimes he laughs at himself and at his own little miseries. If he is severe on the French for customs which he does not like and for their bad government, we must remember that he wrote at a time when no Protestant traveller, dying in France, could receive legal burial, and his friends were obliged with their own hands to bury him themselves in some concealed place—as happened to an acquaintance of Young at Montpellier—and his whole property was confiscated to the Crown by the *droit d'aubaine*. But Smollett gives fully as much space to showing that the French are in many points superior to the English. He is, it is true, sometimes coarse, for he never quite got rid of a certain coarseness of nature; and coarseness of language was not stigmatized as vulgar by our ancestors of the last century. Good society still tells anecdotes of the same kind as then, but the language is veiled, and the coarseness is not so apparent.

After some months' stay at Nice, Smollett took a journey to Florence and Rome. As far as Genoa he went by sea in a felucca:

"Indeed," he says, "there is no other way of going, unless you take a mule and clamber along the mountains at the rate of two miles an hour, and at the risk of breaking your neck every minute. The Apennine Mountains, which are no other than a continuation of the Maritime Alps, form an almost continued precipice from Villefranche to Lerici, which is about forty-five miles on the other side of Genoa; and as they are generally washed by the sea, there is no beach or shore; consequently the road is carried along the face of the rocks, except at certain small intervals which are occupied by towns and villages. But as there is a road for mules and foot-passengers, it might certainly be enlarged and improved so as to render it practicable by chaises and other wheel-carriages, and a toll might be exacted which in a little time would defray the expense; for certainly no person who travels to Italy from England, Holland, France, or Spain would make a troublesome circuit to pass the Alps by the way of Savoy and Piedmont, if he could have the convenience of going post by the way of Aix, Antibes, and Nice along the side of the Mediterranean and through the Riviera of Genoa, which from the sea affords the most agreeable and amazing prospect I ever beheld. . . . The truth is, the nobility of Genoa (who are all merchants), from a low, selfish, and absurd policy, take all methods to keep their subjects of the Riviera in poverty and dependence. With this view they carefully avoid all steps towards rendering that country accessible by land, and at the same time discourage their trade by sea lest it should interfere with the commerce of their capital, in which they themselves are personally concerned."

It was a proof of Smollett's clear head and practical common-sense that he was able to see the value of the Cornice Road before the birth of Napoleon, who began it. A hundred years, too, before the enforced visit of Lord Brougham, he

"lay at Cannes, a neat village, charmingly situated on the beach of the Mediterranean, exactly opposite to the Isles Marguerites, where state prisoners are confined. As there are some good houses in this place, I would rather live here for the sake of the mild climate than either at Antibes or Nice. Here you are not cooped up within walls, nor crowded with soldiers and people, but are already in the country, enjoy a fine air, and are well supplied with all sorts of fish."

A felucca was an open boat rowed by ten or twelve stout men, large enough to take in a carriage, and with an awning near the stern to protect the passengers from rain and sun. One person could lie comfortably on a mattress between the seats. The price of passage between Nice and Genoa for a single passenger was then a louis d'or; but for 4 louis it was possible to hire a whole felucca, and make it a condition to be put on shore every evening. "By paying a little more you may hire it at so much per day, and in that case go on shore as often and stay as long as you please. This is the method I should take were I to make the voyage again; for I am persuaded I should find it very near as cheap and much more agreeable than any other."

At that time the ports of the Riviera were so crowded with boats, manned, equipped, and ready to start for a distant place at a moment's notice, that it was apparently as easy then to hire a felucca for a long journey as a cab nowadays for an afternoon's drive. These boats hugged the coast so closely that there was really little danger from storms and weather; the great danger was from the Barbary pirates, as Smollett had already said in his 'History of England.'

"All the Powers that border on the Mediterranean, except France and Tuscany, are at perpetual war with the Moors of Barbary, and for that reason obliged to employ foreign ships for the transportation of their merchandise. This employment naturally devolves to those nations whose vessels are in no danger from the depredations of the Barbarians, namely, the subjects of the maritime Powers who, for this puny advantage, not only tolerate the piratical States of Barbary, but even supply them with arms and ammunition, solicit their passes, and purchase their forbearance with annual presents, which are, in effect, equivalent to a tribute."

Smollett took a gondola—smaller than a felucca—rowed by four men, for which he paid more than for a felucca; with the idea that it would be quicker. He landed at Monaco, and, as one of the party was ill and the weather was bad, passed the night at San Remo, and

"was conducted to the Poste, which our gondoliere assured us was the best auberge in the whole Riviera of Genoa. We ascended by a dark, narrow, steep stair into a kind of public room with a long table and benches, so dirty and miserable that it would disgrace the worst hedge ale-house in England. . . . We were obliged to sit in the common room among watermen and muleteers. At length the landlord arrived, and gave us to understand that he could accommodate us with chambers. In that where I lay there was just room for two beds, without curtains or bedstead, an old rotten table, covered with dried figs, and a couple of crazy chairs. The walls had been once whitewashed, but were now hung with cobwebs, and speckled with dirt of all sorts, and I believe the brick floor had not been swept for half a century. We supped in an outer room suitable in all respects to the chamber, and fared villanously. The provision was very ill-dressed, and served up in the most slovenly manner. You must not expect cleanliness or conveniency of any kind in this country. For this accommodation I paid as much as if I had been elegantly entertained in the best auberge of France or Italy."

On returning, stress of weather obliged him to stop again at San Remo, when he says: "At length we arrived at our old lodgings at San Remo, which we found whitewashed and in great order. We supped pretty comfortably; slept well, and had no reason to complain of imposition in paying the bill." The next day the wind was so high that Smollett was obliged to stay twenty-four hours longer, which was, on the whole, fortunate, as he became interested in San Remo, then a small republic subject to Genoa; and his friend "luckily found two

acquaintances in the place—one a Franciscan monk, a jolly fellow, and the other a *maestro di capella*, who sent a spinet to the inn, and entertained us agreeably with his voice and performance, in both of which accomplishments he excelled. The padre was very good-humored, and favored us with a letter of recommendation to a friend of his, a professor in the University of Pisa. You would laugh to see the hyperbolical terms in which he mentioned your humble servant; but Italy is the native country of hyperbole."

He found the women of San Remo "much more handsome and better tempered than those of Provence. They have in general good eyes, with open ingenuous countenances. Their dress, though remarkable, I cannot describe; but upon the whole, they put me in mind of some portraits I have seen representing the females of Georgia and Mingrelia." This supposed resemblance came probably from the fact that the women of the Riviera then generally covered their heads and shoulders with squares of cotton stuff, printed in bright colors, with Eastern designs; this garment is known as the *mezzaro*, and is still sometimes used in small villages on such occasions as the Christmas midnight mass. Most of them have, however, been bought up by antiquaries, and are used for draping walls. The designs of some of the earlier pieces are Persian or East Indian; but I have seen one or two pieces bearing the Peruvian arms, showing that there must have been an export of them to South America.

Starting out from San Remo, the wind being still unfavorable, though it had abated, they were rowed along the coast, without landing, as far as Noli, thus seeing in one day most of the best scenery of the Riviera. The olive oil of Oneglia enjoyed then the same reputation as now; Albenga, which is now surrounded by market gardens, was then noted for producing great quantities of hemp. Finale was celebrated for the most agreeable apples Smollett had ever tasted, called "pome carli." There is a long passage on the dangers of the Capo di Noli, chiefly known nowadays for its picturesque beauty and as the habitat of a few plants which grow nowhere else in the world. At Noli itself, "the auberge was such as to make us regret even the inn we had left at San Remo. After a very odd kind of supper, which I cannot pretend to describe, we retired to our repose." But sleep was driven away by bugs, against which there is an outburst.

"One would imagine that in a mountainous country like this there should be plenty of goats; and, indeed, we saw many flocks of them feeding among the rocks; yet we could not procure half-a-pint of milk for our tea if we had given the weight of it in gold. The people here have no idea of using milk, and when you ask them for it they stand gaping, with a look of foolish surprise which is exceedingly provoking. It is amazing that instinct does not teach the peasants to feed their children with goats' milk, so much more nourishing and agreeable than the wretched sustenance on which they live."

Smollett travelled in the same way to Genoa, where he put up at the Hôtel Croix de Malte, of which he speaks in enthusiastic terms, which are justified even to the present day. He continues:

"It is not without reason that Genoa is called *La Superba*. The city itself is very stately; and the nobles are very proud. Some few of them may be proud of their wealth, but in general their fortunes are very small. . . . They live with great parsimony in their families, and wear nothing but black in public, so that their expenses are but small. If a Genoese nobleman gives an entertainment once a quarter, he is said to live upon the fragments all the rest of the year. I was told that one of them lately treated his friends, and left the entertainment to the care of his son, who ordered a dish of fish that cost a zechine, which is equal to about ten shillings sterling. The old gentleman no sooner saw it appear on the table than, unable to suppress his concern, he burst into tears and exclaimed, '*Ah, figliuolo indegno! Siamo in rovina! Siamo in precipizio!*'

"I think the pride or ostentation of the Italians in general takes a more laudable turn than that of other nations. A Frenchman lays out his whole revenue upon tawdry suits of cloaths, or in furnishing a magnificent repast of fifty or a hundred dishes, one-half of which are not eatable nor intended to be eaten. His wardrobe goes to the *fripier*, his dishes to the dogs, and himself to the devil; and after his decease no vestige of him remains. A Genoese, on the other hand, keeps himself and his family at short allowance, that he may save money to build palaces and churches which remain to after ages so many monuments of his taste, piety, and munificence, and in the meantime give employment and bread to the poor and industrious. . . . The two streets called Strada Balbi and Strada Nuova are continued double ranges of palaces adorned with gardens and fountains; but their being painted on the outside has, in my opinion, a poor effect."

E. S.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL GENTLEMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article under the above heading has a much deeper significance than you have assigned to it. It is a melancholy fact that in our State Legislatures there is no place for "gentlemen."

Men entitled to that name, in its highest sense, inevitably lose in reputation, if not in character, by going there, and the species is steadily becoming rarer within those precincts. The explanation of the fact, if we consider the system of doing business, is the simplest thing in the world. Every proposition, of whatever name or nature, has to be referred to a committee, and all, good, bad, or indifferent, stand upon a precisely equal footing. No member of these committees has any direct interest in promoting the welfare of the State, and, however great his indirect interest may be, he is only a local representative, and is regarded by his fellow-members as impertinent if he pushes the general interest at the expense of other and local schemes. Moreover, let him work ever so hard and even successfully, he can get no credit, because he is only one member of an anonymous committee, which is again lost in an anonymous house. On the other hand, he is certain to get his full share of blame for any job that is perpetrated. "Trading" is the very basis of all legislation, and the highest and most virtuous scheme of public interest is just as dependent upon it as the lowest job of corporate franchise. What you contemptuously call a "deal" is a necessity of the case.

I was talking the other day with a gentleman who was professionally employed in procuring the passage of an act in our Legislature, and who expressed his astonishment at the decline of moral tone in that body as compared with twenty years ago. I believe the Massachusetts Legislature has not yet reached the level of that of New York, but the downward pace is fearfully rapid.

What is the remedy? Precisely that which I have so long fought for in the case of Congress—publicity and responsibility. The chief executive officers should have places in the Legislature and take the guidance and organization of business. Questions of public interest should thus be given precedence over private jobs. The public business should be dragged out of the secrecy of committee-rooms into the light of open debate. Every member should thus have direct credit for his own good work, and blame for his own bad, and for none other. It is to me a matter of increasing wonder that no man can be found in public life ambitious and clear-sighted and courageous enough to take the stump for his own hand, to explain to the people of the State how rotten is the system of their capitols and state-houses, and to point out to them the road to reform. There is no other chance of political advancement at all to be compared with this.

G. B.

THE UTAH APPOINTMENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A fresh illustration of President Harrison's disregard for his pledges is furnished by his recent action in appointing officials for Utah. The *Salt Lake Tribune*, the leading Anti-Mormon and Republican organ of the Territory, says:

"The news of the appointment of the Hon. A. L. Thomas, Governor, and Col. E. Sells, Secretary of Utah, was a surprise all around, No reason on this side of the continent called for the retirement of either Governor West or Secretary Hall. They have both filled their offices to the perfect satisfaction of men of all parties who are real citizens of the United States in Utah, and it was expected that both would be left in their places."

Is this the boasted Republican policy of "Home Rule for the Territories" which we have heard so much about? True to its instinct, the *Independent* highly commends this action, in the face of the fact that it quoted Cleveland's government of some of the Territories from the outside as proof of his unfitness to be President.

W.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my letter on "Prehistoric Sicily" (*Nation*, No. 1241), fourth paragraph, I am printed as writing "calcareous limestone," when I intended putting calcareous *sandstone*, as will be suggested to many readers, the former term meaning nothing and conveying no idea of the relation of the work to the material, but a very distinct one of the ignorance of the writer. The fault was unquestionably my own.

While writing, may I be permitted to notice the views of Mr. Linton, criticised in the same number, as to the merits of English wood-engraving, in their contrast with those of a higher authority, M. Hébert, Director of the Académie Française at Rome, one of the most thoughtful of modern French painters, and perhaps the best representative still living of the great poetic French school of art? I had the pleasure of showing him a set, so far as complete, of the engravings of Cole for the Old Masters series of the *Century*, and the old man said, after looking them over, that he had never seen such work on wood, and did not suppose wood-engraving to be capable of it. Of several of the series his admiration was enthusiastic, and he said several times of the engraver, "C'est un vrai artiste."

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Athens, April 28, 1889.

"TRY *AND*" FOR "TRY *TO*," AND "*SOMEBODY'S ELSE*" FOR "*SOMEBODY ELSE'S*."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The compliment we most like to pay our intellectual growth is to vaunt our diffused recognition of specialists, and our acceptance of the mission to keep up with their latest conclusions. Yet there is not lacking abundant

evidence both that the "general reader" still rests secure in the original conviction that prejudiced preference is canonical usage, and that many positions of high authority are still held by teachers who have not so much as heard whether there be any ascertained grounds of valid opinion, either in the results of special students or in the phenomena open to historical investigation. How far such teachers deserve rebuke depends upon the attitude they assume. *M. Jourdain* needed to offer no apology for speaking prose, even when he had discovered the fact; but a gratuitous attempt at poetry would have entitled him to no immunity. So, in the multiplying exactions of subdivided linguistics, an eminent phonologist is pardoned for not knowing the history of such locutions as form the subject of this letter; but he must be disparaged for venturing to pronounce on them without instructing himself from original sources and preceding inquiries, and positively censured for the lazy impertinence of false doctrine confidently urged upon a trustful audience. In spite of the pretensions of some trustees and some programmes, it would be easy to illustrate, with full specifications, the last category; but perhaps it is more useful to correct some of the blunders than to enumerate all the blunderers, even if that were practicable.

For the references cited below, I am indebted to the only man who could have furnished them—Dr. Fitzedward Hall.

(1.) The usage typified by "try *and* ——" for "try *to* ——" occurs at least as early as 1526 (Tindale: "Peter began and expounde"), persisting to this day in the best writers. Dr. Hall cites Udall (1542: "trye and shewe"); Anon. tr. Erasm. Apophth. (1548: "fall in hande and chide"); Bishop T. King (1594); Bishop R. Mountagu (1621); Mrs. F. Sheridan (1766: "see and get"); Miss E. Carter (1771: "mind and answer"); "and, in this century, Coleridge, Bishop Thirlwall, Rev. R. I. Wilberforce, Arthur Clough, and a dozen more good writers to whom I have references."* See also Phil. Soc. Eng. Dict. s. v. *and*, tenth use. Of the almost universal colloquial use there can be no question.

Since usage makes grammar, this array is a sufficient answer to the nice persons who denounce "try *and* ——" as a vulgarism; but I am satisfied that its use really goes a great deal further back than 1526. I can produce positive evidence of exact equivalents from Homer (Od. vi, 126, πειρήσομαι ἠδὲ ἴδωμαι), Cicero (De Or. i, xlvi, *experiar et dicam*), Vergil (Æn. ii. 27, 28, *ire et videre*). These remote equivalents seem to establish the à-priori naturalness of the locution, and to imply the very early appropriation of it by a language as natural as English, as well as its wider use even in the classical tongues beyond the instances that chance has thrown in my way. And the psychologic basis is as plain as valid: so long as two acts are equally contingent, one of them being important or significant only as a preliminary to the other, mere order of expression is adequate to suggest order of occurrence or even purpose and result, cause and effect. Hence, "I will try *and* see" is valid, because both acts are contingent as being future; and "Every day I try *and* read a little" is valid, because both acts are contingent as being generic. But, with past tenses, *and* cannot take the place of *to*: the past being the domain of fact only, the main event, once contingent, either did or did not occur, and now the preliminary is either no longer important as such, or it is all-important as the sole surviving actuality of the undertaking. Hence, in the past, I must ordinarily say either "I did it," or "I tried *to* do it," the former celebrating a success, the latter apologizing for a failure or claiming an intention. "I tried and did it" has the special effect of elevating a mere preliminary to the dignity of an independent act, and of substituting for a logical relation the simple chronological sequence—which is only another way of saying that the theoretic relation is ignored in the interests of the actual phenomena. This formula implies the happy sequel to an original distrust of the means offered or our own power to take advantage of them: the unhappy issue would require "I tried and failed" for the complete account.

(2.) As to the possessive form of *somebody else* and the like, most of our manuals omit specific mention, whether from oversight or from reliance on the general rule for complexes; but the one or two that speak of it pronounce explicitly for *somebody else's*, according to the principle that treats complexes (including appositions) as single wholes requiring the possessive sign immediately before the thing possessed. Two of our few really great authorities assure me they have never noted *somebody's else*, except perhaps as an individual peculiarity; one of them rests the validity of *somebody else's* on Maetzner and Oliphant, who credit it to Dickens (1840), and himself hazards the guess that *somebody's else* is the revision of a shrewd Harvard theme-corrector. In view of the actual facts, I consider such utterances as significant and monitory.

Dr. Hall's references show *somebody's else* to be the type of the earlier form, going back to the beginning of the sixteenth century. He cites Lord Berners (1525), Sir T. Key (1547), Sir T. Hoby (1561), for "no man's else"; John Heywood (1561), Earl of Orrery (1654), Congreve (1694), Sterne (1759), Mrs. F. Sheridan (1761), for "any man's else," "no one's else," "anybody's else." In these combinations, O. E. genitive *elles* is treated as an adverb equivalent to "besides"; but, in natural development, being integrated with the word immediately affected (*somebody*), it becomes an adjective; and, beginning with Bentham (1817), the complex has conformed to the general rule of possessive formation as the prevailing colloquial idiom, almost the only collocation found in our literature. Archdeacon Hare (1833) says: "People more frequently say *nobody else's* than *nobody's else*."

Noting these combinations, and without examining the passages, I prognosticated that the earlier form (somebody's else) would not be found as a modifier, but only as a part of the predicate—not as in "somebody's else book," but only as in "the book is somebody's else"; and Dr. Hall assures me that the progress of the form has been concurrent with the progress of the syntactical relation—a point, so far as I know, not taken account of hitherto. It is interesting to add the indirect evidence afforded by such transitional uses as W. Browne's (1647) "for anybody's sake else."

CASKIE HARRISON.

THE BROOKLYN LATIN SCHOOL, May 18, 1889.

* Since this was written, I have observed near the beginning of 'English Humorists' "try and describe," "try and please."—C. H.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. will shortly publish a novel by Mrs. Fanny Kemble Butler of which the scene is laid in her old haunts among the Berkshire Hills.

Chas. Scribner's Sons announce a probable new edition of the 'Diary and Letters of Gouverneur Morris,' which has already reached a second edition in London. An English edition of their 'Chopin, and Other Musical Essays,' by Henry T. Finck, will also be brought out.

Swinburne's third series of 'Poems and Ballads' is announced by Worthington Co., who will also publish directly a new edition of Main's 'Treasury of English Sonnets,' and a portfolio of Presidential portraits from Washington to Harrison, consisting of India proofs of steel engravings.

Dr. Döllinger celebrates the opening of his tenth decade by issuing the fruit of his long study of the history of mediæval heresy in a volume of 'Contributions' thereto ('Beiträge zur Ketzergeschichte des Mittelalters'), of which Part 1 deals with the heresies of the early Middle Ages, and Part 2 consists of unprinted documents bearing on the history of the Waldenses and Albigenses (Nördlingen: C. H. Beck; New York: F. W. Christern).

An excellent little compilation is the 'List of Cases Selected from the New Hampshire Reports for the Use of Law Students' (Concord: Printed by the Republican Press Association), prepared by the Hon. Jeremiah Smith, lately one of the Justices of the Supreme Court of that State. This is no digest, but a selection of the two or three leading cases on each of the principal topics of the law, or rather upon such of them as are illustrated in the New Hampshire Reports. The author has a few pages of introduction explaining his purpose and the best method of using the book. It will be strange if this admirable idea is not followed in other States. But in order to be really helpful the work must be done elsewhere, as it is in this instance, by a learned and careful lawyer. We sincerely hope that this example may be followed.

Mr. Andrew Lang's volumes follow each other with the ease of thistle-blows, and they have the same lightness and identity one with the other. One does not expect much when the title of a book is a pun, and 'Lost Leaders' (Longmans, Green & Co.) does not disappoint the expectation. These short papers on fishing, schoolboys, American humor, and other nondescript subjects, which, taken together, have the complexion of that summer city-article to which journalists relax themselves in the so-called "silly season," have been collected from the columns of the *Daily News;* but, galvanized though they be, they cannot last much longer. Indeed, the sooner Mr. Lang's fantastic notion of the "Puritanism" of American humor disappears, the better. The second volume, lately received, of his 'Letters in Literature' is from the same publishers, and is a second edition. It is superficially more useful than the preceding, and deals with names from Plotinus to Gérard de Nerval. The matter is, however, very slight, and the manner is "uppish" to a fault. Mr. Lang's reputation is deservedly excellent for many of his versatile works; but to trifle in books is a different thing from trifling in newspapers.

'The Brotherhood of Letters,' by J. Roger Rees (Lockwood & Coombes), adds another volume to the characteristic publications of this firm, devoted to the lovers of literary anecdote. The book deals with the meetings of groups of authors principally, and is made up of well-worn material easily accessible, but the stories are pleasantly retold. We may say, however, that one new tale—that of the disclosure of the personality of Charles Egbert Craddock at Boston—is grossly erroneous.

A little volume, 'Times and Days,' subtitled "Essays in Romance and History" (Longmans), and made up of paragraphs, chiefly moral, and brief characterizations of fanciful persons intended to illustrate the complex dealings of

fortune with men and women, shows the difficulty of this form of literature for English writers. It is sensible, but entirely mediocre, and is without any of the flash of style, the finish, and especially the humor, which make such "chippings" readable.

Sir John Lubbock publishes a second part of 'The Pleasures of Life' (Macmillan). These additional essays, dealing with Ambition, Wealth, Health, Love, Art, Poetry, Music, Nature, Religion, and the Hope of Man here and hereafter, are in the same spirit of quiet and assured optimism, and characterized by the same just taste and tempered wisdom as the earlier volume, already reviewed in these columns. They are excellent for young and old, and add to the cheerfulness of books. We have been struck by the fine quality of the author's quotations from the lesser poets, and especially from Sir Walter Scott—a fact which we mention in view of the combined attack of Messrs. Gosse and Howells upon the old giant of romance. We observe, however, carelessness in ascribing the quotations to their authors, and in the quotations themselves. Sir John Lubbock's volume, by the way, is a useful illustration of all that Darwin missed by his narrower devotion to the natural history of life.

Mr. Austin Dobson's new edition of the 'Poems and Plays of Oliver Goldsmith' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.), in two handy and beautifully printed volumes, embellished with a number of delightful small etchings by John Jellicoe and Herbert Railton, is marked by that perfection of editing which is the most valuable result of minute scholarship, and it is as excellent in taste as in knowledge. The explanatory footnotes which elucidate the obscure allusions natural to Goldsmith's style, and the purely editorial annotations in respect to sources and parallel passages, make the edition complete in equipment as it is in matter.

Prof. Thomas Davidson's 'Prolegomena to In Memoriam' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is principally valuable as a concordance of the poem. The Introduction is a somewhat heavy philosophical essay to show that Tennyson illustrates the leading principles of an idealistic philosophy and is a congener of Aristotle, Goethe, Dante, and the greatest thinkers generally who have written upon life; and this essay is followed up by a systematic prose rendering of the course of the poem, in which its "swallow-flight" character is entirely lost. The illustrations from other poets and prose writers are of interest; but it is noteworthy that the perspicuity of Tennyson is much greater than that of his commentator, though the connections of the thought are perhaps less clear. The comment is, in fact, less Tennyson himself than Tennyson seen in the light of Prof. Davidson's exposition of a philosophic system with which Tennyson was unconsciously concerned.

The Baconian-Shaksperians have themselves to thank if they find the tables disagreeably turned upon them in the latest contribution to the theory of the authorship of the plays, 'Is there any Resemblance between Shakespeare and Bacon?' (London: Field & Tuer, 1888), by an anonymous writer. The author's method of denying Bacon's supposed claim is to blackguard him much after the fashion in which the Baconians have blackguarded Shakspere. He says, in brief, that such a wretched creature could not have produced the plays. This is amusing as an instance of "the biter bit"; but the writer's heart is too much in his sarcasm to give the impression of his being just to the derided Bacon.

A number of new editions besides those mentioned above are on our table. The late Hepworth Dixon's 'Her Majesty's Tower' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) reaches the utmost limit of compression in becoming one volume from the original English four and American two. One index covers the whole, but the paging is not continuous. The illustrations, portrait and other, are retained. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. start a new "Illustrated Library Edition" of Thackeray's Complete Works, beginning with 'Vanity Fair, and Lovel the Widower.' The series contemplates twenty-two volumes, containing more of Thackeray than will elsewhere be found, a large proportion of the illustrations designed by himself and other artists (to the extent of some 1,600), and regular introductions of a biographical and bibliographical nature, made up from many sources. The outward aspect of these volumes is very presentable, in plain green cloth. The paper is rather thin; but we have to do with a voluminous writer, and the price of this edition is kept down. A two-volume edition of Victor Hugo's 'Notre-Dame de Paris' in the original French has been brought out by W. R. Jenkins, New York, and Carl Schoenhof, Boston. The typography is open and very satisfactory. The illustrations —"process" cuts after drawings in wash in the Tartarin style of marginal decoration — are poorly printed. A third edition of an English 'Story of Theodore Parker,' by Frances E. Cooke, comes to us from Cupples & Hurd, Boston. It is a brief popular account of the great preacher, told with sympathy and animation, but with little slips as to details not unnatural in a foreign writer, as when the sea is represented as "dashing up in spray and foam upon the cliffs" at Newburyport. An anonymous hand has supplied an introduction composed mainly of eminent men's estimates of Mr. Parker, and there is a bibliographical appendix. The desperately bad portrait at the front should be expunged or replaced.

School-teachers who wish to work out of the ruts may profitably examine, as aids in their rhetorical work, the 'Winter's Tale,' edited by K. Deighton, and Scott's 'Rokeby,' edited by Michael Macmillan—both in the every way attractive little linen-covered series bearing Macmillan's imprint; and Mr. W. J. Rolfe's 'Fairy Tales in Prose and Verse,' selected from early and recent literature (Harpers). We might couple with the last-named a late volume in the new-old Bohn's "Select Library," a translation of Wilhelm Hauff's 'The Caravan, and the Sheik of Alexandria.' Hauff's 'Das Bild des Kaisers,' by the way, has been edited with notes for the Pitt Press Series by Karl Breul (Cambridge, Eng.; and New York: Macmillan).

The monthly *Dial* of Chicago, a journal wholly given up to literary criticism, is before us in a bound ninth volume, representing as many years of useful existence (McClurg & Co.). We wish it as many more. We have the same good-will for the Washington *Public Opinion*, "a comprehensive summary of the press throughout the world on all important current topics," which has just closed its sixth volume (Oct., 1888–Apr., 1889). Its longevity speaks for its adaptation to the need of many readers and writers, and we recall none of its predecessors in the same class that was superior to it. Besides press extracts, once in a while a document is preserved entire, like Lord Sackville's luckless correspondence; and there is a very condensed summary of the week's news. Literature is cared for by book reviews. It might almost be said of journals like this that they are most valuable when least fresh, consecutive reading of any given number being a little fatiguing, while for reference their value may be very great. To this end *Public Opinion* of course provides an index. Another volume has been added to the *Century* series—the 15th of the new series (Nov., 1888–Apr., 1889). It is difficult in a few words to touch off its physiognomy. Mr. Kennan's Siberian papers, the Hay-Nicolay Lincoln biography, the Stillman-Cole art papers, the Washington Centennial series, are the most prominent features.

Apropos of the Centennial, we have been tardy in mentioning the handsome volume, 'An Essay on the Autographic Collections of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution,' by Lyman C. Draper, LL.D. (Burns & Son). The essay in its present shape is an improvement upon Dr. Draper's paper on the same subject in the tenth volume of the Wisconsin Historical Society's Collections. Appendices tell of the autograph forgeries of one Robert Spring some twenty years ago, and reproduce Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's list of members of the Federal Convention of 1787. Altogether, this monograph is exhaustive of the subject proposed to be treated, and will be valued accordingly.

'Instantaneous Scenes at the Centennial of George Washington's Inauguration' forms another of Mr. A. Witteman's albertype albums. The scale in this instance is small, yet one can recognize here a couple of ex-Presidents, here a President *in petto*, in the procession. The arch in Washington Square is well depicted. Larger and better views of the same class are to be found in the album 'New York' in Brentano's series of American cities. They are accompanied by descriptive letter-press, and fairly embrace the momentary characteristic buildings, scenes, etc., of an ever-changing metropolis.

We read in *Poet-Lore* for May that Dr. Horace Howard Furness has completed his arduous labors on "As You Like It" for his 'Variorum Shakspere,' and will go to press with it in the fall.

It is a noteworthy circumstance when a *Magazine of Western History* finds it expedient to transfer its seat of publication from Cleveland to New York city (32 Cortlandt St.). The May number begins the tenth volume. The dislocation of this periodical is suggested by its opening paper on the "Walters Art Collection at Baltimore," a theme not obviously germane to Western historical research. Nor has the second paper, on the Philadelphian author, Henry Reed, who perished in the *Arctic*, a striking fitness in its present environment. Portraits of Mr. Walters and of Mr. Reed and of another Philadelphian, Furman Sheppard, adorn this heterogeneous number.

The *Décadent* appears in its issue of April 15–30 under the name of *La France Littéraire*. This change of name does not appear to affect in any way its sweetness. It is still under the editorship of M. Anatole Baju, and manifests the same spirit, and is carried on by the same collaboration, as its braggart and worthless predecessor. In announcing the change, the *Figaro* exclaims: "Maudit printemps! voici les feuilles que tu fais pousser!" Such success as the *Décadent* has had—it printed, or says that it printed, 9,500 copies of its last number—has been a disgrace to French readers and writers.

It is earnestly requested that all persons having in their possession letters from the late President of Columbia College, Frederick A. P. Barnard, send them to Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College, New York, at their early convenience. The letters will be returned after copies have been made.

—The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May opens with Mr. Stanley's letter to the English and Scotch Royal Geographical Socie-

ties. It contains little of interest additional to that written three days before to the Emin Pasha Relief Committee. At the close, however, there is a sentence which may possibly shed some light on his future plans. Referring to the native reports in respect to the nature of the country between the south shore of the Albert Nyanza and Beatrice Gulf, a lake far to the south discovered by him in 1876, he says that the verifying them "must be left until we take our journey homewards." If it was his intention to march to Zanzibar, his course would lie directly through this region, which, he says, promises "curious revelations," the one of principal interest being as to whether this latter lake belongs to the Nile or to the Congo. This is followed by an interesting description of Samoa, by Dr. Geo. A. Turner, for twelve years a medical missionary at Apia, and mentioned by Capt. Erben in his account of the *Tuscarora's* Mission in the *Century*. Referring to the extreme politeness of the Samoans, of whom he expresses a very favorable opinion, both as to character and mental ability, he says it is shown particularly in their language. "Special words are used in addressing persons of rank, and in many cases the particular grade of a man's rank is indicated by the word used. . . . Every member of a chief's body has a name different from that applied in the case of a common man. His feelings, his actions, and his possessions have different names, and in innumerable instances the common name of a thing is changed for another when that thing is spoken of in his presence. But chiefs in speaking of themselves always use the common language. The language itself, which exhibits many other interesting peculiarities, is a very smooth one, and has been called the 'Italian of the Pacific.'" He sketches briefly the recent history of the islands, showing a decided bias against the Germans. The Samoans themselves, he asserts, "would hail with delight a British or an American protectorate, while they would view with very different feelings the establishment of German rule in their midst." He advocates the appointment of an international land commission for the purpose of settling disputed titles, "the most fruitful source of the constantly recurring troubles between the Samoans and foreign Powers." This need arises from the fact that, during a war in 1868–73, "a mania for selling land set in. The natives were anxious to get superior arms and ammunition for the war, and when they found that all they had to do in order to get what they wanted was to say they had a piece of land to sell, give its name and its approximate dimensions, and sign their name, they flocked in hundreds to the buyers. In innumerable instances large tracts of land were sold by persons who had no right to dispose of them, and in many cases the price given was at least as low as one shilling and sixpence per acre." There were "instances where a piece of land was sold two or three times on the same day to different buyers. There was no public notification of the lands bought, and no attempts to prevent overlapping."

—The claims of the Portuguese to Nyassaland are well stated by J. Batalha-Reis, who shows conclusively that they knew of Lake Nyassa as early as 1624, had visited it by the middle of the century, and had had commercial and political relations with the natives of the region surrounding it from that time to this. Dr. Livingstone, it may be remembered, is always credited by English writers with the discovery of Lake Nyassa. See, for instance, Prof. Drummond's article on the Zambesi, in the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The dispute between the English and Portuguese in respect to this region will be greatly affected by the discovery, reported in the London *Times* of April 29, of a river in the delta of the Zambesi, navigable for vessels of 400 or 500 tons burden. This will afford direct access from the sea to the territory occupied by the English and Scotch missionary and trading companies. Now all goods destined for them have to pass through Quillimane, and thence by several transhipments, including a land portage, to the Zambesi and the Shiré. As Lord Salisbury insists that the former river shall be a free and open international highway, the opening of the River Chinde to trade will probably prove of very great importance.

—The elaborate statistics of illiteracy in Massachusetts contained in the recently published volume of the reports on the census of 1885, as compared with those of the previous census, give some interesting and suggestive facts. The whole number of illiterates of ten years old and over is 122,263 (or 45,550 males and 76,713 females), an increase of 17,750, or 16.98 per cent., while the increase of the population during the ten years was 20.43 per cent. Three-quarters of these were Irish and French Canadians, in the proportion of nearly 55 and 20 per cent. respectively. It is noteworthy that the whole number of Irish illiterates in 1885 was 67,169 against 67,164 in 1875; but the proportions of men and women have very significantly changed, the number of illiterate men having decreased 4,366, while the women of course have increased 4,371, with a total of 48,012. Very full details are given as to the occupation of the illiterate, from which we learn that a very large proportion, over 76 per cent., of the women are in domestic service. Chelsea is the most intelligent city in the commonwealth, having only 509 illiterates out of a total population of 20,926, though it is followed closely by Brockton, Malden, and by Lynn, which has only 4.02 per cent. of its population of 37,950 illiterate against the 20.65 per cent. of Fall River. This of course simply shows that the manufacture of shoes demands more intelligent labor than that of cotton goods. Three small towns in Worcester County contain the largest proportion of illiterates; in West Boylston more than one in every four being of this class. It is a slightly encouraging fact that while there is an increase of the preventable illiteracy—that is, of those under 20 years of age—there is a corresponding decrease of the incorrigibly illiterate.

—It was known long ago that effigy mounds were found only in Wisconsin and the nearest vicinity, and that they were on that account probably erected by Dakota Indians, who inhabited that tract. Recently two mounds of the same emblematic class were discovered in North Carolina in places where small tribes of Dakotan affinity, the Tutelos and their allies, had lived in historical times, and thus the Dakota origin of all these mounds seems affirmed. But there are other characteristics in the mounds of other States, and these marks, just as important as the effigy shape, have enabled Prof. Cyrus Thomas of the Bureau of Ethnology to classify all the burial mounds of the northern section of the United States into eight districts. Some of these districts may have indistinct limits on one side or the other, or need more discoveries for a more accurate description of the class of objects found in them; nevertheless, this new classification is a starting point for a more scientific handling of the mound question, and in doubtful points will serve as a working hypothesis. Prof. Thomas declares that the sepulchral tumuli surpass all other works of the mound-building Indians in importance, as the relics found in them give us more indications as to the beliefs, habits and art, homes and daily life, the ethnical character of their authors, than any other mounds. Their internal structure is also of more importance to us than their outward shape.

—In his article, "Burial Mounds of the Northern Sections of the United States," in the Fifth Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, 1883-1884 (Washington, 1888), he thus defines his districts: (1.) The Wisconsin district, or area of the emblematic mounds. (2.) The Illinois or Upper Mississippi district, extending through Northern and Central Illinois, parts of Iowa and Missouri; the mounds show simple conical tumuli for burial purposes, and include stone or wooden vaults or layers, copper axes, pipes, etc. (3.) The Ohio district, including parts of Ohio and West Virginia, and containing "altar mounds," great circles and squares of the enclosures, etc. (4.) The New York district, the relics of which were studied by Squier and ascribed by him to the Five Nations. (5.) The Appalachian district within the Alleghany ridge; conspicuous by reason of its numerous stone-pipes, and the presence of mica-plates with the skeletons. (6.) The Middle Mississippi area, or Tennessee district, extending over both sides of the Mississippi River; distinguished by the large size of its mounds, and preëminently the "pottery region." (7.) The Lower Mississippi district, differing but little from the previous section by its relics, except in the presence of small circular house-sites, slightly basin-shaped, which were burial places at the same time. (8.) The Gulf district east of the Mississippi River, similar to the above in its remains, but differing again from that of the Florida peninsula.

—Whatever may be the shortcomings of this working hypothesis, there is no doubt that it is largely substantiated by the linguistic divisions and in some degree also by the racial families existing within the area of the Eastern States. This is a point about which Prof. Thomas is silent, but it is apparent to those who have studied the details of the linguistic areas. Not only does district 1 belong exclusively to the Dakota and 4 to the Iroquois tribes, but 3 covers the territory once held by the Shâwanos or Shawnees, 2 that of the Algonkins just west of these, Sauks, Potawatomis, Illinois, etc., 5 that of the Cherokees, the congeners of the Iroquois, while the area of 8 was occupied almost in its whole extent by populations of the Muskokee family. The areas of 6 and 7 were occupied by different nations of small extent, and hence the characteristics of these two areas are contradictory and not easily defined; it will be best to regard them provisionally as territorial areas only, until more material is in hand to judge from.

—It is a matter for gratification to practical astronomers in America that instrument-makers are able to hold their own in our country against a rather strong competition in England and on the Continent. Messrs. Fauth & Co. of Washington are in the foremost rank, and are now at work upon a twenty-inch telescope for the University of Denver, which will be set up next autumn in the mountains near that place, at an elevation of five or six thousand feet above sea level. The mechanical portions of the telescope embrace many novel devices for facilitating its manipulation and working, among them Mr. Saegmuller's new attachment for pointing the telescope accurately at any celestial object too faint to be seen with the naked eye. This operation has gene-

rally been performed by reading two circles, one upon each axis of the mounting, and is usually a slow process with large instruments, often requiring the services of an assistant to the observer. By the new device the indications of both circles are mechanically conveyed to the eye end of the telescope, and illuminated by small electric lamps, so that the astronomer himself makes the pointing of his instrument while seated in the observing-chair. In addition to their instruments for use in the higher astronomy, the same makers have lately begun the manufacture of a less costly, but sufficiently precise, class of instruments at a very moderate figure, which should play an important part in the wider diffusion of a knowledge of the methods of practical astronomy among the students of our advanced schools. The outfit comprises all the instruments in ordinary use in large observatories; and while, of course, it lacks the accessory refinements with which the working astronomer cannot dispense, the actual handling of the lesser apparatus affords the means of admirable training to the hand and the eye.

—Mistakes in literary history die hard. A proof of this is to be found in the introduction to Prof. Schele de Vere's otherwise very commendable edition of "Le Cid," just published by W. R. Jenkins. The Professor mentions Juan Diamante as the first poet "to use the history of the great champion of the Spanish nation, Don Rodrigo de Bivar, known in poetry and tradition as *El Cid*, and to bring him before the public in a drama called *El Honrador de su Padre*." This mistake was committed originally by Voltaire in 1764, and repeated afterwards by La Harpe and Sismondi. Now, however, after the publications of Angliviel de la Beaumelle (1823), of Génin (1841), of Lucas ('Documents relatifs à l'histoire du Cid,' 1860), and finally since the publication of Marty-Laveaux's great edition of Corneille's works in the "Collection des Grands Écrivains de la France," an editor of "Le Cid" is hardly excusable in not knowing that Juan Bautista Diamante was born in 1626, only ten years before the first performance of Corneille's play, and that "El Honrador de su Padre," far from having been the model of the other works on the same subject, is in many of its parts an adaptation, at times a literal translation, of "Le Cid." The one author to whom Corneille was indebted, and largely so, as may be seen in Prof. Petit de Julleville's excellent edition of "Le Cid," is Guilhem, or more correctly Guillen, de Castro, who preceded Diamante by more than fifty years. His play, "Los Movedades del Cid," was printed for the first time in 1618; Corneille's "Cid" was performed in the latter part of 1636; Diamante's play seems to have been composed in 1648. Fontenelle wrote once that Corneille had in his library "Le Cid" translated in all the languages of Europe, even in Spanish. It is very likely that the Spanish translation mentioned by Fontenelle was simply Diamante's "El Honrador de su Padre,' which afterwards Voltaire, La Harpe, Sismondi, and now Prof. Schele de Vere mistook for the model followed by *le Père de la Tragédie Française*.

THE ENCYCLOPÆDIC DICTIONARY.

The Encyclopædic Dictionary. A new and original work of reference to all the words in the English language, with a full account of their origin, meaning, pronunciation, and use. With numerous illustrations. Edited by Rev. Robert Hunter, assisted in special departments by various eminent authorities. 7 vols., 4to (each in two parts). Cassell & Co. 1888.

Ten years ago the first volume of the Messrs. Cassell's 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' was given to the world, after seven years of preparatory labor on the part of the editor and his assistants. The concluding, fourteenth, volume was published at the end of last year, and somewhat tardily we will now attempt to give an account of the methods and scope of this great undertaking, and our opinion as to the measure of success with which it has been wrought out. The idea of attempting to combine in one work "the ordinary features of a dictionary of the English language" with a treatment of "certain subjects with some of the exhaustiveness adopted in an encyclopædia," originated with the publishers. That it responded to a popular need is evident from its having been since imitated in this country. The numerous pictorial illustrations, introduced in aid of definitions, are the outcome of the modest rivalries in this direction of the publishers of Worcester's and Webster's dictionaries, thirty years ago. Evidently the later portions of the work have not been slighted in the effort to bring the whole within a predetermined limit, as two more volumes have been given than were originally planned. The long list of specialists to whom particular departments of knowledge have been assigned, warrants the expectation of thorough and accurate treatment of all subjects alike.

The editor claims, with justice, that the vocabulary, embracing some 180,000 words, is much more exhaustive than that of any previous dictionary of our language. Added words embrace not only novelties and Americanisms, but "a nearly exhaustive list of obsolete words from about Chaucer's time," and "a complete vocabulary of words to be found in Scott and Burns." Specific designations in zoölogy and botany, and technical terms in science and art, as well as those of the national sports and games, are included. Slang, colloquial phrases, provincialisms, semi-naturalized words, and hybrid compounds have not been overlooked. A most valuable feature is the fulness of quotation by which the meanings of words are illustrated, with precise references to chapter and page. With the exception of geography and biography, we are assured that all the words will be found that occur in a first-rate cyclopædia; while even those proper names have been included which have been given to some object in nature, or which form the principal member of a compound word, as well as the names of the books of the Bible.

We think we have sufficiently indicated the comprehensiveness of scope of the work, and the difficulty of pronouncing an intelligent and just decision upon the manner in which it has been executed. What we shall have to say about it will be based upon such an extended examination of it as it has been in our power to make, and can be more conveniently divided into some consideration of its character as an encyclopædia, and afterwards as a dictionary. Without laying claim to omniscience, we will premise by saying that, in our judgment, all the departments of knowledge with which we have any acquaintance, with a single exception, have been confided to competent hands. We have been particularly impressed by the excellence of the articles in zoölogy, and especially in palæontology, as can be tested by examining the one upon the *Mammoth*. The recent science of prehistoric archæology is well cared for under such headings as *Flint Implements*, *Lake Dwellings*, *Tumulus*, etc., in which only a few unimportant errors have been noticed that will be pointed out later. We feel, however, constrained to state that the topics of Egyptian, Greek, and Roman archæology, which form a conspicuous feature in the work, are inadequately treated. We do not assert that we have examined every article bearing upon these subjects, but will proceed to point out some imperfections in the text that have been noticed, which can be readily corrected in the stereotype plates, as well as to indicate some unsatisfactory illustrations which ought to be replaced by better to enable the work to compete with possible rivals.

If a picture be needed of the *Areopagus*, surely it ought to be represented as it looks now, and not as a rock crowned by buildings which never had any existence. *Caryatides* are depicted as very badly drawn and ill-looking maidens. Under the heading *Spear* the Roman *pilum* is very improperly figured; and one of the *strigils* is upside down. The *Ampyx* is defined as "a band or fillet used by the ancient Greek and Roman women for binding their front hair; a head-band, a snood." This might properly be said about the *vitta*, but the ampyx was a metallic band worn as an ornament on the forehead. The illustration given of it is quite unlike the heads of Greek figurines, and thoroughly modern in character. Under *Amphitheatre* we are told that the *arena* was so called "because it was covered with sand or *sawdust*." We might naturally wonder where the Romans could have procured sawdust in sufficient quantities for such a purpose, even if they had any word in familiar use to designate it, and the word *arena* itself did not sufficiently indicate what was employed. Was the writer thinking of the modern arena of the circus?

The word *Cartouche* in Egyptian antiquities is defined as "an elliptical oval on ancient monuments and in papyri, containing hieroglyphics," without the necessary addition, "which always represented the name of a king," by which the key to the deciphering of the hieroglyphics was discovered. The *Sphinx* is declared to be "a figure having the body of a lion, winged, and a human (male or female) head." A little later, however, it is correctly stated that "the Egyptian sphinx had no wings." It ought also to have been said that the heads are always male. The *Rosetta Stone* is described, with the usual English injustice of ignoring wholly Champollion's successful labors upon it, and only speaking of Dr. Young's, while a perfectly useless engraving of it is given. But the most serious blundering we have noticed occurs in the article upon *Egyptian Architecture*, which ought to be completely rewritten. An engraving of a temple is given, which is said to be at "Edoon," instead of at "Edfou." It is stated that the architecture "owes many characteristic forms and effects to earlier cavern temples in Ethiopia." This is an exploded error, as the Ethiopian civilization is known to be a later development than the Egyptian. The architecture is said to have had its origin 2222 B. C. In view of the fact that authorities differ by 3,000 years in their opinions about the date to be assigned to the early dynasties, this might be called a bold assumption. The Theban dynasties are placed in the first period, while "in the second is comprised the erection of the Pyramids," by which a complete reversal of the truth is made. Some minor errors in the article we will pass over.

Another archæological article which ought to be entirely remodelled on account of its misleading character, is entitled *Omophagic Rites*. These are defined as "rites in which human flesh was eaten. . . . It is especially applied to the Orphic rites. . . . These rites

were celebrated triennially at Chios and Tenedos, and from these terrible feasts Dionysus obtained the appellation of eater of raw flesh. Omophagic rites were introduced into Italy, . . . and in B. C. 189 the Senate . . . issued the decree 'De Bacchanalibus,' which banished the Orphic mysteries from Italy." We have here a perfect tissue of errors. The only authority for the assertion that human sacrifices were anciently offered to Bacchus at Chios and Tenedos is Porphyry's treatise 'Upon Abstaining from Animal Food' (ii, 55), which is twice quoted by Eusebius. But in this he expressly argues that, although men were formerly sacrificed, no one would draw the inference that their flesh ought to be eaten like that of animals offered in sacrifice. In regard to the subject of human sacrifices in Greece, Grote says ('History of Greece,' chap. vi): "Such sacrifices had been a portion of primitive Grecian religion, but had gradually become obsolete everywhere, except in one or two solitary cases, which were spoken of with horror. Even in these cases, too, the reality of the fact in later times is not beyond suspicion." The *Senatus-consultum de Bacchanalibus*, passed B. C. 186 (not 189), was aimed at the orgiastic worship of Bacchus, horrible enough, certainly, but not accompanied by cannibalism.

We will close our archæological comments with two more suggestions. The cut employed to illustrate the word *Gargoyle* does not correspond with the definition given, as it does not represent "a decorative spout for rain-water." Under *Hindoo Mythology* it is declared that *Amrita* is "a fabled celestial tree bearing ambrosial fruit," and an illustrative quotation from Moore's "Lalla Rookh" is given. But this definition will not explain the allusion, in Mrs. Browning's "Island," to

> "Wide-petalled plants that boldly drink
> Th' Amreeta of the sky."

In the 'Imperial Dictionary' it is defined as meaning "the ambrosia of the gods; the beverage of immortality that resulted from the churning of the ocean by the gods and demons."

We will not, however, forget to mention certain minor corrections, which, as we have said, might be made in some of the valuable and timely articles upon subjects connected with Prehistoric Archæology. *Arrow-head* would be better explained if the first two misleading lines were dropped from the citation from Longfellow's "Hiawatha":

> "There the ancient arrow-maker
> Made his arrow-heads of sandstone"—

(a thing which no mortal or hero ever could have done), and only the last three were quoted. Under *Barrow*, Silbury Hill is figured, which is said to be 170 feet in perpendicular height, instead of 130, and 310 feet along the slope, instead of 238-249. The same misstatement about the height is repeated under *Tumulus*, where also the reference to "Cæsar de Bello Gall. iv" should read "vi." Under *Cycolith* reference is made to *Stone Circle*, but no such entry is to be found; further information, however, is given under the heading *Stone Worship*. In the article upon *Lake Dwellings* they are twice called "the habitations lacustrines of French writers," instead of "lacustres"; and it is stated that traces of them have been found at Thetford. This is a mistake, as it was not at that place, but at Barton Mere (near Bury St. Edmunds) that they were discovered. *Crannoges* are said to be depicted in "Johnson's Platt of the County Monaghan," instead of "Jobson's." Under *Celt* it should be stated that there is no doubt that those made of stone were earlier than the bronze ones; while under *Dolabra* prehistoric celts of bronze are figured and described as having been used by the Romans. This old blunder of the classical dictionaries has been pointed out in Dr. John Evans's 'Ancient Bronze Implements of Great Britain,' page 36. It is said that *Nephrite* is the same as jade, jadeite, and saussurite; but the last two are carefully discriminated by mineralogists from jade, which only is regarded by them as synonymous with nephrite.

We will end by pointing out an amusing blunder (apparently copied from Webster's Dictionary) that can be found under the head of *Castor*, which is said to be "from Agnus Castus, the old name of the Castor-oil plant." A ludicrous image is thereby presented to the memory which recalls the lady in Chaucer's "Flower and Leaf"—

> "On her head full pleasant to behold
> A crowne of golde rich for any king,
> A branch of *agnus castus* eke bearing
> In her hand."

It is not precisely a castor-oil plant which will suit such a picture. In some way the old name of *Palma Christi* has become confused with the very different shrub *Agnus Castus*, that had been correctly explained in the previous volume.

The attempt to bring down to date the introduction of new words into the language appears to have been very well carried out. *Boycott* is defined, although *Chauvinism* is not. *Volt* is given, but not *Ampère*, although it is referred to under that term as well as under *unit*; but no such entry as *electric unit* is to be found. Of course we cannot look for perfection in this respect, which a language continually growing makes impossible. As a contribution for future editions, we would suggest *Bowdlerize*, "to expurgate a text," and *Barmecide* (which is to be found in the latest edition of Webster and in the 'Imperial Dictionary'); and as new terms in science, *Labret*, *Drumlin*, *Kame*, and *Terremare*; while we think that *Wet-bulb thermometer* would be more naturally looked for than *Hygrometer*.

Although we have felt called upon to speak of such deficiencies as we have noted, we desire to express most emphatically our high commendation of the complete and accurate manner in which the encyclopædic character of the work is in general maintained. We have found it to exceed our expectations, and we think its great utility and convenience cannot be overstated. Any further remarks we may make will bear principally upon the philological character of the work.

The etymologies are claimed to be based upon "the latest and best of the etymological dictionaries, that of Professor Skeat." In regard to compound words the practice adopted is to admit all which have acquired a special meaning, but of those whose signification is sufficiently obvious, to give only a selection. The pronunciation is carefully indicated by diacritical marks. "The current pronunciation has been adopted as the standard"; but as Mr. Ellis's dictum that "there is *no* standard of pronunciation" is approved, we are led to infer that the practice of the editor has been followed in all cases. As the chief office of a dictionary must always be to furnish definitions of words, speedy reference to these is greatly facilitated by the manner in which different styles of type are employed to distinguish the various divisions and subdivisions of words. Transitive and intransitive uses are subdivided under ordinary and technical meanings; with a further subdivision into literal and figurative senses. "Each word has been broken up into as many different meanings as can be discovered or are illustrated by quotations. Words of the same form, but from different roots, and therefore really different words, are placed under separate headings." Finally, the various spellings of each word are grouped under its principal form; obsolete words are distinguished by an asterisk, and those rarely used, either in written or spoken language, are marked by a dagger.

Careful examination has satisfied us that these promises of the editor have been faithfully performed, and that his attempts have been successfully carried out. If we felt inclined to make any criticism upon his method, it would be that sometimes he carries his subdivisions of meanings too far. He defines *Tract* as,

* (1.) A protracting, or extending.

> "By tract of time to wear out Hannibal's force and power." (North: Plutarch, p. 152.)

* (2.) Continued duration; process, length, extent.

> "This in tracte of tyme made hym welthy."
> (Fabyan: Chronicle, ch. lvi.)

* (3.) Continuity or extension of anything.

We think it would have been simpler to have stated that the expression "tract of time" was formerly used as a phrase, as in Bentley, 'Phaleris' (ch. xiii.), "Which in tract of time makes as observable a change," p. 393. "The Attic language has in tract of time undergone many changes" (p. 401).

Occasionally we have noticed that a word is marked *obsolete* which should rather have been called *rare*. For example, *Continent*, as substantive, "that which contains any material thing, etc.," is so denoted. But we are told in Shelley's "Epipsychidion":

> "True love never yet
> Was thus constrained; it overleaps all fence;
> Like lightning, with invisible violence
> Piercing its continents."

Substantive, as an adjective, meaning "substantial," is also marked in the same way. But we have seen it used in this sense three times within a few pages by Grote ('History of Greece,' ch. lxvii): "substantive accusation," "substantive agent," "substantive means." Other lexicographers call this use of the word *rare*. The same is true of "*detch*, a strong desire," defined by Halliwell as "an absurd, foppish fancy. *Linc.*" This is employed by De Quincey, in his essay on "Richard Bentley": "Some people have a tetch for unmasking impostors."

It has seemed to us that it would have been well if the meanings of certain words had been illustrated by examples of their recent use. For instance, under *Malingerer* might have been quoted from Lowell's "Cathedral,"

> "To fetch life's wounded and malingerers in."

To "*Kex*, the old English name for hemlock," might have been added from Tennyson's 'Princess,' iv:

> "The rough Kex breaks
> The starred mosaic."

To *Lander*, from "Enid":

> "Heard by the lander in a lonely isle."

It has probably been found impossible to carry out with absolute fidelity the rule laid down with regard to the admission of compound words. *Heart-robbing* is given with a quotation from Spenser, credited to Worcester. We have noticed, by the way, that the editor seems to be scrupulous in giving credit when he has borrowed citations. It would not have occupied any more space to have added "Amoretti, 39," thereby practising at the same time his still better rule of preciseness of reference. But why should not *Heart-fretting* also have been inserted from Spenser, F. Q, iv, 5, 45:

> "In such disquiet and heart-fretting payne."

"*Viny*, pertaining or relating to vines; producing vines," appears, marked obsolete, with a quotation from Phineas Fletcher. Another signification of the word, also obsolete, should

not have been overlooked, that occurs in Sidney's 'Arcadia,' chap. iv: "viny embracements." Under "*Bargain.* 2. Specially: (2) Figuratively: (b) An indelicate repartee," "'Where sold he bargains, whipstitch?' Dryden," is to be found. But in "Love's Labor Lost," A. iii., sc. 1., "to sell a bargain" means only "to make a smart rejoinder"; Knight has pointed out that it was so explained by Capell. The obsolete word *Droumy*, meaning "troubled, muddy," is given; but the reference to Bacon, found in other dictionaries, is omitted, probably for lack of preciseness. This can be obviated by adding "To fish in droumy waters," 'Advancement of Learning,' B. ii. So under *Churme*, to the quotation from Bacon it would be well to add 'History of King Henry VII.' We think that the obsolete signification of the word *Resent*, in a good sense, ought to have been brought out strongly, as most lexicographers have done. We offer as an example to illustrate it: "Hosier's bill was mighty well resented and approved," Pepys's 'Diary,' February 12, 1688-9. To the quota of obsolete words we would also contribute *Lamm*, subs. [*Lat.* lamella]; "Battered the lamms of the gorget," Sidney's 'Arcadia,' B. iii.; *Barn*, verb, "to store": "Useless barns the harvest of his wits," Shakspere, 'Rape of Lucrece,' l. 859; and *Disinteress*, verb.: "Doth disinteress him of these obligations," Bacon, 'Hist. of King Henry VII.' Perhaps *Snub*, in the sense of sob, falls within the same class, as used in Shenstone's 'Schoolmistress': "And eke with snubs profound and heaving breast." Certainly does so an expression which occurs in Thomas Lechford's 'Note-Book,' p. 275 [159]: "Loth am I to heare of a stay, but am *plucking up stakes* with as much speed as I may." As an illustration of the word "*Mop.* 2. A young girl; a moppet. (Prov.)," we would suggest the following from 'The Arte of English Poesie' (1589), by George Puttenham (Lib. iii., chap. xix): "Vnderstanding by this word [moppe] a litle prety Lady, or tender young thing. For so we call litle fishes, that be not come to their full growth [moppes], as whiting moppes, gurnard moppes." In the same treatise (chap. xxiii) can be found a statement as to the original meaning of the word *Pelf*, which seems to be worth quoting: "Another of our vulgar makers spake as ill-faringly in this verse, written to the dispraise of a rich man and couetous. Thou hast a miser's minde (thou hast a prince's pelfe). A lewde terme to be spoken of a prince's treasure, which in no respect nor for any cause is to be called pelfe, though it were neuer so meane, for pelfe is properly the scrappes or shreds of taylors and skinners, which are accompted of so vile a price as they be commonly cast out of dores, or otherwise bestowed upon base purposes." The verses that are made the subject of this animadversion can be found in a translation from the Greek Anthology, xi, 294, by George Turberville, whose 'Epitaphes, Epigrams, Songs, and Sonets' was published in 1567.

Perhaps we have dwelt too long upon the obsolete portion of the dictionary. We will offer only two suggestions more, with the desire of making a slight improvement in the modern definitions that are admirably done. *Namby-Pamby* is "said to be derived by reduplication from Ambrose Philips, a poet (died 1749)." The surreptitious second edition of the 'Dunciad,' published in 1729, contained this line: "And Namby-Pamby be preferred for wit" (B. iii, l. 322); this was changed, in the later editions acknowledged by Pope, to "Ambrose Philips," as it now reads. The phrase was borrowed from "Namby-Pamby, or a Panegyric on the New Versification," in Henry Carey's 'Poems on Several Occasions,' of which the third edition had been published the same year (p. 55). Mr. Gosse, in Ward's 'English Poets,' says, "the immortal name of Namby-Pamby" is due to Carey. We hope his ballad of "Sally in our Alley" and his farce of "Chrononhotonthologus" may keep his name immortal too.

To the definition given of *Excise* and the quotation from Clarendon explaining the first occasion of its imposition, *Excisas*, from Bacon, 'De Augmentis', B. viii, and Mr. Spedding's note thereon, might well be added: "Originally in the Low Countries a municipal tax; it seems to have arisen from a privilege granted by Charles V. in 1536 to certain towns of imposing duties on wine, beer, and woollen and silken stuffs."

We will now take leave of this most valuable and low-priced contribution to the books of reference in our language by correcting a few misprints. Under *Abolla*, for "Stoic" read "Greek"; under *Cartesian*, for "Turaine" read "Touraine"; under *Mantle* (in falconry), the quotation from Spenser should read vi, 11, 32; under *Pandar*, for "Chryseis" read "Cressida"; under *Style*, the date of enactment should be 1751; under *Voluptuary*, for "luscus" read "luxus"; and under *Parian Chronicle*, for "Peirese" read "Peiresc." It is stated under *Donat* that Donatus was "born c. A. D. 333"; all that is known is that he taught about the middle of the fourth century. A good account is given of the *Arundelian Marbles*, but surely Evelyn deserves to have it recorded that it was at his solicitation they were presented to the University of Oxford. See his 'Diary,' September 19, 1667.

TUCKERMAN'S LAFAYETTE.

Life of General Lafayette. With a Critical Estimate of his Character and Public Acts. By Bayard Tuckerman. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1889.

LAFAYETTE'S name recurs so constantly in all histories, both of France and of the United States, that most people are probably under the impression that there is no lack of good lives of him. But this is by no means the case. The well-known French Mémoires consist (with the exception of an autobiographical fragment) merely of documents and letters. The life by Waln, published in 1825, written during the lifetime of the subject, was necessarily incomplete; Mr. William Cutter's biography, published in 1857, was too eulogistic to have any critical value; while Mrs. Farmer's 'Knight of Liberty,' published last year, readable as it is, is less a critical production than a good-boy's book. Ste.-Beuve's delicate and delightful essay in the 'Portraits Littéraires' was a masterpiece, but not a biography. So far as we know, Mr. Tuckerman's book is the first critical biography to appear since Lafayette's death. The author has been thorough and conscientious in his work. He does not change our opinion of Lafayette, but makes an interesting contribution to our means of understanding the career and character of this remarkable man.

Of Mr. Tuckerman's two volumes the first deals chiefly with Lafayette's career in the Revolutionary war, with the general features of which most American readers are more or less familiar. The young soldier, however, was not at this period in a position to accomplish very much. His relations with Washington, cordial and affectionate as they were, did not strikingly affect the march of events, and it is evident now that his youthful enterprise was chiefly important because its romantic character attracted to him the attention of all parties, and, indeed, the whole world. There is something perhaps a little painful in recalling in calm retrospect the sudden burst of self-devotion to an abstract idea with which Lafayette's life opens—wife, family, position, and fortune all abandoned or risked that he may, like some crusader of the Middle Ages, go abroad to fight for an aspiration, a dream, which has fired his heart, and in the realization of which he sees the regeneration of the world. When we think of what was before him, and before those who were dear to him, how everything was to be wrecked, including his own illusions; how he was to endure a martyrdom of exile and imprisonment, in order that others might reap the harvest of his labors, and a military despot establish the equality which he had expected to introduce through peaceful constitutional progress, we cannot repress a feeling of doubt whether it was all worth while, a childish sigh that it is now too late to change it, a childish wish that the story might be told in some other way, might be brought to some other conclusion.

From the first we feel that we have to do with a man urged into action, not by the common spurs of ambition and interest, but by a bright vision of a reorganized society, in which the old order of injustice, wrong, and oppression should be changed by the informing spirit of freedom into peace and good-will on earth. What he really left home and wife and friends to fight for in the wilderness was not, in fact, the quarrel over their rights which had been slowly dragging the colder-blooded colonists of America into a war—a war disliked by most of them, and the consequences of which their ablest men always dreaded. To them the war was a disagreeable duty; to Lafayette it was a glorious opportunity. He took service in the cause of humanity, as a young French gentleman of an earlier day might have taken service in the cause of Christ. If they were not religious feelings which led him to come to America, they were feelings inspired and governed by that spirit of self-sacrifice which was one of the finest qualities of the old French aristocracy, and lighted up by a zeal which was part of the inborn character of the man. It is agreeable to think that his military pilgrimage to this country was, after all, the brightest episode in his life. Washington was too sagacious and too kind-hearted a man not to value the devotion of such a devotee. The country at large quickly perceived the difference between the young Marquis who threw his purse into the treasury of the Revolution, and a class of adventurers attracted here from Europe by the chances of employment and promotion.

Mr. Tuckerman has evidently made a thorough study of the numerous sources of information with regard to Lafayette's life and career. He tells the story in such a way that the interest increases as it proceeds, and shows his skill as a biographer in this, as in making both the narrative itself and his own criticism of his subject heighten our sympathy. His style is careful and at the same time simple. It is a voucher in itself for the pains which the author has taken to be thorough and fair. Like most unbiassed men who have given any attention to Lafayette's career, he ends as an admirer, however much he deplores the mistakes of judgment which are so evident. Over the events themselves there is little room for controversy or dispute. Lafayette's life is what a lawyer would call an agreed case for the decision of history. These are the facts. What is the verdict?

The recent publication of Gouverneur Morris's diary has, to be sure, again raised the

question of the pecuniary relations between Lafayette and Morris. But Morris's bias was a little too evident to make him a good witness. Morris had a profound and comprehensive contempt for Lafayette, and Mr. Tuckerman is able to show that this made it impossible for him to be just in his criticism of his debtor's acts. Lafayette appears to have stripped himself of everything in his efforts to discharge his obligations, and when, at the age of fifty-five, he had to begin life over again, he did not retain enough to work profitably the small agricultural property remaining to him. The decree of an insolvency court would have probably left him better off than did that of his own conscience. In this, as in all such matters, a man is surely entitled to the benefit of the reputation he has created for himself, and no one except Morris ever thought that Lafayette had a tendency towards dishonesty, while throughout his whole previous career he had been most disinterested in money matters. Considering the times and Lafayette's ruined condition, Morris should have been satisfied, says Mr. Tuckerman, in getting all that there was to take.

The period of Lafayette's life which most interests us in the man was that of his adversity. Had he been a mere phrase-monger, as critics like Morris would have us believe, had he really had what Jefferson called a "canine appetite" for popularity, his career as leader of the constitutional movement during the Revolution might not have been different from what it was. But the time soon came when the "delicious sensation of the smile of the multitude" could no longer be had, when the applause turned to hisses; when, deserted by his followers, he fell into the hands of his enemies, to be subjected to violence and torture; when this favorite of fortune and fame had to hear the cruel sentence that he no longer had a name, that his existence for the outside world, with all that was dear to him in it, had ceased, and that he had no identity save that of the jailer's number on his cell. Through all this he never flinched; he never complained; he never recanted. Had he been willing to do so, the doors of his noisome cell would have been thrown open at once. But, as one of the most immutable of his critics afterwards said of him, he was a man who "never changed." No one would have endured these five years who had been nourished on phrases, or whose main motive in life was popularity.

When he was liberated, it was only that he might be subjected to other trials. If he had been physically tortured before, the temptations held out to him by Napoleon must, to a man in his ruined position, have been an almost more cruel torment. Honor, position, advancement, success for himself, his devoted wife, and his children, were again within his grasp, if he would say a few words, take a new title, wear a ribbon. But he was as unmoved by Napoleon's bribes as he had been by Austrian cruelty. He could not change his opinions; he could not profess to believe what he did not believe; he felt—and in this he showed the quality which throughout his life gave him a hold on power and influence otherwise inexplicable—that he represented an idea, and that his first duty in life was to this idea. A more prudent man would have got out of Olmütz by some ruse; a statesman might have compromised with Napoleon, and obtained from him some constitutional reform. But he was not a prudent man, nor was he a statesman. His character and ideas had that romantic tinge which lends itself to a great and unselfish enthusiasm—it was on this account that Napoleon called him a "noodle."

We cannot share this enthusiasm now, because we no longer share the illusion on which it rested. We know now that there is no magic in liberty or in equality to make mankind fit for free institutions. But this is no reason why we should do Lafayette's memory the injustice of confounding him with the phrase-mongers and sentimentalists who imitated his accents, but not his character. It is his character rather than his achievements which mankind are likely hereafter to recall with increasing interest. The French nobility, whatever may be said to its discredit, always showed itself equal to the task of producing heroic characters; the defenders of the aristocratic principle of inheritance would, if they were wise, count Lafayette among the most glorious proofs of the soundness of their theory. He gave up early in life, as so many others of the nobility did, the title of marquis, but what he did not give up was the high breeding, the keen sense of honor, the capacity for self-sacrifice, the fortitude in defeat and disaster, which were his by birth and early associations. His watchword and battle cry was Liberty, Fraternity, and Equality; but the secret spring of his actions was in great measure *noblesse oblige.* These volumes are a proof that a calm and dispassionate review of his life does not tend to diminish the brightness of his fame.

An Author's Love: being the Unpublished Letters of Prosper Mérimée's 'Inconnue.' Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THE judicious reader, long before he comes to the graceful epilogue of this volume, will have made up his mind as to the genuineness of the letters it contains. Perhaps they are as real as the "Inconnue" herself was; for it has never been shown beyond the possibility of doubt that she was not a creature of Mérimée's imagination. If it be true that his last letter to her was written only two hours before his death, as a note to it asserts, then the "Inconnue" was most likely a real woman; but the note may well enough be part of the author's work, and the abrupt ending of his letters, breaking off in the midst of trifles, be designed. It is a natural end to so long a correspondence. The present volume purports to be the other half of these well-known letters, the answers of the Unknown to Mérimée.

The author has shown a certain audacity in her choice of a task, but it may be said that her book in some measure justifies her boldness. The letters are at least always clever, and they supply the elements of a coherent story, and present a character that has a distinct resemblance to what one has imagined the Unknown to be. She was less than twenty-five years old, and Mérimée was at least ten years older when the first of the letters was written. In the gap which exists in the correspondence between 1839 and 1842, she finds time to marry, to lose her husband, and to inherit a fortune, and at the end of it is left quite free to begin over again her romance with Mérimée. Neither of them at any time seems madly in love with the other, though perhaps each at times would like to be. The passion dies out of Mérimée's letters very soon, and when it wakes, or seems to wake, in later years in the letters of the Unknown, it is rather a glow of tenderness that is seen than any kind of fire. Her lover has no reason to complain, as Mérimée did, of his mistress's prudery, if these are her letters. She dots the i's and crosses the t's of the scandals he relates, and adds some of her own also, using names, or well-known initials, sometimes of people now living. She leaves no doubt in the mind of the reader as to the nature of her own intimacy with Mérimée—perhaps she even emphasizes a little the scandal in her own case. She is a woman who possesses beauty and wit, a good social position which she never loses, though she is from first to last something of a Bohemian.

Her apparently careless letters are her best. Here is an epigram out of one of them: she says that it was reported of a cynical and pessimistic friend of hers that "he never believed in anything until he saw it, and then he was convinced that it was an optical illusion." There is also a good sketch of Disraeli in a few lines. But the fault of the longer letters is that they seem labored. The book has other faults of which one is bound to speak. We regret to say that it seems to us that the letters of Mérimée that are hardest to answer have been deliberately shirked. "Letter missing" is far too often what the reader finds in turning from one set of letters to the other. There are also some distressing inelegancies of diction. "Face the music" is not a very pretty phrase; nor is "humans" a good substitute for the word "people." But the book has some value, and is of considerable interest. For one thing it will provoke many to read Mérimée's letters again, and that is good. It is the belief of one who has just read the two books, letter for letter, that the better way will be to read them in succession. The present volume loses something by sharp and constant contrast with Mérimée's "Lettres"; and it is quite possible, though it sounds like a paradox, that the books will seem more consistent with each other, and even more connected, if they are read apart.

The Swiss Confederation. By Sir F. O. Adams and C. D. Cunningham. 1 vol. 8vo, xx, 289 pp. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THE seriousness with which Englishmen have of late undertaken the study of republics is indeed remarkable. One distinguished jurist but recently departed to the shades with a farewell warning against democracy on his lips, while another, equally distinguished in history and practical politics, has furnished the best study of American institutions yet written. Now representatives of the British diplomatic corps offer a volume on that republic of democracies, the Swiss Confederation, with prefatory words which probably explain the works of the others as well. "Democracy," say they, "has made undoubted strides at home, and it may be well for Englishmen to devote a little time to the study of the institutions of a singularly democratic country abroad."

A place for such a book certainly exists, since, notwithstanding the hordes of Englishmen and other foreigners who annually invade Swiss territory, few really give attention to its political institutions. Certain prominent features are commonly known, and great sentimental interest is exhibited, but the common working of political institutions is too often overlooked in favor of the picturesque attractions of the country. But, if we have hoped that another Bryce has arisen for Switzerland, we shall be disappointed, for neither in style of treatment nor grasp of subject do we note his master hand. Comparison with the 'American Commonwealth,' however, is not strictly fair, since the much smaller space does not allow of as lucid a treatment as could be given. The intention to be just to the country under consideration is equally apparent in both works.

The book endeavors to describe the general features of Federal and State Government, the political parties, education, religion, and general social condition. At the very outset the

authors stumble over the difficulty which confronts the student of American Federal Government—sovereignty. Is it with the States, or with the Confederation, or both? With an apology to jurists for using such a term, they adopt the expression "double sovereignty," because it has the sanction of long usage and "cannot well be replaced by any other." Yet one of the best native constitutional writers (Orelli, 'Staatsrecht,' p. 97) has no hesitation in saying that, no matter what terms are used, the sovereignty in reality rests in the Confederation, and the cantons are "not sovereign, but simply autonomous." The student of Swiss institutions cannot sum up his estimate of the matter without settling this question, and solving it not by abstract definition, but by study of actual practice. Facts point to the answer, which an increasing group of scholars have adopted for this country, that sovereignty rests with the people as a whole, or, if you prefer, with the majority of the people. It finds two *methods of expression*—for certain general functions through the Federal Government; for local matters through the States. The Swiss cantons entered into a compact, supposing they were independent sovereignties which surrendered for the time part of their rights; but the actual state of things defies definition by that formula.

The authors appear to have clear conceptions of the individual departments of Swiss government, and devote one chapter to comparison with those of the United States. The characterization of the Swiss as a nation of good administrators is a point well taken. This is well illustrated in the chapters on the army and on education. No nation has a better organization of its available resources in either of these departments. The institutions known as the Referendum and Initiative are perhaps the most interesting experiments in democracy now in progress. The Swiss themselves appear to be satisfied with the results, since the newer constitutions all maintain and expand the popular vote on statute law. The authors timidly suggest that there may be something in this for the Irish Question.

The student and teacher of political institutions might desire that a different perspective had been employed. The chapters on Agriculture and Commerce, consisting largely of statistics and names of products, are of no particular value without further expansion, and their space would be better occupied by social discussion. The book, however, furnishes much interesting information, and will serve a good purpose if it create a still greater appetite for knowledge of our sister republic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allerton, Walter S. A History of the Allerton Family in the United States. 1585 to 1885. The Author.
Bryce, Ll. Romance of an Alter Ego. Brentano. 50 cents.
Burdett, H. C. Prince, Princess, and People: An Account of Social Progress and Development as Illustrated by the Public Life and Work of the Prince and Princess of Wales. 1863-1889. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Casey, Dr. J. A Treatise on Spherical Trigonometry and its Application to Geodesy and Astronomy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Century Magazine. November, 1888, to April, 1889. The Century Co.
Creighton, M. Historic Towns: Carlisle. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Denman Thompson's Old Homestead. Street & Smith.
Denton, S. F. Incidents of a Collector's Rambles in Australia, New Zealand, and New Guinea. Illustrated by the Author. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Dixon, H. Her Majesty's Tower. Illustrated. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Erckmann-Chatrian. Friend Fritz: A Tale of the Banks of the Lauter. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Fraternity: A Romance. Harper & Bros.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports of Cases of General Value and Authority Decided in Courts of Last Resort of the Several States. Vol. V. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Howard, Prof. G. E. Introduction to the Local Constitutional History of the United States. Vol. I. Development of the Township, Hundred, and Shire. Baltimore: Publication Agency of Johns Hopkins University.
Howells, W. D. The Sleeping-Car, and Other Farces. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hugo, V. Notre-Dame de Paris. Illustrated. William R. Jenkins. 2 vols. $2.
Jennings, L. J. Speeches of Lord Randolph Churchill. 1880-1888. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Mitchell, Dr. S. W. The Cup of Youth, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Phillips—Vernay. "War with Crime": A Selection of Papers on Crime, Reformatories, etc., by the late T. Barwick Ll. Baker, Esq. Longmans, Green & Co.
Pierson, E. De L. The Black Ball. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Public Opinion: A Comprehensive Summary of the Press throughout the World. Vol. VI. October, 1888—April, 1889. The *Public Opinion* Co.
Smith, C. J. Synonyms Discriminated: A Dictionary of Synonymous Words in the English Language. New ed. Henry Holt & Co. $2.25.

Fine Arts.

THE SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

AFTER the mediocrity of the Academy exhibition and the worse than mediocrity of the "Prize Fund," comes what is, by general consent, *the* exhibition of the year. At the Varnishing Day and Press View on May 10, at the Reception and Artists' View the next day, one heard a chorus of praise, and the opinion was all but universally expressed that the eleventh exhibition of the Society of American Artists is not only, by odds, the best picture-show of the season, not only the best the Society has held, but one of the most interesting, complete, and distinguished exhibitions of American art ever brought together. It is an exhibition that should finally dispose of the kind of complaint one has so long and so often heard against the Society. This, assuredly, is not a collection of interesting studies and of tentative beginnings, but of results accomplished. It is not the work of a small coterie of artists with a single aim and narrow views, but of "many men of many minds" working through varied means towards various ends. It is a small collection, comprising only 169 numbers, from 99 hands, yet it is hardly too much to say that it represents nearly all that is best in contemporary American art. The evenness of attainment here shown and the high standard of work exhibited are the more interesting from the fact that they are not the result of rigid exclusion, the number of rejected pictures being singularly small, but of the attraction of the best for the best. The body of our artists seem to have felt that this is an exhibition conducted solely upon artistic principles and with purely artistic aims, and to have piqued themselves upon sending only their best work. The visitor to other exhibitions who may have wondered where the good work of the year was to be found, will find it here.

Such being the character of this exhibition in particular and of the exhibitions of the Society in general, it is sad to know that, from mere lack of money and of public interest, the Society of American Artists is never sure for a year together where or when it can hold its next exhibit, and is obliged to shift from one gallery to another, and from early to late in the season, as circumstances may dictate, so that it can seldom count upon making sales, and is kept alive by the perseverance and enthusiasm of its members, with the slightest public support. This year its exhibition is held under more favorable auspices than ever before, in a pleasant gallery, well lighted and well situated; and its reception on Saturday week was so largely attended and so unmistakably successful that its friends would seem, for the first time, to have some reasonable hope of a financial as well as an artistic success.

The 169 works of art now placed in the Fifth Avenue Art Galleries are, as we have said, of so high and even merit that a selection for mention seems invidious. We cannot mention all, but we need blame none. Our agreeable task is only to point out the best of the many good. The collection is particularly strong in beautiful portraiture, and contains six or eight portraits which would be recognized as of the highest merit anywhere in the world. One of the most remarkable of them is Mr. John S. Sargent's "Portrait of Mrs. M——," an elderly lady in black silk, seated in an arm-chair. One feels in it, possibly, a slight artificiality of expression, but the refined character of the sitter is thoroughly rendered, and the technical workmanship is, without exaggeration, masterly. The handling is so strong and free, yet so delicate, that it is astonishing, and Van Dyck himself could not have done better the wonderful left hand. Mr. Sargent's other portrait, that of Mrs. F. D. M., is less complete, and hardly more than a most brilliant sketch. Mr. Thayer is at his best in the "Portrait of Brother and Sister," than which anything more radically different from the work of Mr. Sargent it would be difficult to conceive. Here the manner is rough, heavy, and labored, and the color brown and lifeless, but the root of the matter is in it. One learns to look through the mannered and somewhat unpleasant technique, and one is rewarded by finding a depth and purity of sentiment which is delightful. One feels the charm of the wistful, childish faces, and one forgives everything else. Mr. Thayer's other portrait, of a woman in pale-yellow silk and white lace, is less thoroughly successful, but has, nevertheless, great qualities with its decided faults. Differing from either of these is Mr. Chase's delightful "Little Lord Fauntleroy," which has all his usual dash and brilliancy of method, combined with a delicacy of drawing and characterization in the face quite unusual with him. Place with these Mr. Weir's grave and strong portrait of the actor E. S. Connor, one of his best works; Mr. Beckwith's strongly characterized "Mr. Isaacson" and well-painted "Portrait of a Lady"; Mr. Benson's graceful and delicate "Portrait in White"; Mr. Tarbell's refined presentation of a lady in a cinnamon-colored dress, and the rich color scheme by Mr. George B. Butler, and you have a showing in portraiture, by members of the Society, which it would be hard to surpass. Yet, by members and non-members, there are more than a dozen more which are so good as to deserve mention had one the space to give it them.

With the portraits is perhaps the natural place of Mr. Dewing's little picture called "A Note," which is portrait-like in its treatment. It is one of his good things, which is as much as to say that it is refined in line, delicate in execution, and beautiful in subdued color. One could wish the hands a little larger and the background less cold, but it is one of the attractions of the exhibition.

Another notable feature of the exhibition is the number of pictures it contains in which the human figure, nude or draped, is treated from a serious or classical point of view. It is only at the exhibitions of the Society that such pictures are apt to be found in any great number, and they are more numerous and of higher quality every year. The most ambitious work in the collection (so far, at least, as size is concerned) is Mr. Ernest L. Major's "St. Genevieve." Mr. Major is the young man who was sent abroad with a scholarship a year or two ago, and he has evidently been desirous of proving that he has not wasted his opportunities. His picture has merit and shows promise, but his canvas and his subject are both too great for his present strength. Mr. Shirlaw shows at his best in "The Water-Lilies," than which we have seen nothing better from his hand. His mannerisms

of drawing and handling are much less pronounced than in some other of his recent works, and his color is fuller and less monotonous. The picture is not a literal rendering of nature either in form or value, but its rich, decorative effect is undeniable. Mr. Brush is also at his very best in "The Crane Ornament," which shows all his serious qualities of drawing and composition, and is withal somewhat less drily painted than some of his productions have been. These two pictures are at the extremes of the gamut, but there are works which strike other notes. Mr. Eaton's "Magdalene" is warm-toned and full-modelled, while Mr. Henry O. Walker's "Philomela" is charming in its cool flatness, and the daintiness of Mr. Low's delicately finished little scene, "In An Old Garden," contrasts with the strong color and pleasant briskness of handling of Mr. Blum's "Reverie." Mr. Blashfield has a half-length figure of "St. Michael," which has good painting and learned-looking armor, and Mr. G. R. Barse has a very small and very pleasing canvas called "Remembrance."

The next picture, in point of size, to Mr. Major's "St. Genevieve" is Mr. Willard L. Metcalf's "Kousse-Kousse Market—Tunis," a picture *mentionné* at the Paris Salon, and a clever piece of Orientalism, with much able painting of white walls and bournouses, but a thing that leaves one a little cold. Two or three little impressions of landscape by the same painter are far more interesting. In Mr. Howard Russell Butler's Mexican scenes, white walls in sunlight play as great a part as in Mr. Metcalf's Tunis, and his pictures look almost as Oriental and quite as well painted as the latter's. Genre subjects of a more familiar sort are painted by Mr. Chase and Mr. Wiles, with their accustomed brilliancy, in the pictures of "Afternoon Tea" and "Idleness." Mr. Theodore Robinson's "Study" of a woman at the piano is a beautiful bit of atmosphere and sentiment, and Mr. Francis Day's "Late for Breakfast" contains some charming painting. Two small canvases of somewhat eccentric composition, but great originality and beauty of tone and color, are by Mr. William S. Allen.

The collection is rather less strong in landscape than in other departments, but contains, nevertheless, some admirable pieces of work. M. Tryon has an "Evening," with the moon rising above a hill on which a cottage is seen against the sky, which is a delightful bit of tone and color, and a larger picture called "The First Leaves," which gives a wonderfully truthful impression of early spring. The composition is singularly simple and unaffected, and the painting is summary, but the total effect is convincing, and the more one sees of it the more one admires it. Mr. Tryon is just within the age-limit of the Webb prize, and has received it by a nearly unanimous vote. One of his rivals was Mr. Henry G. Dearth—a comparative new-comer—whose "Evening" is an exceedingly handsome piece of color and of sentiment. Mr. Coffin shows two pictures, called respectively "Moonrise" and "Evening Shadows," which, while not equal to the best work he has shown, are nevertheless noticeable for quiet and sound painting, and Messrs. Bolton Jones, Murphy, Dewey, and Bruce Crane are all fairly represented. There is a curious interest in seeing the methods of Mr. Thayer applied to the drawing of mountain forms in his "Landscape," which makes it one of the pictures to be studied. Mr. Van Boskerck has three pictures, of which the largest, "Sand-Dunes by the Sea," is fine in light tonality and brilliant color, though not devoid of the over-accentuation of little things which is his greatest fault, and Mr. Bogert has an "August Twilight" which is a handsome scheme of bluish grays, and an inferior and somewhat bituminous canvas called "The Beach at Night. Besides these there are a number of little landscape studies which show, in greater or lesser degree, the influence of Claude Monet. Besides the work of Mr. Metcalf, already mentioned, these include pictures by Theodore Robinson, Theodore Wendel, and Henry F. Taylor. Mr. Robinson's are the best and Mr. Wendel's the most extreme of them. They are worth study as showing the methods by which the impressionists of to-day seek to render effects of light and air, and the best of them are delightful, while the least successful are at least interesting.

Besides his portrait and genre, already mentioned, Mr. Chase has a number of those little studies of parks and docks which are so well known and which it is hard to classify, but which are sure to be among the greatest attractions of any exhibition where they are found. Mr. Horatio Walker's pictures may also puzzle the classifier, but that they are wonderful pieces of subdued color and of tone no one can doubt. He has here a "Morning" and an "Evening," the first showing the pigs which he characterizes so well, and the second representing a herd of cattle driven home by early moonlight.

There are only two bits of still-life in the galleries, but they are by Emil Carlsen, which is equivalent to saying that they are thoroughly and soberly painted, and among the best of their kind. The only flower-piece that we have noted is Miss Beach's "Scotch Roses," which is a delicate and refined bit of painting. The absence of the conventional "still-life" and "flower-piece" is no more to be regretted than the almost total lack of those "marines" which seem to require less artistic training and less knowledge of nature in their production than any other form of art.

Besides the oil paintings there is a water color by John La Farge of "Fishing with Cormorants in Japan," and there are three pastels, the best of which is a charming head by Miss Caroline T. Hecker. There are but three bits of sculpture, a bronze "Portrait in Low Relief," by Mr. St.-Gaudens; a "Portrait Bust" in plaster, by Mr. Elwell, and a "Portrait Medallion," by F. W. MacMonnies, also in plaster. Mr. MacMonnies is a pupil of St. Gaudens's who is now studying in Paris, and we believe that this is the first bit of his work publicly shown in New York. It is amazingly clever in modelling, and shows besides a very considerable feeling for character. As the work of a very young man, it must be considered eminently promising, and if its author has "staying power" at all commensurate with his native talent, he is likely to go far.

We have but skimmed the cream of the exhibition, and there remain other things well worthy of study, and few that are not very good; but we cannot reproduce the whole catalogue, and must needs stop here with a reiteration of our statement that this is the best exhibition of the year, and deserves a visit from any one interested in native art.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 30, 1889.

The Week.

Two more names must be added to the list of Harrison's relations who have received "plums" from the President's hands. Col. D. W. McClung, a cousin-in-law, his wife's father being a brother of the President's father, has been appointed Internal-Revenue Collector of the First Ohio District. It is further announced by the *World* that Lieut. Parker of the United States Navy, who has been assigned to the pleasant post of naval attaché to the Samoan Commission during its sojourn in Berlin, married a niece of Mrs. Harrison, and is, therefore, a nephew-in-law of the President. At the time of his assignment he was stationed at Mare Island Navy-yard, at San Francisco, but the Presidential eye, made keen by the determination for self-satisfaction, at whatever cost, was able to discover him and bring him East in time to start for Germany with the commissioners. The amended list of family office-holders now reads:

(1.) The President's brother.
(2.) The President's father-in-law.
(3.) The father-in-law of the President's son.
(4.) The brother of the husband of the President's daughter.
(5.) The husband of the daughter of the President's brother.
(6.) The husband of the niece of the President's wife.

We should like to appeal to the Cleveland *Leader* for information as to the proper definition of "nepotism," which it declared meant the appointment of "several" relatives to office. Do six relatives fill the bill?

On the 26th of March, 1886, Benjamin Harrison, then United States Senator from Indiana, delivered in the Senate a long speech, arraigning Grover Cleveland for breach of his pledges in the matter of civil-service reform. One of the chief counts in this indictment was what Gen. Harrison called "the story of Mrs. De la Hunt," his telling of which occupies the greater part of one of the large pages of the *Congressional Record*, vol. xvii., part 3, page 2794. "I have another case," Gen. Harrison began; "I do not know how it may seem to the Senate, but to me it is infinitely full of pathos and indignation." He proceeded to describe the military career of Maj. De la Hunt of the Twenty-sixth Indiana Volunteers, who was brought down by a wound entirely through the body, at Prairie Grove in Arkansas, and, after recovering from this desperate wound, rejoined his command and received a bullet through his arm. "Disabled by these two wounds received in his country's service, he was compelled to leave the army and return to Perry County, Indiana. But his days were few. His vital forces had been so sapped by the wounds which he had received that it was not long until a sorrowing widow and one only child followed the remains of as brave a soldier as ever went out from Indiana to his last resting-place in the grave." Maj. De la Hunt left his widow with small means, and she entered upon the work of maintaining herself and her boy. Her old father was Postmaster at Cannelton, and she became his deputy, in which capacity Gen. Harrison testified that she was "most efficient." Shortly before the expiration of President Arthur's term, said Gen. Harrison, "Isabelle De la Hunt, the widow, was appointed, on my request, by Gen. Hatton, then Postmaster-General, to this little post-office." "If there was in all this country," continued Gen. Harrison, "one person who by reason of her sex, who by reason of her widowhood, who by reason of the sacrifice she had made in giving the arm on which she leaned to her country's service, was entitled to be kept in office, was entitled to have her reputation guarded jealously and by all men who represented the Government, it was Isabelle De la Hunt." Nevertheless, the Cleveland Administration removed Mrs. De la Hunt, on the false charge of "offensive partisanship," and appointed a Democratic "worker" in her place.

The Cleveland Administration having gone out, and Gen. Harrison having become President, Mrs. De la Hunt applied for restoration to her old position as postmaster. There was no doubt as to her fitness. The present President publicly testified three years ago to the fact that she had been "most efficient." There was no doubt as to her title to the office. The present President on the same occasion bore witness to it, as above. There was no doubt as to local sentiment demanding the restoration of this most efficient and worthy person to her old office. She presented a petition more numerously signed than that of any other applicant, and representing an overwhelming majority of the patrons of the office. Of course, she was reappointed to her old position as soon as her old champion, Benjamin Harrison, became President? On the contrary, the office has been given to John Zimmerman, who has been Chairman of the Republican County Committee, and whose only claim to the place is party service. In preference to any comments of our own, we simply reprint the comments of Benjamin Harrison:

"Now, Mr. President, perhaps my distinguished friend from Kansas, whose command of language so far surpasses my own, might characterize this transaction, perhaps he could touch it up a little; but to me that work is impossible. *The story of Mrs. De la Hunt carries its own pathos and its own indignation.*"

There was a rather sombre interview between Senator Farwell and the President touching the appointment of Mr. Wilcox as Collector of Internal Revenue in the Springfield District. The version given by the former to a Chicago newspaper says:

"I told him this appointment belonged strictly to Senatorial patronage, which was already very meagre in comparison with that of Representatives, and should not be further abridged. I told him that Senator Cullom and I had consulted about a proper person to appoint to fill this vacancy, and intended in due time to make our wishes known. Under these circumstances, I told him, we regarded the appointment of Wilcox, without consulting us, as a violation of established custom and as extremely invidious towards Senator Cullom. I told him that Springfield was Senator Cullom's home, and that to make that appointment and in that way was tantamount to a declaration of war on Senator Cullom, and, indeed, a blow between the eyes. I entreated him and appealed to him, in the interests of justice and humanity, to revise his action. My appeal had no effect."

If any such words were spoken by the Senator from Illinois, they probably had an effect quite the contrary of what was intended. Such language assumes, in the first place, that an old Senator, like Mr. Harrison, needs to be told by a new Senator, like Mr. Farwell, what appointments "belong strictly to Senatorial patronage." Mr. Harrison does not need any instruction under that head. Nor does he need to be told that Mr. Farwell and Mr. Cullom had taken this particular appointment under advisement and intended to let him know their decision in due time. Considering that these Senators have no constitutional right even to know who is appointed until the name comes before them for their official action, it is a remarkable exhibition of assurance to tell the President that *they* were giving diligent attention to a subject which was his sole and exclusive business. The naïveté of Mr. Farwell's observations marks an advanced stage of ideas respecting the uses of patronage. It has been customary heretofore to fight out such battles in secret. When a Senator takes the public into his confidence, and appeals to the neighborhood for support against the President because the latter has done what the Constitution expressly authorizes and requires him to do, it is a sign that the ideas prevailing in George Washington's time on this subject have been turned topsy-turvy.

The thoroughly commercial character of the current Republican conception of public office was brought out strongly by the interview which the delegation of patronage-seekers from Brooklyn had with the President on Thursday. They went to urge, among other things, the appointment of Theodore B. Willis as Surveyor of the Port of New York, and their chief argument was that Mr. Willis came from a ward in Brooklyn which "was made famous by the fact that it had alone raised a contribution of $50,000 for the campaign fund." The President showed no surprise that the money basis for the claim should be revealed so frankly, probably because he is accustomed to that kind of thing now.

The whole energy of the Republican press is now devoted to efforts at proving that Harrison is no worse than Cleveland. As a matter of fact these efforts are unsuccessful. Harrison is not doing as well as Cleveland. The latter came into office as the representative of a party which "had not had a smell of the offices" for twenty-five years, and yet he

allowed the larger proportion of the Republican incumbents of four-year offices to serve out their terms, so that the commissions of Republican postmasters were expiring all through the last months of his Administration. Harrison, on the other hand, although representing a party which controlled all the offices from 1861 to 1885, and a large share of the most important ones for longer or shorter periods between 1885 and 1889, removes efficient public servants in the middle of their terms, openly and avowedly because they are Democrats. Cleveland took for his rule of conduct—although he did not live up to it in many cases—the principle that the public interest should decide whether or not a Republican incumbent should be retained. Harrison accepts that article of the Republican creed which holds that a Democratic office-holder has no rights which a Republican President is bound to respect; that, indeed, the ten commandments, strictly interpreted, contain a prohibition against any Democrat's drawing a salary out of the Federal Treasury. Any candid person, contrasting the moderation exhibited by the Democratic Administration four years ago with the rapacity now shown by the Republicans, must confess that it is not true that Harrison is no worse than Cleveland.

The visit of Civil-Service Commissioner Roosevelt to the Custom-house has occasioned some disturbance in the councils of the local examining board. This is the best possible evidence that Mr. Roosevelt's presence was needed. The most insidious danger that threatens the Civil-Service Law is infidelity and treachery on the part of those appointed to administer it. The politicians and henchmen for a long time refused to believe that the law was meant to include them. They thought that it was only intended for greenhorns. When they found that it really did apply to them as well as others, they set about plans for circumventing it. One plan was to establish an underground connection with the examining boards. We have long suspected that a private runway of this kind existed at the Custom-house. Mr. Roosevelt appears to have secured a thread to the labyrinth, and has made a good beginning, and we hope, and have no doubt, that he will follow it whithersoever it leads.

Three more States are likely to be added to the list of those enacting ballot-reform laws before the present legislative year closes, bringing the total up to eleven. The Connecticut House passed on Wednesday week an excellent bill, by a vote of 183 to 9, the opposition being made up of 5 Republicans and 4 Democrats. Many Democratic members voted with the Republicans in favor of the bill, though they would have liked it better had it contained a provision for the grouping of candidates' names by parties. It has since passed the Senate and now awaits the approval of the Governor. A bill containing the principal provisions of the Australian system passed one house of the Illinois Legislature on the same day, and one has been reported from Committee to the Michigan Legislature, and its passage is said to be assured.

There appears to be a very general consensus of opinion in Connecticut that its present Legislative Assembly has proved itself to be the most venal and corrupt that ever has figured in the experience of the State. The measure of chief interest and importance that has been before it was the application of the Housatonic Railroad Company to be allowed to construct certain branch roads, which, if constructed, it was perfectly well understood, would, in connection with existing lines, practically constitute a parallel and competing road with the New York and New Haven Railroad; and such a result of course it was for the interest of the latter road to obstruct and prevent. The matter came up originally on petition of the Housatonic corporation, was referred to the appropriate committees, was argued pro and con by able counsel, and finally reported on adversely by a majority of the Committee. The question whether the public interest would be promoted by a parallel and competing road was the least of the considerations before the House, although some attention was given in a perfunctory way to that branch of the subject. It was early perceived that money would decide the question one way or the other. The scent of carrion is not more potent to draw buzzards to its neighborhood than was the prospect of boodle to bring all the outside legislative talent to the lobbies of the State House at Hartford. As these people never work for fun, it is to be presumed that they were duly commissioned and had their pockets filled by the high contesting parties. As the work went on, nearly all pretence of secrecy was abandoned. There may have been other similar experiences in Pennsylvania, under Kemble's management, or in South Carolina under the rule of Moses, but New England has never before seen anything comparable with it in its Legislative Assemblies. Liquor flowed like water, although a majority of this precious Legislature voted in favor of constitutional prohibition. There was carousing by day and carousing by night on the part of the ingenuous workers and their friends; and every restaurant in Hartford that could satisfy the hungry and thirsty, and had an apartment where things could be talked over confidentially, enjoyed an increased run of business. Under such circumstances, conversions went on rapidly, and in the main adversely to the Housatonic.

The Vedder Liquor-Tax Bill, as finally passed by the late Legislature and sent to Gov. Hill, is a very different measure from what it was as passed by previous Legislatures. We criticised it in its former shape very severely because it taxed the liquor traffic in New York and Brooklyn from two to thirteen times as heavily as in other parts of the State, and made the entire proceeds of the tax go into the State Treasury. Our objection was that the cities of New York and Brooklyn would be thus compelled to pay about three-fourths of a tax which was estimated as likely to amount to over $3,000,000 annually, the remainder of the State paying only one-fourth. New York city alone would have had to pay nearly two-thirds of the entire tax. We urged that the tax ought to be uniform over all parts of the State, and that the proceeds from each county should go into that county's treasury, rather than into the State Treasury. Mr. Vedder has finally come to our way of thinking, for his bill as passed levies a uniform tax of $100 upon all sellers under what is known as a full liquor license, and $20 upon those selling under a beer license, and provides that while the proceeds shall be paid into the State Treasury, each county shall be credited with the full amount collected from the traffic within its limits, the same to be deducted from its State tax. This makes the measure a desirable one in every respect. It levies a reasonable tax upon the traffic which is certain to be collected, because the duty of its collection will belong to the regular State officials, and payment can no more be avoided than in the case of any other State tax. It would be a tax over and above all existing license and excise fees, and would operate as a distinct and important check upon the traffic. In many parts of the State it would much more than double existing license rates. In Brooklyn the liquor-license fee is only $100, while in many of the smaller cities of the State the fee runs as low as $50. If the Governor cannot make up his mind to sign the Excise Bill which is before him, he ought certainly to be able to approve this Tax Bill. It will be very difficult for him to find plausible reasons for not signing it.

The Mayor has now made twenty-three important appointments to public office, and, with a single exception, every salaried position has been given to a man who is either a member or about to become a member of Tammany Hall. In his letter of acceptance, the Mayor himself set the standard by which his conduct should be judged. He declared in that letter that the success or failure of any Mayor's administration "will ultimately depend upon the manner in which he shall exercise the appointing power," and as a pledge of the way in which he proposed to exercise it he said: "I shall prescribe no other test than honesty and special capacity for the offices to be filled. . . . I pledge myself to be guided in its exercise solely by a determination to secure for the people the very highest order of public servants that the citizenship of the county affords. . . . The municipal offices are the property of the people. I would have no more right to use the public service for my own purposes than to use the public treasury to pay my private debts. . . . In exercising the appointing power, I will not be moved by considerations of personal friendship, nor will I be affected by any individual preferences." Measured by this self-imposed standard, an overwhelming majority of the twenty-three appointments are ludicrously wanting in nearly every respect. All the most important positions have been filled by personal friends or "cronies." This

is so obviously the case that the Mayor, five months after coming into office, finds himself without a single city newspaper of any standing which is able to defend him. Those which had most faith in him at the outset are now his severest critics.

The Detroit *Tribune's* blighting exposure of Prof. H. C. Adams's lectures on political economy in the University of Michigan has brought out a great deal of "testimony" from members of the State Legislature. Mr. F. F. Hoaglin, Chairman of the House Committee on Municipal Corporations, writes to the *Tribune* to say that "new text-books should be adopted in the University which will teach something nearer to American ideas." Senator Chapman thinks that "it is high time our boys were hearing both sides of this question, and having text-books of both complexions in their hands." Senator Fox is of the same opinion, but he makes the natural mistake of saying that there is an abundance of literature on the side opposed to Prof. Adams, meaning that there are plenty of text-books to be put into the hands of students that would refute Prof. Adams. Would not these simple-minded Senators mention the titles of some of these text-books? We have never heard of them. We know the contents of most of the text-books of political economy in the English language. We do not know a single one that teaches or supports the doctrines to which the Republican party is now committed. We therefore repeat our suggestion that the editor of the Detroit *Tribune* should prepare one for use in the University of Michigan. As it is not likely that a Faculty which tolerates the heresies of Prof. Adams would approve such a text-book, it might be submitted to the criticism of Representative Hoaglin and Senators Chapman and Fox. Fortified with a text-book so certified, the University of Michigan would undoubtedly draw students from all parts of the English-speaking world.

Society is deeply stirred at Quincy, Ill., by the death from croup of an infant whose mother was a "Christian scientist." When the child became ill, a practitioner of Christian science, one Mrs. Dr. Hinckley, was called, and, after making a diagnosis, said that it was a mistake to suppose that the infant was sick. On the contrary, it was well. It could not be alleged that the child had a "belief," and that this belief was the cause of its apparent distress, since it was too young to have beliefs extending beyond the range of the nursing bottle. But that it was not sick was the confident assurance of Mrs. Dr. Hinckly. An hour and a half later, when the mother lifted the child out of its cradle, it was dead. No regular physician was called until it became necessary to procure a burial certificate. Then the facts became known. The mother was not an ignorant woman. She was a person moving in the best society of the place. She was not a heartless woman. On the contrary, she was and is nearly distracted with grief at the loss of her babe. Her understanding of the mishap is, that "her mortal mind was not strong enough to hold it; she left it but a few minutes, and it slipped away." This phase of Christian science implies that in a case where the patient is too young to wrestle with a "belief," its mother, if possessed of sufficient will-power, can vicariously throw off the illusion which takes the form of croup, measles, scarlet fever, or any disease whatsoever. There are sects in "Christian science," and the sectaries are at bitter feud with each other. What sect Mrs. Dr. Hinckley belongs to is not stated in the local accounts of the affair, but it is apparent from the newspaper comments that public opinion in Quincy is pretty strongly in favor of sending somebody to jail. It is time that an example was made of this felonious humbug. The laws of most States are sufficient to secure sick babies against homicide at the hands of Christian science if they are properly enforced.

The renewal of gold exports has had no adverse effect upon trade or speculation, and there is no reason why it should have any. As the *Financial Chronicle* shows, the entire export of gold since January 1, 1889, has been only $17,000,000. In other words, it has been little more than our production of gold during the same period of time, the yearly production being about $34,000,000. The *Chronicle* notes also a practice growing up, in the negotiation of time loans, of inserting the word gold as the kind of currency receivable at maturity. This is a commendable practice, especially in view of the preparations making by Senator Stewart and others to bring the country to a silver basis. If any such project should be carried out by Congress, let those who are fond of silver have silver, and let those who prefer gold have gold. Nothing can be fairer than that. It costs nothing to make gold contracts, and every such contract made adds at least one interested party to the political force opposed to the destructive aims of the Nevada Senators.

A correspondent, writing to us on the subject of the importation of Mexican silver-lead ores, directs our attention to two rulings of the Treasury Department which are supposed to be in conflict with that of Secretary Sherman in 1880, which is now in force and which governs the assessment of duty on such ores. The rulings are cited as follows:

Ruling of Treasury Department by letter dated November 16, 1875:

Silver bullion is free, but silver-lead bullion, no matter how much silver it has in it, is taxed as *lead* bullion.

Ruling of same, July 5, 1888:

All copper in silver-copper ore shall be subject to duty.

The answer as to the second quoted ruling is, that the law provides in so many words that the amount of pure *copper* contained in any ore shall be dutiable at 2½ cents per pound. There is no such provision of law regarding the *lead* contained in any ore. As to the other ruling, we observe that it relates to bullion, which is a finished product, and not to ore, which is a raw material.

"Mr. P. Egan's nomination has been cabled, and we hope it will not be confirmed. Americans, English, and Chilians also look upon it with great disfavor." The above is an extract from a private letter dated Santiago, April 5. The writer's party preferences do not appear, and have no part in forming the sentiment we have quoted. He is one of the thousand American citizens residing in Chili, anxious only that this country should be respectably represented in the person of the Minister sent to the Government under the jurisdiction of which they are living. It has already been abundantly shown that the choice of Mr. Egan is altogether bad from the point of view of our domestic politics; our correspondent shows how bad it will be in its influence upon our commercial relations with Chili and upon the interest of many American residents in that country. Mr. Egan cannot hope to be known there in any other guise than as a creature of Mr. Blaine's; and he could have no worse credentials. To invite Chili to a conference in order to discuss ways of extending our commerce with her, and then to send her as a Minister a henchman of the American whom she justly regards as her worst enemy, and a fugitive from the country with which she stands in the closest relations, is little short of insulting. More than that, there are American claims pending against Chili, for damages caused in the Peruvian war, and the American Minister to Chili ought to be a man able to pick up the threads of the negotiation for a tribunal of arbitration to settle them. Minister Roberts had the matter well in hand before his recall. Who supposes that Patrick Egan is a proper person to take charge of an affair of such intricacy and delicacy? Who supposes, for that matter, that either President Harrison or Mr. Blaine thought he was, or cared whether he was or not?

In French newspaper-slang, "bouillon" means that portion of any day's issue of a paper that remains unsold. The French papers have the custom of taking back from the keepers of the kiosks the whole, or a part, of this surplus every day. This seems to have suggested to the kiosk-keepers a little trick by which to increase their revenue, and some of them have been in the habit of lending out copies of the various journals to cafés and wine-shops in their neighborhood, receiving them back at night, and returning them to the newspaper offices with the "bouillon" next morning. A few weeks ago the *Figaro* engaged a sheriff's officer to make a round of the wine-shops in a suspected quarter, calling for a "bock" and the newspapers in each place, and leaving a private mark on each copy of the *Figaro* that was given him. The next morning he went over the same ground with the "bouillon" gatherers, and discovered many marked copies of the paper in the "bouillon." The *Figaro* thought best not to proceed in a criminal suit against the fraudulent kiosk keepers, but sued them for damages before the tribunal of the Seine, which has just compelled five of them to pay from ten to thirty-five francs apiece.

THE HUNDREDTH YEAR OF THE PRESIDENCY.

THE last number of the London *Economist*, now the most philosophic of English periodicals, has an article on the place of the American President in popular estimation, apropos of the extraordinary honor with which President Harrison was received in the late Centennial ceremonial. It maintains that the way in which the President has gained in strength and respect during the past hundred years is the most remarkable phenomenon in the history of modern democracy. Kings have been running down steadily in popular estimation during that period. Aristocracies are nowhere, and representative legislative assemblies, which, at the beginning of the century, seemed the hope of mankind, have distinctly fallen into a sort of contempt. During all this period, however, the *Economist* thinks, the President has been gaining in weight and authority, and was, in the celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the Constitution, not only the recipient of more than royal respect, but the most conspicuous and interesting figure of the occasion in the eyes of the multitude.

This is the view of an acute observer looking on from afar, but it only shows how many things escape such observers. Mr. Bryce described the President's actual position much more accurately when he said that

> "the difficulty of forming a just estimate of the President's power arises from the fact that it differs so much under ordinary and extraordinary circumstances. . . . In ordinary times the President may be compared to the senior or managing clerk in a large business establishment, whose chief function is to select his subordinates, the policy of the concern being in the hands of a board of directors. But when foreign affairs become critical, or when disasters within the Union require his intervention, . . . everything may depend on his judgment, his courage, and his hearty loyalty to the principles of the Constitution."

And Mr. Bryce touches with remarkable perspicacity on the cause of the imposing figure cut by the President on such occasions as that which called forth the *Economist's* remarks; that is, "the larger a community becomes, the less does it respect an assembly, the more it is attracted by an individual man." In other words, by being raised as much as he is above the mass, the President becomes in the popular eye the one really picturesque figure in the country. His house, his mode of life, his habits, the state he assumes, if any, all touch the popular imagination, which is gratified in the highest degree by seeing him play the leading part in a great historic function like that of the Centennial. The interest in his inaugural ceremonial is of much the same kind. Nobody supposes it to have much, if any, political significance, but it is, nevertheless, watched with intense eagerness, and its smallest details are carefully reported.

The point on which the *Economist's* view of the present position of the Presidential office is most defective, is the immense influence of the spoils system in depriving the office of the weight and authority intended for it by the Constitution. This has been so great as to make the honors paid to the President on ceremonial occasions even more deceptive as to his real power than those paid to the Queen of England. When Bishop Potter was pointing out, in St. Paul's Church, the difference between the attitude of Washington towards office-seekers and that of President Harrison, he had only the moral aspect of the matter in mind, but he was really touching on a political fact of great moment. The truth is, that the Presidential office, as defined by the Constitution, has been profoundly modified by the obligation imposed on the President by his party of treating nearly all the offices of the Government as virtually vacant as soon as he comes into power. It is this which, more than anything else, has diminished the authority of the President in his relations to the other branches of the Government, and must, as long as it lasts, continue to diminish it. By submitting to it, a succession of Presidents have, to all intents and purposes, surrendered illicitly a considerable portion of the power bestowed on them by the Constitution, and greatly impaired that separation between the legislative and executive functions which its framers intended should be a prominent and most important feature of the Government. In fact, a change has been effected in the position of the President which, if proposed to the people in the shape of a constitutional amendment any time within the last hundred years, would have been rejected with scorn, and which, in any constitutional convention, would be received with laughter, not only as a political novelty, but as a business absurdity. Not only has no administrative experiment like "the spoils system" ever been seriously tried, but it has never been seriously discussed in any deliberative body.

It is to be observed, too, that in all probability this degradation of the Presidency and transfer of a large portion of its authority to the Senate and House of Representatives, could never have been effected if the burden of the appointing power had been kept within natural limits. Had tenure during good behavior been the rule of the Government service as it is of all private service, and had vacancies been created only by death, or resignation, or dismissal for cause, there is hardly a doubt that the President could have successfully maintained his constitutional rights against the boldest and most persistent attempts at usurpation on the part of the Senate. He would have been quite competent to make the selections necessary for the proper conduct of the Government business, without calling in the assistance of the Legislature, if the selections had been no more numerous than they would have been under a private employer.

What has wrested from him the control of the Administration is the doctrine that every change of party vacates *de jure* all the offices, and that the victors at the elections are entitled to have them filled with their own nominees as soon as the physical labor of the operation can be performed. When this was conceded, the position of the President under the Constitution was greatly changed, simply because no one man can direct or control "a clean sweep." He has to delegate to others the conduct of the process, and confine himself to the humble rôle of countersigning their orders. One of the most striking illustrations of the uncertainties of political development is to be found in the fact that the man who first began this remarkable departure from the original design of the Constitution regarding the Presidency, should have been the most masterful and self-asserting President we have ever had, the last man knowingly to permit or connive at any diminution of the Presidential authority. President Harrison's weakness and insignificance to-day is, in fact, the natural and logical consequence of President Jackson's arrogance and insolence fifty years ago.

THE NEW PENSION POLICY.

"IN appointments to every grade and department," said Gen. Harrison in his letter of acceptance, "fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office." Perhaps the most flagrant breach of the engagement thus entered into by the present President, certainly the one which threatens most harm to the public interest, was the appointment of Tanner as Commissioner of Pensions.

The regular expenditures of the Pension Bureau now far exceed the total cost of the whole Federal Government before the war. In other words, the Commissioner superintends the disbursement of a much larger sum than all the heads of departments together prior to 1861. Moreover, in a peculiar sense the head of the Pension Bureau is the custodian of the national honor. The patriotism of the Union soldier is a source of pride to the whole country. Every right-minded man desires that the volunteer's reputation for self-sacrificing devotion shall never be tarnished. The Commissioner of Pensions wields more influence than any other officer of the Government in deciding whether the Union soldier shall go down to history as a patriot, or as a mercenary who apparently entered the army chiefly to see how much he could make out of it. For some years there has been a strong tendency on the part of many old soldiers to convert their supposed patriotism into a club for securing undeserved pensions. The Grand Army organization unhappily fell under the control of this set, and has been transformed largely from its original conception of an association of former comrades for mutual advantage into a money-making machine. Of course it soon drifted into politics, and for some time past has used its power as a means of demanding offices and "bulldozing" officials.

President Cleveland's veto of the Dependent Pension Bill—an act which extorted the commendation of even such Republican papers as the Philadelphia *Press*, the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, and the Chicago *Tribune*—temporarily arrested this dangerous and demoralizing tendency. His reelection would have given assurance that moderation would continue the rule for four years more. The election of Harrison aroused apprehensions of a change for the worse, but

nobody supposed that it would begin to be so bad as it already is. For the most important, responsible, and delicate office of Commissioner Gen. Harrison picked out—no, that is not the proper expression; he allowed to be shoved upon him—a loud-mouthed Grand Army stump-speaker. Anybody who knows anything about Tanner would have laughed in derision at the suggestion that fitness to discharge the duties of the place ever dictated his choice. It was simply, solely, and avowedly a reward for party service demanded by the Grand Army machine.

When the Democrats came into control of the House of Representatives fifteen years ago, an amusing Texas politician named Fitzhugh, who was chosen doorkeeper, leaped into fame by writing a letter in which he complacently described himself as "a biger man than old Grant." Tanner considers himself not only a bigger man than old Harrison, but more powerful than the legislative department of the Government as well. No sooner was he established in office than he began overruling any adverse decision which had been made, and allowing any fellow a pension who would take the trouble to ask it. Being invited to attend the recent Scotch-Irish Convention at Columbia, Tenn., he prepared with care a speech announcing "my policy," which he took pains to have sent all over the country by the Associated Press. In the course of this speech he said that there are 33,871 men upon the pension roll who receive not over $3.75 per month, and continued: "For twenty years I have been able to only plead, but now I am thankful that at these finger-tips there rests some power, and as that power is mine, I broadly say that I propose, just as soon as possible, to call in every one of the certificates of pension the figures of which I have just named, and reissue them on the basis of the truth, that no man ought to be down on the pension roll of the United States for less than the miserable pittance of one dollar per week, though I may wring from the hearts of some the prayer, 'God help the surplus!' This, and some other things too numerous to go in detail about, I propose to do, if my life be spared and my official existence be not cut short."

Of course, every intelligent man knows that Tanner really has no such power as he here egotistically claims to possess; but he can go ahead, and then ask his critics Tweed's question, "What are you going to do about it?" He has the Grand Army machine behind him, and he can threaten its displeasure upon any politician who ventures a protest. Tanner represents the "soldier vote" which is so much talked about, and he is ready to "use it for all it is worth."

We note, however, signs that there are Republican newspapers which recognize that there are worse things to be dreaded than the hostility of the Grand Army machine; that there is a taxpayer vote which counts for more than the "soldier vote" when it is once aroused. The pension expenditures of the current fiscal year will exceed the appropriation of $88,400,000, and it is already estimated that the bills for the next fiscal year will reach $95,000,000. This is a greater amount than the cost of the entire military establishment of Germany, under which the people of that nation groan so loudly. But if Tanner can have his way, the pension expenditures will soon be nearer $200,000,000 a year than $100,000,000. In fact, there is no telling where he would be content to stop.

Can the Republican party stand such a riot of pension extravagance? This is a question which Republican papers are beginning to ask, only to answer in the negative. "Pension-Commissioner Tanner," says the Philadelphia *Press*, "has a mania on the subject of pensions, which was the chief objection raised to his appointment. He would apparently like to pension everybody and everything. But he should realize where the pension money comes from, and also that it is no satisfaction to a deserving veteran to know that undeserving ones are on the rolls. While the people generally believe in liberal treatment of the veterans, they want the really deserving ones to get the money. The annual expenditures for this purpose are now rapidly climbing up to $100,000,000, and it is time to go slow." In the same line are the comments of the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, which says:

"It is evident, in the Commissioner's judgment, any man who donned the uniform of a soldier in the war of the rebellion is entitled to a pension, whether the wearer saw a battle or received a wound; and so far does his sympathy with soldiers go that it has outrun the Union veterans and includes the Confederates as well. If there is anything like a plausible reason why a man should have a pension, Commissioner Tanner seems to have made up his mind that the reason shall be utilized to the benefit of the applicant. In his judgment, it is probably better that a thousand undeserving men should have pensions than that one deserving man should fail to get his.

"It may be doubted very much whether the Union veterans who were most gratified at Commissioner Tanner's appointment will be altogether pleased at his extreme zeal in endeavoring to enlarge the pension roll. It is not an honor to them, or to those of them who are drawing pensions as rewards for their valor in the actual service of the Government, to find themselves classified with men who cook up 'claims' for services which, if not bogus, need to be covered over with a good deal of specious reasoning in order to obtain a standing under the law. In encouraging this order of claimants, Commissioner Tanner not only destroys the value of the pension list as a roll of honor in the eyes of the Grand Army of the Republic, and, indeed, of all citizens, but he fosters, no matter how good his intentions may be, the arts and tricks of the tribe of pension shysters who are always ready to corrupt and demoralize this branch of the public service. They need to have the lines tightened upon them and not loosened."

Here appears the irreparable mischief which Gen. Harrison has inflicted by his refusal to keep the solemn pledges upon which he sought and obtained the Presidency. Republican organs are to-day forced to cry out in indignation against the outrageous course of the Pension Commissioner, simply because the President did not make "fitness the essential and discriminating test" in filling the office, as he said he would, but did make "party service," as he expressly engaged that he would not.

THE BRUTALITY OF CIVILIZATION.

THE disgraceful scenes which have accompanied the opening of that part of the Indian Territory known as Oklahoma to white settlers are putting no check to this legalized trespassing on the lands of the Indians; and a committee of the United States Senate is about to begin negotiations with the Cherokees for the part of their possessions in the Indian Territory known as the "Cherokee strip." There is no doubt that the proposition to take this land from its owners comes entirely from the white men, and is with practical unanimity opposed by the Cherokees. But there are indications that there is a determination to make short work of this opposition, and even to treat with scorn those provisions of the Cherokee Constitution under which alone the voice of that people in the matter can be legally obtained. A United States Senator is quoted as saying that unless these Indians do what, under their laws, they cannot do—that is, call a council at once to consider the matter—Congress will pass a law opening their lands to settlement without giving them any voice on the subject; and a leading California journal has declared that the Government cannot evict the settlers who have entered these lands in violation of the most solemn agreements, and that there is "practical justice" in what it is not ashamed to call "this crowding-out game."

If some critic of our Government wanted to bring the most direct proof of the perfidy of the people of the United States towards the original owners of our soil, he would cite our dealings with these Cherokees. When Oglethorpe came over from England in 1733 with his paupers to found a colony, he landed in the Cherokees' country. He found them ready to welcome him, and eager not only to learn from him the arts of civilization, but to be instructed in Christianity. He encountered implacable enemies in the white Spaniards and Frenchmen, but only allies and defenders in the Indians, whom no bribes could win away from him. But the trustees of the colony in time abandoned the enterprise, and a royal government was set up. Then came bad faith with the Indians and resultant wars, and out of these came, in 1763, the inevitable treaty. By this they ceded a large tract of their lands to the whites. The Cherokees remained loyal to the British during the Revolutionary war and were great sufferers by it. White men steadily encroached on their possessions, and when they came to deal with the Government of the United States, one of their first requests was, as it will be now, that the trespassers should be removed. The Government professed its inability to do this, and another agreement was made in 1785, by which the Indians accepted pay for their lost territory. Four years later the Secretary of War reported to the President that "it has been proved that the said treaty has been entirely disregarded by the white people." Again the treaty swindle was made use of, and a new agreement, in 1791, was made, under which the Cherokees were to receive $1,000 a year for the lands of which they had been robbed, and "new boundaries were established." This treaty "solemnly guarantees to the Cherokee Nation all their lands not hereby ceded."

But the boomers of those days continued their encroachments without any cessation. Another treaty was made in 1794, and in 1801 the President sent a commission on an errand exactly like that of the present Senate Committee, "to obtain the consent of the Cherokees" to still newer boundaries. They refused consent, but the pressure on them continued, and in 1805 they made another cession of lands, in 1816 two more cessions, which took away all their possessions in South Carolina, and in 1817 still another; this time the Government solemnly covenanting to give to each head of a family east of the Mississippi 640 acres, "with a reversion in fee simple to their children." These Indians whom the Government was thus steadily robbing, were even then not savages. So long ago as when Oglethorpe made their acquaintance they had said: "We would not be made Christians as the Spaniards make Christians; we would be taught before we are baptized." They manufactured cotton cloth in 1800, and in 1820 they had schools, a national form of government, and farms under cultivation, and almost every family used the card and spinning-wheel.

But of what avail was a treaty with Indians when they occupied lands that white men coveted? In 1829 the beginning of the end was reached. In that year Georgia passed a so-called law annulling all laws and ordinances passed by the Cherokees, and providing that no Cherokee or Creek should be a competent witness in any court when a white man was a party to the suit. Then the State demanded that the Federal Government should extinguish all the Indian titles to lands within her boundaries. The history of the dispossession of the Cherokees has never been fully written, and it is to be hoped, for the sake of the white men, that it never will be. The bad men among them were bribed; their lands were put up at lottery by the whites; Cherokees were hanged by the verdict of white juries, and so greatly were they persecuted that, beautiful as was their country and strong as was their love of it, they yielded at last, and in 1835, after persistent opposition, they took the final step, and ceded to the Government all their lands east of the Mississippi. What they gave up is thus described in a report made to the War Department in 1825:

> "The plains furnish immense pasturage, and numberless herds of cattle are dispersed over them; horses are plenty; numerous flocks of sheep, goats, and swine cover the valleys and hills. The climate is delicious and healthy. In the plains and valleys the soil is generally rich, producing Indian corn, cotton, tobacco, wheat, oats, indigo, and sweet and Irish potatoes. Apple and peach orchards are quite common, and gardens are cultivated. There are many public roads and houses of entertainment kept by natives. Numerous and flourishing villages are seen in every section of the country. Cotton and woollen cloths are manufactured. Different branches in mechanics are pursued."

Is it any wonder that this people clung to their homes until an army was sent to drive them out? "The full moon of May is already on the wane," said Gen. Scott in his warning proclamation to them, "and before another shall have passed away every Cherokee, man, woman, and child, in those States (North Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Alabama) must be in motion to join their brethren in the West." There was even haggling by Gen. Scott over the Indians' estimate of the cost of their journey; he thought that sixteen cents a day for rations was too high. We will not attempt to picture this journey of young and old half-way across the continent.

It is the last refuge of these Indians that Congress once more proposes to cut down. Some of this land they have already been coerced into parting with. Is it any wonder that they protest against giving up any more? These Indians, it must be remembered, are not the strolling bands found on the Sioux reservation, dependent on Government rations for food (now that their game is killed off), and still retaining their savage customs. They are a civilized nation, with a carefully devised form of government, living in neat houses (see a recent report of the Interior Department), owning sewing machines and pianos, raising their own wool and cotton, maintaining schools at a cost of some $75,000 a year, with stores, mills, and smith-shops, a printed constitution and laws, and a weekly newspaper.

It is a sad chapter in our history, this story of the Cherokees, and there does not seem to be vitality enough in public sentiment on the subject of Indian wrongs to give any assurance that new chapters will not have to be written, so long as white boomers covet the red man's land, and members of Congress see a way to strengthening themselves with their constituents by assisting in the theft.

ITALIAN EMIGRATION.

THE *Economista d'Italia* of April 17 gave what it called the "painful figures" of the emigration of Italians for the year 1888, as furnished by the Director-General of Statistics. The total is 195,211, as against 127,748 in 1887. This is exclusive of temporary emigration—the leaving the country for a few months, that is, in search of temporary work. The departures are mostly from the agricultural provinces of the South, though Venetia leads the list with 81,042 emigrants, compared with 26,239 in 1887. From some parts of the province there has been almost a complete exodus. About Treviso, for example, entire villages are depopulated, and large estates are left without a single laborer, recalling the worst days of Ireland's famine and emigration. And the *Economista* fears that it is but a question of months before Piedmont and Lombardy and Tuscany will follow the example of Venetia.

The Italian journal does not hesitate to ascribe this accelerated emigration in large part to the present fiscal policy of the nation. The system of protection and militarism hits the farmer hard both going and coming; all his supplies cost him more, and the market for his products is narrowed; at the same time his taxes are increased. It is an agricultural crisis under which Italy is struggling, and it is from great distress and hardships in the agricultural regions that the Italian farm laborer is fleeing. Such a forced emigration must have a very different effect upon the mother country, says the *Economista*, from that which comes from colonization or the voluntary leaving of their native land by men bent on business enterprises. Patriotic sentiment cannot long survive in those who remember their country chiefly as the scene of their misery. And the struggle with the productive power of foreign nations will not be any the easier for Italy after she has sent thousands of her sons to become a part of the efficiency of her competitors.

A decidedly brighter view of the matter, at least in one of its aspects, is taken by the London *Spectator*, in its issue of April 27. It discusses the question of Italian influence in the Argentine Republic, and predicts the ultimate if not speedy Italianization of that country. Of the total immigration into the Republic of the La Plata for the last thirty-three years, 65 per cent. is Italian. In 1885 the Italian Chamber of Commerce of Buenos Ayres estimated that there were in the country no less than 1,000,000 persons of Italian birth or parentage. As this would indicate, the Italian emigrants are highly prolific. They marry with the native Indians more frequently than other new-comers, and such unions have been very fruitful. Of a present estimated population of 3,500,000, it is very possible that Italian blood is to be found in nearly one-half. With these facts to go upon, the *Spectator* argues that a new and greater Italy may arise in South America, to restore the decaying glory of the Italian name.

This appears to us to be an optimistic if not actually absurd view to take. It overlooks too many of the elements of the situation. Mere numbers do not count for much in the countries of Spanish-America. If they did, then Mexico and Chili and Brazil would be known as nations of Indians. No governments better illustrate the inevitable way in which a superior race dominates over an inferior, and, though few in actual numbers, determines the character and destiny of the nation. The vast majority of Italian emigrants to the Argentine Republic are of the grade we see most of in this country, and have little more immediate effect upon the government than the Indians with whom they so readily affiliate.

Then as to the actual influence of the Italians in the Argentine Republic, it is of course a thing not to be settled by any one's opinion; but intelligent Argentines with whom we have talked rate it very low. And numbers of suggestive facts might be cited in opposition to the view of the *Spectator*. For example, there are published in Buenos Ayres nine Italian newspapers and periodicals, of all sorts; but there are 109 Spanish, the latter including all the scientific and technical journals and by far the most able of the financial and political papers. In this respect the Italians are but a little in advance of the English, Germans, and French, each of those nationalities being represented by four publications; in proportion to the national constituency the latter mean more than do the nine Italian. Take the question of banking influence. Against

the twenty Spanish-American banks can be set but two Italian, while there are three English, two French, and one each for the Germans and Spaniards. It may be added that not a single important officer of the Argentine Republic is an Italian. Certainly the *Spectator's* great Italian power of the Plate River has not yet arrived.

Moreover, there is likely to be a falling off in the Italian emigration to the Argentine Republic. The leaders of that country have already taken measures to discourage and check the coming of Italians who are mere unskilled laborers. At the same time, they are making strenuous efforts and liberal offers to induce emigration from the north of Europe—from Sweden and Norway, from Belgium and Holland. These attempts may not succeed, though we notice that in the month of March over 2,000 Belgians landed at Buenos Ayres; but they indicate that the Government has its eye on emigration, and that it will not hesitate to adopt stringent laws to keep out those whom it may not desire. It is certainly a mistake for the *Spectator* to speak of "Spanish indolence" giving the more wide-awake Italians a golden opportunity in the Argentine Republic. That country does not lie in the tropics. Its inhabitants have the vigor and energy appropriate to a temperate zone. Its ruling spirits are men of great ability. Buenos Ayres has literary and educational interests and organizations of great and growing importance. The *Spectator* will much sooner see home rule in Ireland than Italian rule in the country of the Argentines.

A REVISED WESTMINSTER.

It is easy to assign an undue importance to the action of the Presbyterian General Assembly looking towards a possible revision of the Westminster Confession. The way chosen of disposing of the question is entirely indeterminate—in fact, makes revision possible only after several years. This, of course, is in accordance with the traditional caution of the Presbyterian polity, which is always content to maintain the ancient landmarks until compelled by the general sentiment of the denomination to change them. Possessed of absolute power to settle the whole matter itself, the Assembly prefers to remit it to the presbyteries—that is, the pastors and churches—after the manner of an *ad-referendum* government. By these lower and more widespread courts the question must now be debated; and even if they decide upon change, it will take several years to engraft it upon Presbyterian organic law.

One should bear in mind the peculiar constitution of the Presbyterian judicatories as bearing on the decision of such questions. They are often compared to the gradations of the civil courts, rising from lower to higher, appeals lying from the presbytery to the synod, and thence to the Assembly as the Supreme Court. The analogy is fair enough, though it overlooks the fact that the same judges may be found in all three bodies, reviewing, for example, in synod or Assembly, decisions which they themselves have helped to make in presbytery. It is quite out of the question, then, to have a fresh and impartial review by higher judicatories of a case arising in the lower.

It is this interlacing of courts and functions that usually makes it so difficult and prolonged a matter to effect a change of any importance in the Presbyterian system; the revision of the Book of Discipline, for instance, was finally effected five years ago only after having been before the churches for years. And it is probable, as we have said, that the Assembly merely determined to set in motion this cumbrous machinery to find out, in the first place, if a revision of the creed is desired, and then, perhaps, a year or two later, to appeal to the same circumlocution office to ask how to get the thing done. It is for this reason that the action may be taken to be far more momentous than it really is. Indeed, it is possible for the extremest conservatives to interpret the whole thing as only a bold challenge to dissatisfaction and restlessness. This is what they are evidently going to do, as the Princeton men make perfectly clear with their curious talk about standing by the old Westminster even if the Assembly should abandon it. The conservative position in the presbyteries undoubtedly will be that the Assembly desired to show the world, in the most conclusive way possible, that there is no dissatisfaction in the Church with the old creed. Let us put an end, they will say, to all these vague reports, and let it clearly be understood that we want no changes. And it would not be at all strange if they should carry the day. The liberals, on the other hand, see in the action of the Assembly all they could have hoped. They confidently expect that what they believe to be the reproach of their church will be taken away. They predict a great increase in the number of candidates for the Presbyterian ministry, especially among those choicer young men educated in the Eastern colleges, of whom so few are seeking that ministry. Above all, they hope for the abolition of the present ambiguous terms of subscription, which expose tender consciences to so much of moral peril.

Meanwhile, to an outsider the action of the Assembly cannot but have the greatest significance, albeit of a kind probably different from that perceived by the strictly ecclesiastical eye. It means that the Presbyterian Church is at last conscious of the theological *glissade* upon which it, in common with all others, has entered. But a few years ago the Confession of Faith was the very ark of the covenant, to touch which was impious. In the debates on the revision of the Presbyterian Discipline, only a half-dozen years since, it was a common argument of the opponents of change that the next thing to be heard of would be a revision of the Westminster. God forbid! was the general cry. But already it is at least propounded, it is at least acknowledged to be an open question whether, as was hinted by that child of the Covenant, brought up on the Westminster, Carlyle, "there may be elements in the infinite thought and scheme which the Westminster Assembly has not jotted down."

It cannot but be in the interest of light to have these old questions gone over, as they will be, in the Presbyterian churches of the land. A certain melancholy, however, comes with reflecting how vast an amount of energy will be expended on matters which are really so little connected with the most vital thought of the age. The conservatives are wholly right in one point—it will be perfectly futile, as they say, to hope to satisfy the objectors to the Westminster with any such slight repairs as may be effected. As long as the accredited instructors of Presbyterian seminaries go on dismissing, with ignorant scorn, the contributions to human knowledge made in this century which have revolutionized every department of investigation, as long as nine-tenths of the Presbyterian ministry have never even read the works of the man whose name will do most to make the nineteenth century distinguished to those who come after us, it is not reasonable to expect that even a revised Presbyterian creed will be able to satisfy those who have eaten of the new tree of knowledge. Horace Bushnell used to say that ministers in general preached about what their fathers, a hundred years before, had supposed, though mistakenly, that people were interested in; the subjects, even then, being a century belated. So a revised Presbyterian creed might possibly get onward from 1649 to 1749; there is no chance of its getting in sight of 1889.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Boston, May 22, 1889.

The annual meeting of the American Oriental Society took place in the Athenæum Building to-day, the Rev. Dr. Peabody in the chair. Dr. Isaac Hall of the New York Metropolitan Museum made a report for the Committee on Classification of Oriental Manuscripts. Dr. Gottheil and Dr. Hall have thus far examined more than four hundred. Among these are a great number of synagogue rolls; Samaritan, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Ethiopic, and Persian parchments, several Armenian, and a few rarer Chinese, Siamese, Burmese, and Assamese. It is hoped that the efforts of this committee will be an incentive to other scholars all over the country towards classifying and cataloguing all Oriental manuscripts which may come under their notice. The need of a systematically arranged catalogue of such curiosities has long been felt by scholars.

Prof. Moore of Andover read a paper on certain Arabic MSS. in the library of the University of the City of New York. These are chiefly grammatical works collected in Syria by Mr. Jonas King in 1823. The collection was bought by Mr. Chester of New York, and presented by him to the University. Prof. Moore touched upon three of the most important, viz., (1) a Commentary of Shihab Ed-dîn, the date of which is estimated at 894 A. D. (2.) A fine copy of a Commentary on the 'Alfiye,' the largest MS. in the collection, the approximate date of which is 1135-1177 A. D. Prof. Moore in his paper proved that its authorship must be attributed to Ashmûni. (3.) A Hebrew MS. of 180 leaves, now in Andover. This came originally from the Malabar coast, and was presented by Mr. Bardwell to the Andover Library. Nordheimer describes it as a book of hymns and songs—chiefly for weddings, bridal

processions, etc. Most of the poets mentioned in this work are generally unknown.

Dr. Isaac Hall read an essay concerning a Syriac dissertation on Apostolic writings.

An article by C. Johnson of Johns Hopkins University, on "Chaldean Astronomy and Astrology," was read by Dr. Cyrus Adler. The writer states that it was the general opinion of antiquity that the Chaldeans were the originators of astronomy. He endeavors to prove this, contrary to Mr. Sayce's statement in favor of the Egyptians. He believes that the origin of astronomy and astrology was pre-Semitic, dating back to the Shamanism of the proto-Babylonians. The belief that the celestial bodies were the dwelling-places of the gods gave rise to the idea of observing the stars in order to know the will of the divine beings. This brought about their complicated system of astrology, and from this again came the knowledge of the heavenly bodies which resulted in our modern science of astronomy. In a work of seventy-two tablets on astronomy, supposed to be compiled in the reign of Sargon, 3000 B. C., is a digest of all the events expected to follow every combination of the stars. The author then explains the Calendar, deciding in favor of the theory that the standard was lunar rather than solar. He touches on the origin of the week of seven days, which he derives from the phases of the moon.

Dr. Cyrus Adler read also an article on the Progress of Oriental Science in America in 1888—a bibliography of Oriental studies in this country, comprising an author and subject-catalogue.

The Rev. Mr. Dickerman read a résumé of a work by William Petrie, giving an account of a systematic exploration around Hawara in Egypt. Mr. Petrie refutes the doctrine of Maspero and Sayce that Lake Moeris, mentioned by Herodotus, never existed. The area of the lake, he says, was considerably reduced by the draining operations of various monarchs, more especially the Ptolemies, and therefore does not exist at the present day. He furthermore describes the labyrinth and pyramid of Hawara, which were destroyed by quarrying for the material that composed them (limestone and granite). Mr. Petrie has, however, discovered its exact situation. Among his researches he also discovered the sarcophagus of Amen-em-hat III. and that of his daughter Tanefer-u. On the south side were the boxes which held the funeral vases. Besides these he found an alabaster table for offerings and a set of alabaster bowls. One of the most curious finds was a false or dummy mummy of an infant, whose body the embalmers had not taken the trouble to prepare.

Mr. J. D. Prince gave a brief account of the proceedings during the past year of the Babylonian Expedition sent out from the University of Pennsylvania. This was supplemented by a few remarks from Dr. William Hayes Ward concerning the movements of the party since the departure of Mr. Prince in February.

During the afternoon session Dr. F. C. H. Wendell read "Prolegomena to an Historical Account of the Egyptian Religion." In debating the character of the generally accepted creed, the author raises the question whether the religion was monotheistic. In one sect there was, he says, a strong tendency to monolateralism, or blending various deities into one. This ultimately resulted in what might be called a monotheism. The term pantheism, however, is not more appropriate. The Egyptian religion was in reality an animism, or more exactly an agglutinated polytheism. Egypt itself is an agglomerated product. Every province or country had its official deity, all duly recognized by the national or union religion as supreme in their local sway. Lower and Upper Egypt had later two distinct general cults, besides the local ones.

Prof. Lyon read a paper describing a lapis-lazuli disk, bearing a cuneiform inscription of eight lines.

Dr. Wm. Hayes Ward read an article on Babylonian cylinders. Seal cylinders, he says, had their origin in Southern Babylonia, and were adopted later by Persia and the adjacent countries. The cylinders finally gave place to conical and ring-shaped seals. Their form was taken from the joint of a reed. The later seals were simple cylinders of uniform diameter. The earlier ones were of hard serpentine. Seals were not turned on a wheel, but were formed by rubbing them up and down in a groove supplied with emery powder. All seal cylinders are bored first from one end and then from the other. No genuine cylinder is perforated from one end only. The later ones have smaller holes than the ancient ones. The old Babylonian cylinders are among the largest and thickest. In sealing, the entire cylinder was seldom rolled over upon the tablet, but only one side. In later Babylonian times the cylinder came to have a value as a talisman, owing probably to the religious devices engraved upon it. The most ancient of all represent the wild buffalo rather than the wild bull, probably because the buffalo was domesticated at a very early period.

The other papers were, "Traces of Christian Ideas in the Myths and Customs of the Civilized Races of America," by the Rev. S. D. Peet; "The Inscriptions at Lystra in Honor of the Emperor Augustus," by F. D. Brewer; "Inscriptions from Yorpin," supposed to be the site of the ancient Aralissus, copied from slabs in the Armenian Church by the Rev. Dr. George H. White in 1863, by F. D. Brewer; "Ethiopic Psalter," by Dr. Jastrow; "Avesta Grammatical Jottings," by A. V. W. Jackson. The meeting then adjourned until October.

A FEW ANCIENT SITES.—II.

NIFFER MOUNDS, TURKEY, March 16.

IN striking contrast with the massive ruins of stone described in my former letter is Jabriyeh, a day's journey beyond Kan Kalessi, a city of mud brick, in the plain, on the very bank of the Euphrates. This place is incorrectly given by Kiepert, in his large map of the Ottoman Empire, as on the north bank of the Euphrates. It is on the south bank, about 34° 20′ north latitude, and 41° 12′ east longitude, at the mouth of Wadi Jaber, at about the position assigned to El Karabile. (I may add that I was unable to find El Karabile at all; and El Kadim, the next station, given by Kiepert, should be El Kaim, and its position almost that he assigns to El Karabile.) This is not an unfair specimen of the inaccuracy of the best maps of Turkey. Anything like a survey is strictly forbidden, although, by a strange anomaly, the law of excavations requires a topographical plan as a preliminary condition of an application to excavate. At the eastern end of the southern wall of Jabriyeh the unburnt bricks are visible *in situ*, but the rest of the wall is merely a long narrow line of débris some 1,200 paces in length. The western wall, at right angles with this, and about 900 paces long, ends in a large mound or series of mounds, on the edge of what was once the river bed. The eastern wall also started in the same rectangular manner, but, after a couple of hundred paces, meeting the river bed, turned gradually about until it finally ended in the same large mounds in the northwest. Within this southern wall are two other lines of mounds, also bearing a perplexing resemblance to walls. The interior space and the surfaces of the mounds are thickly strewn with fragments of glazed and unglazed pottery of a greenish color, and pieces of burnt brick, many of which were also green, blocks of gypsum and basalt, and what I may call intentional pebbles (or those which were used for some purpose) of all sorts, including jasper and agate, both of which abound in this region. On the surface of the large mounds were graves, and some late constructions of brick and stone. It is said in the neighborhood that coins, presumably Sassanian or Kufic, are often found here.

Jabriyeh was visited by Dr. Ward on his return journey in the spring of 1885, and pronounced by him an ancient Babylonian ruin, on the ground of its mud-brick walls. It is only two days' journey above Anah, at which point Babylonia, with its climate, its customs, and its people, may be said to commence, and Syria end. It is by no means impossible that Dr. Ward is correct in his conclusions, and I was at first inclined to accept them without question; but later experience with mud-brick walls and similar remains in Babylonia proper have shaken my belief, and even induced me to think that, although Babylonian in the sense of reflecting the building customs of that region, it belongs in time to a much later period than that implied by the word—namely, to the Sassanian, or even to the Arabic period.

Another place visited by the Wolfe Expedition was Anbar, which Dr. Ward identified with "the Agade, or Sippara of Anunit, the Accad of Genesis x, 10, the Persabora of classical geographers, and the Anbar of Arabic historians." This place is given by Kiepert, in his *Ruinenfelder*, under the name Tel Aker, a name which applies in reality only to the highest southeastern point of the mounds. These mounds are of great extent, covering more ground than those of Babylon itself, and equalling if not exceeding in surface the immense mounds of Niffer. Anbar lies on the east bank of the Euphrates, just south of the point of junction of the Saklawiyeh Canal, about latitude 33° 20′ north, and east longitude 44° 3′. It is near the late ruin and small modern village of Kala'at Feluja, at which point a bridge of boats was built across the Euphrates some three years since, thus deflecting the caravan route from its former course via Saklawiyeh. Dr. Ward discovered the place by accident, as the result of his visit to Sufeira, to the north of the canal. He had but an hour or so at his disposal in which to examine it. We were more fortunate in being able to devote a day to the examination, but even that proved totally inadequate for the purpose, so large were the ruins. We had a peculiar interest in this examination because, in consequence of the report of the Wolfe Expedition, we had applied for permission to excavate at Anbar—an application which was refused for reasons unknown. We all failed to notice the depression dividing the city "into two parts," of which Dr. Ward writes, and which figured also in his proposed identification. Dr. Ward thought that he could "trace the lines of the old palaces or temples" in the depressions and hollows of the mound, which are indeed remarkable; but our experience at Niffer has shown us that surface indications of this sort are of small value, especially where a site was inhabited to a comparatively late period. The remains on the surface are all late, and belong to the time of Arabic occupation.

There are everywhere visible singular evidences of what seems to have been a great con-

flagration, in the shape of vitrified masses of brick and glass, and stones destroyed by heat. Fragments of glass were especially numerous, and one mound was veritably an iridescent green from the quantity upon it. The pottery was the same as that found upon the surface everywhere along the Euphrates and in Babylonia, the glazed fragments having a bluish or greenish color. The size of the mounds points to a long period of accumulation, and consequently to a considerable antiquity. This process of accumulation of mud-brick mounds can be readily observed on a small scale in any town or village of unburned brick or mud, like Deir or Anah or Hit, on the Euphrates, all of which (and especially the latter two) are ancient. A man's house is washed away by the rains, and turned gradually into a heap of mud, on which in time a new house will be erected, to undergo in its turn the same fate. The rapidity of growth, which would otherwise be enormous, is, of course, checked by the use of some of this old material over and over again.

The sites which I have mentioned are but a very few of the immense number which we have observed, beginning almost with the day on which we set foot in Asia. So, for example, from Hammam, ancient hot springs on the eastern edge of the great Antioch plain, near the point where Zenobia met with her first defeat at the hands of the Romans, I counted eighteen ruin mounds, not identified, to the best of my knowledge, nor noted on any map. The plain to the east of Aleppo is fairly dotted with similar *tels* yet awaiting investigation. Here, also, at two small villages, we found remains of stone structures, colonnades of marble and basalt, great basalt troughs, and in one place an ornamental door of basalt, with keyhole and bolt-holder complete. The ruins along the Euphrates, especially below Anah, are not so numerous. They are chiefly Arabic fortresses, some of them, like Rehaba, a day below Deir, comparatively well preserved and very picturesque. These probably stood on older foundations, for the most part unidentified. Opposite the mouth of the Khabour is a large plain on which are a number of mounds, and the whole plain is literally covered with pottery. The present condition of the Euphrates valley, especially above Deir, is one of almost hopeless desolation. The land is wonderfully fertile, with water easy to obtain, but the inhabitants are only a few handfuls of squalid Arabs of the most degraded type, and any cultivation is a sort of accident.

Between the Euphrates and the Tigris our matter of amazement was not so much the number of ruins, although these are not wanting, as the vast number of canal beds of all ages, apparently, excepting the present. A large number of these radiate from Akerkuf. The latter ruin consists of a few low mounds, on one of which is a solid mass of sun-dried bricks, rising like a tower to the height of about one hundred feet. Well known, only six or eight miles from Bagdad, a conspicuous landmark, visited by every one, Akerkuf has never been touched by the spade, and no one has any idea what ancient city lies buried here. An inscribed brick, found a number of years since, bears the name of Kurigalzu, showing that the place, whatever it was, existed at least 1,600 years B. C. This, and the fact that it was the centre of a great canal system, constitute the sum of our knowledge of Akerkuf.

Singularly enough, our first guide to Akerkuf misled us to an almost unknown and quite interesting Arabic ruin, called Senadiyeh. Here, amid pottery, bricks, and fragments of walls, we found standing part of a highly decorated building, which appeared to belong to the period when Bagdad flourished under the caliphs; but all about it were mounds and canals, many of them going back probably to the Babylonian period. The way in which one age here borrows from its predecessors was illustrated by the finding of beautiful blue tiles from Senadiyeh built into *ziarets*, and also into a Government building several miles away. Similarly, at Hillah we found the Government building made, at least in part, of stamped bricks of Nebuchadnezzar from Babylon.

At Bagdad M. Henri Pognon, the well-known Assyriologist, acting French Consul in M. de Sarzec's absence, took us to visit the ruins of ancient Bagdadu. The visible remains consist of a great terrace of brick on the western or Mesopotamian bank of the river, within the limits of the modern city. The bricks are laid in bitumen, and bear the stamp of Nebuchadnezzar. We had to reach them by boat, a large, round, wicker basket, smeared with bitumen, such as are depicted in the Assyrian bas-reliefs. On top of the remains of this ancient terrace or levee had been built at a later date another of inferior material and workmanship, and without bitumen—proof that Bagdad existed before 742 A. D., and that the caliphs merely rebuilt an ancient city.

It may not be amiss to add a few words about Niffer, where we are at present excavating, or Nufar, as the natives call it. It lies about in 32° 8′ north latitude, and 44° 10′ east longitude, in the country of the Affek, or Affej, Arabs, a powerful confederation, almost independent of Turkish rule. Kiepert locates it on a great marsh, but this has been somewhat reduced in size within the last five years by the partial change of course of the Euphrates. The water which once flowed in the river bed now pours into the Hindiyeh canal, leaving the river more than half empty, and almost ruining the country on both sides of it from Hillah southward, which was dependent on the water of the river for irrigation. The Government has finally been forced to take steps to prevent a total change of bed, by erecting a new dam to check the flow of water into the Hindiyeh. The mounds of Niffer are of immense extent, covering more ground than the ruins of Babylon. They are divided into two, or rather three, parts, by what Arab tradition declares to be the Shatt-en-Nil, the same great canal which one finds leaving the Euphrates at Babylon. How late the city was inhabited we cannot yet say, but probably until considerably after the commencement of the Christian era. It was certainly still flourishing in the times of the Persian kings, and under the name of Nipur it is known to Assyriologists as one of the oldest, most important, and most sacred cities of southern Babylonia. In the Talmud it is identified with the Calneh of Gen. x.

Our excavations were commenced early in February, and we hope to extend the season until the first of May. The weather is already intensely hot, reaching at times 102°, or even 105°, in our tents, in spite of high winds; and the flies and dust are almost intolerable. Nevertheless, we were delayed so long in Constantinople, and commenced work so late, that necessity compels us to hold on to the latest possible date, if we would have anything to show for this year's work, or even prepare the way properly for next season. JOHN P. PETERS.

THE EXPOSITION.

PARIS, May 16, 1889.

IT is impossible to speak or even think of anything at present but of our great Exhibition. I saw the Eiffel Tower grow slowly for years, and I must say that I did not look with pleasure on it. As long as it was unfinished, however, I had the consolation of thinking that it was a mere temporary structure, and that perhaps it would have the fate of the tower of Babel and remain incomplete: "pendent opera interrupta." I was wrong, and when, some time ago, the workmen, as is their habit with every new house in Paris, planted the tricolor flag on its top, I felt that the time had arrived, and that I must resign myself to make a visit to the iron monster. For many months, also, as I took my passage in one of our fast little steamers on the Seine, as I often do (and there is no more agreeable mode of locomotion in our city), I saw a sort of curious town rising on the left bank of the Seine, between the huge building of the Foreign Office and the Champ de Mars. I admired the skill of our Parisian workmen, who seem to do anything they like with a little wood and plaster, who understand all styles, who can build a sham mosque, with its minarets, as well as a Greek temple. From the river I saw a curious agglomeration of bazaars, of quaint edifices, of spires, of cycloramas, of arches; it seemed all unreal, and looked like the decoration of a theatre.

The great day came, and the Exhibition was opened by M. Carnot, our President. The day before, he had gone to Versailles to celebrate the anniversary of the opening of the States-General of 1789. Not unintentionally the two ceremonies were made to coincide—the Revolution, the Exhibition were to be like twin sisters. The Republic of 1889 wished to place on her credit account the marvels of French industry, the sum of all the progress accomplished in science since a hundred years. I was not among those who witnessed the festivities at Versailles and the day afterwards at the official inauguration of the Exhibition, which took place under the central dome of the buildings in the Champ de Mars. In the evening of that day Paris was illuminated, and for the first time the Eiffel Tower took on the appearance of a gigantic lighthouse. From a balcony on a house situated on the Boulevard Haussmann, I saw this extraordinary illumination. Every cupola in Paris, every church was marked with lines of fire—the Panthéon, the Invalides, the Opéra, the huge towers of the Trocadéro. The three platforms of the Eiffel Tower were marked against the sky, and from its top a light threw its rays, sometimes red, sometimes white or blue. From time to time, red Bengal fires illuminated the whole iron structure of the Tower, and then its colossal dimensions appeared to advantage, as it rose above the city. Electric light was projected in varying directions from gigantic lamps which were near the top of the Tower, and fantastic cones, like tails of comets, played over the horizon. The whole scene had something demoniac, and made one think of the end of the world. It recalled to me at times the fires of the Commune: there was the "grande ville" swelling in its pride, and building new palaces before it had reconstructed those which it had destroyed with its own hands in 1871.

The next day I drove to the Trocadéro and entered the Exhibition by the right bank of the river. The view of the Champ de Mars, when you look down from the Trocadéro hill, is truly stupendous. The wildest fancy could not throw together more things in the same space: blue cupolas, gilt cupolas, iron and glass roofs in endless succession, the bridge over the river, gilded boats gliding on like the Venetian Bucentaur, immense gardens, grown as if by magic on the bare ground of the Champ de Mars;

pavilions hidden on the right and on the left, of all sizes, of all styles, of all colors; flags of all creation, and, in the midst of this confusion, the great mass of the Eiffel Tower rising to the sky, with its clean-cut network of iron, so transparent that at times it seems unreal, so hard that at other times it seems oppressive and threatening, an object without any other grace than the curve of its immense parabolic line, a geometrical grace; a thing of endless details where no detail particularly strikes you, where you can measure nothing in your mind by comparison, as you do before a Gothic cathedral, where statues and familiar ornaments are spread everywhere. I certainly had not, in the presence of this tower, 300 metres high, an impression of greatness equal to what I have experienced before the cathedrals of Strassburg and Cologne. I felt more bewildered than moved, and the bewilderment grew when, crossing the river over the bridge which has been enlarged and decorated for the occasion, I arrived at the very feet of the huge monster—four iron feet, immense, looking like the paws of a fantastic animal. When you enter the great square which is formed by them and go to its very centre, you see the inside of the Tower, and your eye can go nearly all along its axis of 300 metres, as the platform is but a large gallery and is open in the middle.

Leaving the Tower behind me, I went across the immense gardens, looking right and left on the long buildings called the Gallery of Fine Arts and the Gallery of the Liberal Arts. I admired the dome which marks the centre of each of these long galleries. I do not think that the ornamentation of metallic structures has ever been carried so far or has ever been so happy. Everywhere the great lines of the metallic structures are visible and clear, but the intermediate spaces have been adorned with terracotta, with porcelain, with enamelled bricks; the iron frames have been painted in light colors, and the general impression is very agreeable. The two domes are particularly fine: they are of a sort of turquoise blue, mixed with white, which gives them a very aerial appearance.

I do not like so much the central dome, placed in the transverse middle gallery, facing the Eiffel Tower. It has been covered with gold, and looks too gaudy and gorgeous, and bears an immense gilt statue of France, distributing laurels and crowns, which is entirely devoid of grace and beauty. Entering the galleries which extend behind this dome, I rushed, in a straight line, to the magnificent Machinery Hall, which is, with the Eiffel Tower, the characteristic feature of the Exhibition. It is the largest iron hall that has ever been built (much larger than the St. Pancras station in London). I will not here give its dimensions. I will only say that the impression which it makes is truly great. The means are suited to the end, which is the first rule of æsthetic beauty. The simplicity, the boldness of the great iron frames which, at equal distances, form the skeleton of this huge building, cannot be too much praised; and the light colors which have everywhere been employed give airiness to the gigantic hall. Light comes into it like a flood. It would be a pity ever to demolish such a magnificent structure. When the machinery is removed, it will look even more imposing. Perhaps it will be used as a drilling and parade ground: a whole regiment of cavalry could easily manœuvre in it. It is a pity that it is built right in front of the old École Militaire, which is one of the good buildings of the capital. It may be that the iron hall will be removed in parts to some other place, for the École Militaire, with its immense Champ de Mars, is an historical place and cannot be suppressed.

While I was wandering among the machinery, I saw a great crowd before Edison's exhibition. I approached and saw the famous phonograph—a little box, not bigger than a small musical box. A polite gentleman offered the ends of two India-rubber tubes to place in my ears. I did so, and immediately the noise of the engines of the great hall ceased to be perceptible, and I heard instead a march played by a brass band, as clearly as if it had been behind my back. "This march," said the gentleman to me, "was played four months ago in New York." The phonograph is one of the great successes of the exhibition. Everybody is amazed by it—those who do not understand it, and, I may add, also by those who do understand it. It is simply miraculous.

I returned towards the river, feeling everywhere as if the great Tower were over me, and when I approached it again I entered into a sort of a bower, and took refuge among some trees, when a little page ran after me. "Sir, he is going to begin." Who is going to begin? "Don't you know?" No. "Paulus." I allowed the page to take me into a sort of café concert. He had not deceived me; the curtain lifted, and on the stage I saw Paulus, the famous Paulus, the man who made half the popularity of General Boulanger, by singing "En revenant de la Revue," "Les Pioupious d'Auvergne," "C'est Boulange, lange, lange, c'est Boulange qu'il nous faut." There was the great Paulus, and there he is now every day, before an enthusiastic audience. He sings no more Boulangist songs—his General is in exile. He sang a song which ended with "Ils y viendront"—"they will come"—meaning the Emperors, Kings, and Princes who, so far, have refused to come; and he described the glories of the Exhibition. Undoubtedly Paulus thinks himself one of these glories. By a curious contrast, his little theatre (an incombustible steel theatre) lies almost at the feet of the big Tower. A foreigner may see here the extremes of civilization, and if anybody should feel intoxicated by the glories of modern science, I advise him to enter Paulus's theatre, to hear his vulgar and indecent songs, his coarse pleasantries; to look upon the admiring crowd which lies at his feet. There is a curious irony in the juxtaposition of the gigantic Tower and the tiny theatre, of Eiffel and of Paulus.

SMOLLETT IN SEARCH OF HEALTH.—II.

NICE, January 21, 1889.

IT was chiefly owing to his remarks on Art that Smollett excited the ire of contemporary English connoisseurs. He does really say, as Sterne accused him of doing, that "the Pantheon looks like a huge cock-pit open at the top"; but he discusses the building at length in a way which shows that he knew what he was about. He also finds fault with the Venus de Médicis, which at that time was greatly overpraised. But, far as he was from the opinion of his own time, he approaches very nearly the judgment of art critics of our day. It is not, however, an instance of this when, in speaking of the frescoes in the Campo Santo of Pisa, he says: "Though the manner is dry, the drawing incorrect, the design generally lame, and the coloring unnatural, yet there is merit in the expression; and the whole remains as a curious monument of the efforts made by this noble art immediately after her revival." He has, too, the strange idea that the celebrated fresco of the Triumph of Death represents the three stages of putrefaction which bodies undergo in nine days when buried in the Campo Santo. We are ordinarily told that this was filled with earth brought from the Holy Land; but Smollett imagines it "no other than common earth mixed with quicklime." All this shows how dangerous it is to be dogmatic in art criticism, when standards of taste are constantly changing. The opinions of many art critics of the last century seem strange in our eyes, while some which looked strange then seem natural enough now. Smollett at all events had the merit of being frank, and of expressing his real opinions, not judgments made up from books.

Among many miscellaneous remarks interspersed in the account of his journey, here is one about the Acton family, well known both in England and Italy:

"He that now commands the Emperor's navy, consisting of a few frigates, is an Englishman called Acton, who was heretofore captain of a ship in our East India Company's service. He has lately embraced the Catholic religion, and been created Admiral of Tuscany."

And here is an amusing remark, which shows an early acquaintance with the works of his contemporary Goldoni:

"For my part, I would rather be condemned for life to the galleys than exercise the office of a cicisbeo, exposed to the intolerable caprices and dangerous resentment of an Italian virago. I pretend not to judge of the national character from my own observation; but if the portraits drawn by Goldoni in his comedies are taken from nature, I would not hesitate to pronounce the Italian women the most haughty, insolent, capricious, and revengeful females on the face of the earth. Indeed, their resentments are so cruelly implacable, and contain such a mixture of perfidy, that, in my opinion, they are very unfit subjects for comedy, whose province it is rather to ridicule folly than to stigmatize such atrocious vice."

Although Smollett's opinions of Italian ladies are particularly British, his criticisms on his own countrymen are no less severe:

"The English are, more than any other foreigners, exposed to this imposition. They are supposed to have more money to throw away; and therefore a greater number of snares are laid for them. This opinion of their superior wealth they take a pride in confirming by launching out in all manner of unnecessary expense; but, what is still more dangerous, the moment they set foot in Italy they are seized with the ambition of becoming connoisseurs in painting, music, statuary, and architecture, and the adventurers of this country do not fail to flatter this weakness for their own advantage. I have seen in different parts of Italy a number of raw boys, whom Britain seemed to have poured forth on purpose to bring her national character into contempt: ignorant, petulant, rash and profligate; without any knowledge or experience of their own, without any director to improve their understanding or superintend their conduct. One engages in play with an infamous gamester, and is stripped perhaps in the very first partie; another is pillaged by an antiquated cantatrice; a third is bubbled by a knavish antiquarian; and a fourth is laid under contribution by a dealer in pictures. Some turn fiddlers and pretend to compose; but all of them talk familiarly of the arts, and return finished connoisseurs and coxcombs to their own country. The most remarkable phenomenon of this kind which I have seen is a boy of seventy-two, now actually travelling through Italy, for improvement, under the auspices of another boy of twenty-two. When you arrive at Rome you receive cards from all your country-folks in that city; they expect to have the visit returned next day, when they give orders not to be at home, and you never speak to one another in the sequel. This is a refinement in hospitality and politeness which the English have invented by the strength of their own genius without any assistance from France, Italy, or Lapland. No Englishman above the degree of a painter or cicerone frequents any coffee-house at Rome; and as there are no public diversions except at Carnival-time, the only chance you have of seeing your

compatriots is either in visiting the curiosities or at a conversazione. The Italians are very scrupulous in admitting foreigners, except those who are introduced as people of quality; but if there happens to be any English lady of fashion at Rome, she generally keeps an assembly to which the British subjects resort."

This is very true of the last century, as witness all the letters and diaries of travellers, and is partly true of Rome nowadays, though a change is noticeable since that city has become the capital of Italy.

The greatest interest, after all, in these travels is in the account of Nice; and Smollett gives his observations on the weather from November, 1763, to the end of April, 1765, generally day by day, with the record of two thermometers, the direction of the wind, and weather fair, cloudy, or "mizzling rain." His second winter in Nice, 1765, was a remarkably damp one, and rainy weather prevailed from the middle of November to the 15th of March. In four months there were fifty-six days of rain.

"Notwithstanding these great rains, such as were never known before at Nice in the memory of man, the intermediate days of fair weather were delightful, and the ground seemed perfectly dry. The air itself was perfectly free from moisture. Though I lived upon a ground floor, surrounded on three sides by a garden, I could not perceive the least damp, either on the floors or the furniture; neither was I much incommoded by the asthma which used always to harass me most in wet weather. In a word, I passed the winter here much more comfortably than I expected. . . . In the spring, in spite of the constant sunshine, the air is cold, and the east wind sweeping over the Alps and Apennines, covered with snow, continues surprisingly sharp and penetrating. Even the people of the country, who enjoy good health, are afraid of exposing themselves to the air at this season, the intemperature of which may last till the middle of May, when all the snow on the mountains will probably be melted. Then the air will become mild and balmy, till, in the progress of the summer, it grows disagreeably hot, and the strong evaporation from the sea makes it so saline as to be unhealthy for those who have a scorbutical habit. When the sea breeze is high, this evaporation is so great as to cover the surface of the body with a kind of volatile brine, as I plainly perceived last summer. I am more and more convinced that this climate is unfavorable to the scurvy. Were I obliged to pass my life in it, I would endeavor to find a country retreat among the mountains, at some distance from the sea, where I might enjoy a cool air, free from this impregnation, unmolested by those flies, gnats, and other vermin which render the lower parts almost uninhabitable. . . . An agreeable summer retreat may be found on the other side of the Var, at or near the town of Grasse, which is pleasantly situated on the ascent of a hill in Provence, about seven English miles from Nice. This place is famous for its pomatum, gloves, wash-balls, perfumes, and toilette-boxes lined with bergamot. I am told it affords good lodging and is well supplied with provisions."

Smollett, who had lived in the West Indies, and his wife, who was a native of Jamaica, appreciated vegetables more than most Englishmen. One might think that they occasionally had certain articles sent out from America; for in 'Humphrey Clinker,' in a passage which really describes his own house, he speaks of a man so ignorant of grain "that our entertainer, in the face of the whole company, made him own that a plate of *hominy* was the best rice pudding he had ever eat." One can hardly think that hominy was then a common food in England. In his 'Travels' he catalogues with pleasure the peas, asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and more common vegetables; mushrooms, champignons, and truffles, and even the white truffles of Piedmont, "counted the most delicious in the world."

"There is also a kind of small courge, or gourd, of which the people of the country make a very savory ragout, with the help of cheese, eggs, and fresh anchovies. Another is made of the *badenjean*, which the Spaniards call *berengina*. It is much eaten in Spain and the Levant, as well as by the Moors in Barbary. It is about the size and shape of a hen's egg, enclosed in a cup like an acorn; when ripe, of a faint purple color. It grows on a stalk about a foot high, with long spines or prickles. The people have very different ways of slicing and dressing it, by broiling, boiling, and stewing, with other ingredients, but it is at best an insipid dish."

This is of course the *aubergine*, or egg-plant. Smollett seemed very fond of maize, for he mentions it several times, and once says: "This country produces a good deal of Meliga or Turkish wheat, which is what we call Indian corn: the meal of this grain goes by the name of *polenta*, and makes excellent hasty pudding, being very nourishing and counted an admirable pectoral."

The remarks about fruit and fish, birds and insects, many of which are interesting, show Smollett's powers of observation and his love of natural history. He even speaks of "a mosquito net," showing that these virulent pests have not been recently introduced into Europe by American travellers on the ocean steamers.

Mention of *terrapin* shows that Smollett understood the word in its true meaning:

"You know all sea-birds are allowed by the Church of Rome to be eaten on meagre-days as a kind of fish, and the monks especially do not fail to make use of this permission. Sea-turtle or tortoises are often found at sea by the mariners in these latitudes, but they are not the green sort so much in request among the aldermen of London. All the Mediterranean turtle are of the kind called loggerhead, which in the West Indies are eaten by none but hungry seamen, negroes, and the lowest class of people. One of these, weighing about two hundred pounds, was lately brought on shore by the fishermen of Nice, who found it floating asleep on the surface of the sea. The whole town was alarmed at sight of such a monster, the nature of which they could not comprehend. However, the monks, called *Minims*, of S. Francisco di Paolo, guided by a sure instinct, marked it as their prey, and surrounded it accordingly. The friars of other convents, not quite so hungry, crowding down to the beach, declared it should not be eaten, dropping some hints about the possibility of its being something preternatural and diabolical, and even proposed exorcisms and aspersions of holy water. The populace were divided according to their attachment to this or that convent, a mighty clamor arose, and the police—in order to remove the cause of their contention—ordered the tortoise to be recommitted to the waves; a sentence which the Franciscans saw executed, not without sighs and lamentations. The land-turtle or *terrapin* is much better known at Nice as being a native of this county; yet the best are brought from the Island of Sardinia. The soup or bouillon of this animal is always prescribed here as a great restorative to consumptive patients."

But, as there must be an end to all things, Smollett was obliged to return to England—with improved health, it is true, but with the conviction that he should never be better. During his three years' stay in his own country he lived for a while at Bath, which he had always liked, and paid his last visit to Scotland. Meanwhile he published his 'Travels,' wrote the continuation of his 'History' down to 1762, and, just before going to the south, his 'Adventures of an Atom,' in which he vented the last remains of filth, spite, and brutality that was still in his breast. He tried to get a position as consul, but in vain; Nice and Leghorn were already filled; and, finally, obliged to rely entirely upon himself, he left England in 1768 for Lucca and Pisa, where he remained for the winter, while he stayed for the summer in the village of Monte Nero, near Leghorn—fifty years afterwards inhabited by Byron. At Pisa he was visited by Sir Horace Mann, who did what he could for him; and among other work he wrote his charming novel of 'Humphrey Clinker,' in which he has evidently figured himself under the character of Matthew Bramble, whom Hannay calls "the most credible specimen of the *bourru bienfaisant* in literature." The charm of the book lies in its sweetness, which is the ripe product of Southern influence combined with ill health. Just before his death, in the autumn of 1771, Smollett wrote to his friend, the famous John Hunter: "With respect to myself I have nothing to say but that, if I can prevail upon my wife to execute my last will, you shall receive my poor carcase in a box after I am dead to be placed among your rarities. I am already so dry and emaciated that I may pass for an Egyptian mummy without any other preparation than some pitch and painted linen."

During the early part of January in that year there had been severe shocks of earthquake at Leghorn, which, as Sir Horace Mann writes in a letter from Pisa, dated January 14, 1771,

"have so terrified the inhabitants that few remain in the town. Thousands have gone into the country, many on board the ships in the mole; others sleep in boats on the canals, and many in their coaches upon the place. The most essential damage will probably arise from the hurt people will receive in their healths, for the buildings have suffered very little as yet; but as formerly, in London, a trooper prophesied the total ruin of the town, so an old woman has announced the fall of Leghorn on this day. I am now listening to hear the crash. . . . Hitherto, we at Pisa have not felt any earthquake, but we are in danger of being drowned by the incessant rains that have ruined the whole country."

In walking through the interesting old cemetery at Leghorn, filled with the graves of English and Americans who had been sent to Pisa, which was the great refuge for consumptives, and the only place in Tuscany where a Protestant could be properly buried (for, by the wisdom of the Medici founder, Leghorn was a free town for all religions, Christian, Jew, Mussulman, and Pagan), I came across the tombs of the too well-known Countess of Orford and Lady Cowper, and even of Francis Horner. I looked in vain for the grave of Sir Horace Mann, when I suddenly remembered that his body was taken to England for burial through the care of his friend. Sir Horace Walpole; and in the middle of the plot of ground I found the marble obelisk which marks the last resting-place of Tobias Smollett. E. S.

Correspondence.

A CINCINNATI APPOINTEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your notice of "The Administration and its Pledges" (p. 418) may invite or excuse a further word from one of a long-suffering community. Mr. Cleveland was fortunate in his appointments to the Cincinnati offices, except as to the Internal Revenue Collector. The other appointees were not politicians by profession, and have proved to be creditable. Bishop, who was made Collector of Revenue here, got the appointment at the dictation of the ring, and against the wishes of the better sort, and now the character of that appointment emerges into daylight and becomes a public scandal. It is not Mr. Cleveland's fault; he was unfortunate.

It was hoped and expected of Mr. Harrison that he would escape misfortune in every case, and to aid him, and (as some of us understood him) at his request, the best non-partisan

points of public interest were laid before him. The last Mayor of the city was a man named Smith, who, in contempt of his oath of office, in contempt of his party pledges, and ignoring the remonstrances of the majority of the electors of this city, ignoring the mandate of the law all through his term, allowed the saloons as full license on Sundays as on any other day of the week, although the statute is explicit that they must be closed absolutely all that day. He was of the opinion that it was best for his advancement not to enforce the law, and yet, when the question of a renomination to the mayoralty came up, he found himself sadly in the minority. Thereupon he applied to the President for a place in which he could continue to subsist upon the public, and then it was that his record was laid before his Excellency, together with some other matters concerning his methods and character, and, after consideration, he is made Surveyor of Customs at this port, at the request of Mr. Sherman, Mr. Butterworth, and Mr. Halstead.

As soon as his appointment is made, his successor in office, also a Republican, issues an order which virtually says that he shall not interfere with the saloon men; nor will the police, unless reputable citizens will make specific complaint, issue warrants, and pledge themselves to do the prosecuting. We clothe the proper officers of the law with authority, furnish them with all necessary means, and pay their way, to enable and induce them to do their duty, and the head of them says openly to the citizens, if any man wants the law enforced in any particular case and will pay for it, the police will attend to it for him. That is the result of the endorsement given to Smith by the President after the whole matter had been fully brought before him, and after it had received his personal attention. Verily, as Mr. Lincoln said, the President is not President; the politician is President.—Yours very truly,

THEO. KEMPER.

CINCINNATI, May 25, 1889.

ETHICS OF BANKRUPTCY FOR MAGAZINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: More than one "wretched contributor" cries Amen to "C. H. W.'s" protest in the last *Nation*. The magazine "management" of which he complains has carried on its wrongdoings in the most high-handed and unblushing manner. Its latest editor was so thoroughly ashamed of that "management" that he sent a circular letter to subscribers and contributors, disavowing any complicity whatever with that lawless "management." Can the *Nation* not tell us if there is no way by which to force "Mr. Davis," or whoever that "management" is, to disgorge our MSS., for which we all sent stamps for return?

If magazine publishers are not responsible for MSS. intrusted to them, as some claim not to be, is the retention of $1 or $2 worth of postage stamps anything more or less than petty thieving? In this connection, many of us recall the *Manhattan*. When that magazine was forced to suspend issue, it honorably continued its editor's salary till every contributor was paid and *every manuscript returned*.

Yours truly,

A WRETCHED CONTRIBUTOR.

Notes.

JOSEPH THOMSON, the admirable African explorer, has written 'Travels in the Atlas and Southern Morocco,' which Longmans, Green & Co. will publish immediately. Six maps and sixty illustrations accompany the narrative.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, publish directly the 'Life and Work of Eli and Sybil Jones,' preachers and missionaries for half a century in the Society of Friends, by Rufus M. Jones. The work will contain two portraits.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will soon issue among their educational works De Garmo's 'Essentials of Method.' They have become the American publishers of Isaac Pitman's shorthand books.

White & Allen have arranged with William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, to publish in this country their new series of 'Tales from *Blackwood's Magazine*.'

Worthington Co. announce for immediate publication 'Two Daughters of One Race,' a new novel, by W. Heimburg, author of 'Gertrude's Marriage.'

Mary Howitt's autobiography, in two volumes, edited by her daughter Margaret, is about to appear in England, with the imprint of Isbister & Co.

The London *Times* for April 27 announces the preparation by Baron Nordenskjöld, the noted Arctic navigator, of an atlas containing some fifty facsimile reproductions of ancient maps, the result of several years' researches among the museums and libraries of Europe. The accompanying text describes the methods of cartography from the time of Ptolemy downwards, and analyzes in detail the contents of each map. The introduction will treat very fully of the editions and pseudo-editions of Ptolemy, of which the Baron's private collection "is probably unapproached." It is of interest to us to learn that while he has made many important discoveries of very early printed maps, "he has found that little can be added to the cartographical literature of America, which has been diligently and very completely worked out." This work will be published, probably in the spring, in Stockholm, in a Swedish and English edition. The English translation is by Mr. J. A. Ekelöf of the Royal Swedish Navy, revised by Clements R. Markham, the well-known geographer.

The publishing firm of Abenheim, in Berlin, whose list was remarkable for the number of American authors upon it (as, Emerson, Holmes, Parkman, Bayard Taylor, C. K. Adams, Bret Harte, etc.), has sold out to Hans Lüstenöder. On the same list are five of the works of the eminent German lexicographer, Daniel Sanders, which Herr Lüstenöder has a mind to popularize still further in accordance with their deserts. To this end he has made substantial reductions in the price of several of them, including, we believe, the great 'Ergänzungs-Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache,' of which the price is now, at all events, forty marks.

Another volume of the Transactions of the Oneida Historical Society (1887–1888), containing a full report of the New Hartford Centennial Celebration of last June, is now obtainable of Warren C. Rowley, Treasurer, No. 56 Genesee St., Utica, N. Y.

Prof. Genung of Amherst College has supplemented his 'Handbook of Rhetoric' by a valuable 'Handbook of Rhetorical Analysis' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), subtitled "Studies in Style and Invention," in which he has gathered passages from standard authors, in the main, as examples to be used in illustrating good writing. The volume is of proper size, and at the foot of the page are questions to be used by teachers. The study of literature by the young, he properly observes, is likely to lack precision and penetration; it operates to form taste very gradually. He aims, by close examination of comparatively few pages, to give, or rather to extract from, the student the reason why the practice of the great authors is good, and to show its coincidence with the rules laid down in rhetoric. The method has much to commend it, in connection with rhetoric, and will enliven that study and give it a more practical aspect. The selections are excellent, ranging from Bunyan to George William Curtis and Mr. Shorthouse, and afford sufficient variety of treatment. The matter, however, is sometimes over the heads of any but the higher classes, and is adapted rather to colleges than to any except high-grade high-schools.

A new and enlarged edition of Smith's 'Synonyms Discriminated,' edited by the Rev. H. Percy Smith (Henry Holt & Co.), is a very valuable addition to the reference library of students. In a space of some 750 closely printed, double-columned pages, in clear type, a real dictionary has been included, in which words of synonymous meaning are briefly and carefully discriminated, with quotations largely derived from that most excellent source, Richardson. The work has been admirably done, and is unrivalled, so far as our observation goes, in books of this class. The addition of the derivation of words as a clue to their exact meaning is a noticeable feature, and the index at the end is a gain. The work had been practically completed by the author before his death, and is published in effect from his hand. In our list acknowledgment of this book, by the way, the price was set down errroneously: it is $2.25.

The increasing interest in the study of the lower, or flowerless, plants is likely to give us a large number of text-books of various sorts during the next few years. Among the forerunners of this impending blessing comes 'A Handbook of Cryptogamic Botany,' by A. W. Bennett and George Murray (Longmans, Green & Co.). Mr. Bennett is widely known by his excellent translation of an edition of a famous handbook by Prof. Sachs, and by many and varied editorial labors, as well as by his studies in certain fields of botany. He has undertaken all of the present volume except the fungi and allied forms, and has done his embarrassing work in a cautious manner. But he has left untouched at least one very important subject, and has failed to give full credit to some prominent investigators in the department of cryptogamic botany. Mr. Murray's work, likewise, has been carefully performed, and, with the exception of not having preserved what seems to us a proper sense of relationships and proportions, he has been successful in a task of exceedingly great difficulty. The work will serve well as a safe makeshift while we are waiting for more extensive treatises on the same subject.

The Messrs. Putnam extend their pretty Knickerbocker Nuggets series with three essays of De Quincey's—"Murder Considered as One of the Fine Arts," "Three Memorable Murders" (a parallel to the recent Whitechapel performances), and "The Spanish Nun"—all bound in one pair of covers, and 'The Wit and Wisdom of Sydney Smith.'

Smith's fellow-canon of St. Paul's, Barham, is revived in his 'Ingoldsby Legends,' by Frederick Warne & Co. This substantial production has been got into a little more than 500 pages without any extra demand on the eyes, and in tasteful typographical dress and neat binding. A portrait of Barham, and comic designs by Cruikshank, Leech, and others embellish the volume, which can in all respects be recommended to the low-spirited.

A well-known suburb of Boston, consisting

of many villages that mostly bear the name of Newton, is given, in the series of Handbooks of the Moses King Corporation, a volume very nearly as large as that devoted to Boston itself in the same series. It has been competently edited by Mr. M. F. Sweetser, and its illustrations, chiefly of private residences (though the charming scenery of the Newtons goes not wholly unsuggested), are very numerous. The local satisfaction with this handbook must be complete.

In the May number of the Harvard University Bulletin, two instances are recorded of past beneficiaries (a Greeley and a Greeley Clarke) returning to the college treasury the sums allowed them from the scholarship funds. This restitution has heretofore been rather uncommon, and most conspicuous in the Divinity School. The Corporation now think it useful to open an account analogous to the Conscience Fund of the U. S. Treasury, and to be called "Scholarship and Beneficiary money returned." No doubt this will stimulate the practice. In the same issue, the death of Chevreul is catalogued on account of his having received an honorary degree from Harvard, he being, too, the oldest person who ever did. Still, Judge Timothy Farrar came only just a year behind him; and two graduates, the Rev. John Sawyer of Dartmouth, and Nathan Birdseye of Yale, lived to be 103 years and five days, and 103 years, five months, and nine days, respectively, thus surpassing Chevreul (102 years, seven months, nine days).

The two recent notable occasions at Johns Hopkins are recalled by a pamphlet containing the new Constitution of Japan, with the speeches addressed to students of Political Science in the University on April 17, of which a limited edition is for sale at the Publication Agency, Baltimore; and by a reprint from the *Medical News* of Surgeon Billings's address at the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital on May 7.

A third pamphlet gives us the organization and an historical sketch of the Women's Anthropological Society of America, founded in Washington in 1885, and having now forty-five active members. Miss Alice Fletcher, one of the vice-presidents, is the name best known to science among the officers. One of the members, Miss Eliza R. Scidmore, is said to have in preparation a work on Corea. Another, Miss Sarah A. Scull, was for a year a student at the American School of Classical Studies in Athens. The proceedings of the Society have been varied and pertinent.

In the January number of the *Monatshefte zur Statistik des Deutschen Reichs*, is a table giving a synopsis of German emigration since 1871. The total for the period is 1,769,297. Of these emigrants the destination of 1,618,816 was the United States; 33,443 went to Brazil, 15,599 to other parts of South America, 16,341 to Australia, 4,780 to British North America, 4,047 to Africa, and 1,086 to Asia. There remain unaccounted for 74,685 emigrants sailing from French ports, though it is believed that nearly all of these went to the United States. The year of highest emigration was 1881, when 220,902 Germans left their fatherland. The lowest number of emigrants during any year of the period is found in 1877, viz., 22,898. Brazil received most of her Germans long ago, nearly 9,000 going to that empire in 1872-73. Latterly the tide has run much more strongly to other parts of South America, 1,723 going there in 1888, for example, while but 1,129 went to Brazil. The total emigration in 1886 amounted to 83,218, a lower figure than for seven years previous. In 1887, it was 104,659; in 1888, 98,568 (with returns from Havre wanting).

The late Count Tolstoi, who as Minister of the Interior held perhaps the most important place in the Russian Empire, had also some reputation as a man of letters. He was President of the Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, and of the literary section of it, and was the author of important works on the history of Russia and on education since the time of Catharine. He also wrote a book in French, a 'Histoire du Catholicisme en Russie,' in three volumes octavo.

The Hartford Theological Seminary has decided to admit women to all its regular courses of study. This is an extremely important decision. The prudent prophet would have thought himself safe in saying that this particular seminary would be the last, instead of the first, to grant such a concession. It seems to show that the unwise custom of barring out women, whose minds are weak, from all the possible sources for making them stronger, is more widely undermined than the prudent prophet had supposed.

—Many readers will first turn to the illustrated article in the June *Harper's* by Henry James, in which he describes the work and personalities of "Our Artists in Europe," and sketches the village of Broadway, which is their gathering-place. F. D. Millet, Abbey, Alfred Parsons, Boughton, Du Maurier, and Reinhart are the heroes of his friendly encomiums and of the engravings which show their portraits and some of the scenes of Broadway. Other much-illustrated articles are the account of the ever-interesting city of Montreal, with its picturesque and modern-commercial traits; the history of the "Negro on the Stage," from the competent pen of Laurence Hutton, and two poems, Praed's "Quince," and a sonnet of Wordsworth's, which are pictured in the customary way. The second article upon "Social Life in Russia," by Vicomte de Vogüé, takes the reader into the country, and finally to a Cossack estate. A very seasonable discussion of the matter of "Psychic Research," summarizing what is known of the phenomena investigated under that name, and laying down the scientific law of belief in respect to them, is contributed by Dr. Jastrow, and should be useful to those who are superstitiously inclined. The great emphasis which he lays upon the necessity of a certain technical training in these problems before any judgment should be made at first hand, conveys a much-needed warning.

—In his timely essay on Saturn's rings, in *Harper's*, Prof. George H. Darwin of Trinity College, Cambridge, has done a real service in popularizing the results of the abstruse mathematical researches of Laplace, Roche, and Maxwell on these bodies. New light is thrown on the interpretation of Laplace's well-known labors, and the discovery, as it may be termed, which Prof. Darwin has made, of the significant work of M. Édouard Roche, is duly emphasized. This man of genius, as he is called, published, or rather entombed, all his papers in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences of Montpellier, an old city in the south of France. So little known are they that Prof. Darwin says he has not yet met a single English mathematician who has read them. So long ago as 1848, Roche investigated the effects of the attraction of a planet upon the figure of its satellite, rendering it oviform, and determined the limiting degree of this elongation, or, what is the same thing in the terrestrial system, the limiting proximity of the moon to the earth. This Prof. Darwin terms Roche's limit; and the conclusion is that if, anywhere in the heavens, matter is found circulating about a planet inside of this limit, it can only be in the form of rocks, dust, and fragments. Saturn is the only such body, and the only planet with rings; and the belief is thus justified that Saturn's rings consist of dust and fragments. This is recognizable as the accepted view of astronomers to-day, but it is such in consequence of the researches of Maxwell, which thus were antedated nearly a decade by those of Roche. Maxwell showed, too, that a spreading of the rings, both inward and outward, was a theoretical result of the inevitable impacts between the constituent meteorites. As the periphery of the outer rings already lies near Roche's limit, the spreading must in time carry many meteorites beyond. Here will exist no obstacle to their aggregation into a definite body, and a ninth satellite of Saturn may thus be formed. The inward spreading will continue until the meteorites reach the outer regions of the planet's atmosphere, where, heated by friction, they will disintegrate, and fall upon Saturn as dust. The evolution of the remote future may thus rob the Saturnian system of the unique charm of its rings, and an additional plain satellite will form the only relic.

— The June *Atlantic* opens with an account of the Eiffel Tower, in which the history of its construction is narrated; but, after reading it, one should turn to the end of the magazine, where he will find a clever translation, in the Contributors' Club, of François Coppée's striking poem upon this "Yankee's Dream," in which sarcasm and patriotic feeling and criticism of materialism are cunningly blended to make this wonder of the Exposition contemptible. The two views, both well expressed, will thus be brought side by side. The most unusual and pleasantest article is a short sketch by Prof. C. E. Norton, in which he pays a tribute to the Venetian antiquarian scholar, Rawdon Brown, and tells how the latter found the tombstone of "banished Norfolk," in search of whose resting-place Brown had left England in his early days, and had in the course of it found Venice so enchanting that, although he lived fifty years longer, he never revisited his native country. The remainder of the number is devoted to "solid" reading. "The German Gymnasium's" methods of work are detailed with the carefulness of a prospectus; the origin of the tales of the 'Thousand and One Nights' is speculated upon by a scholarly pen; the relations of Church, State, and School, made a current question by the parochial-school agitation in Massachusetts, are treated in the broad manner and after the philosophical conception of Dr. Mulford; the city of Birmingham is historically and socially analyzed and eulogized; and the traits of the Australasian colonists are described and their future slightly forecast in the second article of Prof. Royce. These valuable articles exhibit the variety and seriousness which often characterize this magazine, and literature is represented by the serials of Henry James and Mr. Bynner.

—The *Century* is exceedingly rich in articles of interest and value. Mr. Kennan opens the subject of the ill-famed Kara mines, but in the present instalment advances no further than description of the country and of the interior of some of the prisons, of one of which he makes a sickening recital. The philanthropy of New York is illustrated by an able paper upon the work done by women for women in this city, and its interest is enhanced by some thoughtful but disturbing reflections upon the nature of the problem to be met. Entirely different in attraction is the sketch of the English bloodhound, with excellent cuts, from the pen of an enthusiastic lover of the breed, which is

represented as far from the terrible creature that our legends of the Cuban slave-hunting variety have made familiar. The author advocates their employment in tracking criminals, and does not despair of their capacity to be specially trained to follow "the clean boot," even over the stones of London pavements. The artistic article is upon Corot, and is thorough in its treatment, mingling the biographical, the critical, and the personal strains of interest in a masterly way. The presentation of the claims of idealism in landscape is admirable in clearness and well brought home by reference to Corot's work, so that we would gladly make extracts did our space permit. The closing years of Gen. Lee's life are sympathetically written of by Mrs. Preston, whose opportunities for observation were great; and several characteristic anecdotes, slight in themselves, but illustrative of a kind and honorable nature, are added to our knowledge of Lee's personality. The Lincoln Life takes up the critical subject of Chase's candidacy for the Presidency, with great consideration for Chase; and at the end there is an appreciative note of an American astronomer, S. W. Burnham, whose work, both from its conditions and results, makes an interesting story.

—*Scribner's* presents this month the first of its long-announced series of papers upon Electricity, and devotes its initial paper to a brief account of the instruments, simple characteristics, and methods of measurement of the force in its modern applications. To judge by the present paper, the topic will not prove easy reading. A very useful article is the full account of the Building and Loan Associations which have had so useful and prosperous a career, and seem likely to prove of vastly greater value in the immediate future. The Sicilian town of Castrogiovanni, the ancient Enna, gives material for an excellent and out-of-the-way travel paper, in which the historical variety and the rare characteristics of the island are prominently dealt with. The most important contribution, however, is Prof. Drummond's description of the Arab slave trade, now working untold misery in Africa and depopulating whole districts of the interior by means of the utmost barbarity. He quotes from unquestionable authorities the scenes which he brings forward, and reminds us of what is being done or proposed by European Powers for the suppression of this trade; he agrees that a resort to physical force is now in some measure necessary, but he nevertheless repeats his conviction that the long-established peace policy of the British Anti-Slavery Society is to be adhered to, in spite of all temptations to radical measures. At the close of his cruel story he makes a vigorous appeal to this country for assistance, and expresses the hope that our national policy of not meddling in foreign affairs will not be interpreted as cutting us off from participation in the common humane efforts of foreign nations when our aid may be of value. Mr. Schuyler, in his second paper on Tolstoi, treats at large of the quarrel between him and Turgeneff, and holds out hopes of his return to literary labors.

—The list of really good historical text-books receives a useful addition in Mr. D. H. Montgomery's 'Leading Facts in French History' (Ginn & Co.). It is a marked advance on any available work of its scope. The author has shown competent judgment in the choice of his facts, and his style is clear and interesting. The proportions are well observed, and the political significance of events is given due prominence in his treatment. So far as we have noticed, unusual accuracy has been achieved; yet there are one or two details to which attention may be called. Mr. Montgomery depicts with considerable vividness the apprehensions of the immediate end of the world which beset men as the year 1000 approached. Our faith in this commonplace of mediæval history has been considerably shattered by the painstaking investigations of Orsi ('L'Anno Mille'), Roy ('L'An Mille'), and H. von Eicken, who have examined the evidence as regards Italy, France, and Germany respectively, and pronounced it totally inadequate, and dismissed this favorite and picturesque generalization as a myth of modern historians. We do not think that the evidence warrants quite so positive a conclusion, but there can be no doubt that the prevalence and depressing effects of this fear have been greatly exaggerated. One of the proofs, the use of the phrase, "appropinquante fine mundi," in the beginning of bequests, is shown to be no proof, as its use is general all through the Middle Ages. The coronation of Charlemagne in 800 is spoken of as a revival of "the title of Emperor of the West." But this title was not only not used, but contrary to the fundamental theory of the time. Mr. Montgomery indicates the pronunciation of French names by a phonetic spelling. It seems to us that in most cases that is best left to the teacher. Without the guidance of the living voice, any phonetic spelling is apt to lead the pupil to adopt a "tertium quid" which is neither French nor English, and would be equally unintelligible to hearers of either race. Feudalism is certainly misapprehended when it is described as "giving every man his due place and work. If he was able he rose to the top; if he was incapable he sank to the bottom." That does not describe a society organized on the principle of *status*. It is an error, or, at any rate, misleading, to say that Rabelais was at one time a "mendicant friar." We regret that Mr. Montgomery ended his narrative with the establishment of the Third Republic; a brief account of the last eighteen years would have added much to the interest and value of his work.

—There have been in late numbers of the *Temps* a series of short articles, "Billets du Matin," signed T., which is, if the *Paris* is well informed, the initial of M. André Theuriet. One of these, which appeared on May 9, is a note from Renan addressed to the writer, apparently in answer to an invitation to visit the Exposition. After saying that a return of illness has kept him so far from visiting "cette chère Exposition," which he blesses for bringing a little joy, and forgetfulness, and cordiality, and sympathy into human life, M. Renan goes on:

"I saw the preparations for it, some weeks ago, from the height of the Trocadéro: it affected me like the *Villa Adriana*, like one of those holidays of the time of Hadrian, brilliant, a little composite, eclectic to excess, but which we regard with tenderness as the last smiles of a world that is coming to its end. But even supposing that the Exposition of 1889 shall be the last time that men shall come together to give themselves up to the sports and merriment of childhood, the melancholy in this thought will not be of a nature to make it less poetic or less suggestive to us. And then, after all, who knows the future? You think me more a pessimist than I am. I am indeed alarmed at seeing so stately a tradition as that of the French Royalty handed on to a sovereign so narrow and so light-minded, so accessible to calumny, so open to surprise, as the populace, represented by universal suffrage. But I do not deny that the present hour has its advantages and its consolations. Liberty is greater than it has ever been in this country, or, perhaps, anywhere. The exaggerated criticisms which have been made upon the present régime have sprung from minds ignorant of the past and over-confident of the future. If this only lasts! —that is the sole misgiving that need trouble our content. If it concerned only our miserable selves, we might scoff at foresight, and take chances, and run risks. But it concerns the interests and destinies of France. When I turn the page of the *Temps* on which I read those consoling reports of holiday-making, that fine speech of M. Carnot's, I find this under the heading 'Saint-Ouen':

M. le général Boulanger.....1,043 Élu.
M. Naquet, boulangiste..... 981 "
M. Laguerre, boulangiste.... 981 "
M. Déroulède, boulangiste... 979 "

Some of those to whom I have spoken of this have told me that Saint-Ouen is not a very enlightened spot. That is possible; but I fear that there are in France a great many districts that are, in point of politics, not much more enlightened than Saint-Ouen."

—He concludes, in words which we will not translate, as follows:

"Voilà pourquoi, par moments, je ne peux m'empêcher de voir, entre les rayons de ce beau soleil couchant, un nuage sombre frangé d'or d'où pourrait bien sortir un *rokh* qui emporterait tout. Enfin, continuons d'espérer en la raison, et croyez à ma vive amitié."

How far this rather gloomy letter represents M. Renan's mood when he is sick, and how far an habitual mood, we will not say. One would not be in any haste to say even how much of it he believes to be serious, for M. Renan is so often and so much a *persifleur* as to provoke the suspicion that a good deal of his gloom is "only his fun." But it is pleasant to think that, however sincere his pessimism may be, it is not without its consolations, and that if he is cast down by the Republic and its prospects, he is not destroyed.

THE ART AND INDUSTRIES OF JAPAN.

The Industries of Japan, together with an Account of its Agriculture, Forestry, Arts, and Commerce. From travels and researches undertaken at the cost of the Prussian Government. By J. J. Rein, Professor of Geography in the University of Bonn. With 44 illustrations and 3 maps. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1889.

Japan and its Art. By Marcus B. Huish, LL.B. London: The Fine Art Society. 1889.

GERMAN thoroughness of research, and a willingness to go deep and to search far, even when immediate profit is not to be looked for, are pleasantly characteristic of Professor Rein's second treatise. The first, which we reviewed in a previous number, is now declared to have been deliberately undertaken as a "preliminary study towards a better understanding of the various phenomena of industrial life"—namely, in Japan. The present volume has to do with the phenomena in question.

Half of the volume is devoted to agricultural industries, which important contribution to knowledge is divided as follows: In the first place, there is a but too brief essay on Japanese agriculture in general. Such evidences of minute and careful observation there are that one could wish that it had been allowed to go further into detail. Neither is it hard reading. By some process of sublimation different from ordinary translation from one language into another, the English style is made pleasant and readable, and one not necessarily agricultural in his tastes finds himself reading these pages as if of an amusing book of travels. This is followed by a good, solid discussion of the food-plants of Japan, under which head are included especially those which are used mainly by the people themselves, the exportation plants being generally excluded. Grains, starch-producing bulbs, fruits, and the like; then articles of food and luxury prepared by some chemical or other process from the natural productions, from the simplest prepa-

ration of tea through all the fermented and distilled drinks—the whole supply of the people's food as obtained from the vegetable kingdom is contained in this discussion. It is interesting to observe how practical has been the writer's observation. Thus, he cannot write upon rice without pausing a moment in his exposition of the method of its cultivation to tell us how it is cooked—advice by no means superfluous to Americans, who (at the North at least) are apt to make a horrible porridge of rice, and most of whom do not even know what its proper cooking and serving is.

The third department deals with "plants of commerce," by which is meant the articles that are exported or exportable—or so it seems to be intended. Tea, tobacco, different drugs, different oil-producing plants, different fibre-producing plants, are included in this chapter; it being assumed that rice and pulse, and such articles of food, can hardly, in our time at least, be exported from a thickly settled country like Japan, and that the commerce of the West with the sunrise country can only be in such productions of the soil as are costly in comparison to their bulk. The author tells us a hundred good stories as he goes on with his examination, enlivening his mass of statistics with the most interesting, though brief, accounts of manners and customs in connection with the subject in hand. Thus, the Japanese smoking apparatus is the subject of an entertaining little discussion, and we are told that the author's refusal of the constantly offered whiff of tobacco excited great surprise among the Japanese, "for they can hardly imagine a foreigner who does not like tobacco." In this case we can imagine that the surprise was about as great as among his own friends at home. A non-smoker in the University of Bonn must have been nearly as remarkable as in Japan. It appears, too, that the Japanese still use an expression equivalent to the ancient English phrase, "drinking tobacco"; further, that in Germany the earliest used phrase for smoking had the same signification, and Freytag is cited as having told us as much in his 'Bilder aus der Deutschen Vergangenheit.' It is well pointed out how liable to change is the Japanese production of drugs and similar high-priced articles, on account of the modifications in Japanese life and manners now going on, and so uncertain in their results. Thus ginseng, which has been so much in demand in Japan that the production has not been more than enough for home consumption, the demand for it in China being meanwhile so great that the United States alone are put down as having sent $700,000 worth in 1877, is passing out of favor in Japan because of the introduction of European ideas of medicine. The free and rapid growth of the camphor tree in the southern part of the empire; the large production of hemp, and the skill that has been shown in producing from it "fine white textiles, not much inferior to good European linen"; cotton cultivation; and an admirably suggestive account of an enormous number of fibrous plants, make up the greater part of this important chapter.

The next division has to do with cattle-raising and silk-growing, of which, perhaps, the most generally interesting part is the discussion of the silk-producing caterpillar, called the *yama mayu*, a creature which feeds on the green leaves of the oak. The author thinks that the product of this insect is less important than has been asserted, and tells us of the complete failure to naturalize the creature in Europe to any profitable extent. There is mentioned another wild silkworm of Japan, which feeds upon the leaves of the chestnut, walnut, and other trees; but it does not seem to be recognized as of importance. The chapter on forestry deals with timber-growing, carpenter-work, house-building, etc., which leads to a separate discussion, on different lines, of the individual trees which the author thinks most important for foreigners to investigate. And in this connection it may be said that a system of cross-references would be a useful addition to this book, for these trees come under consideration in several different chapters. It is true that, in addition to an index which is rather unusually full and presumably accurate, there is a table of contents more useful than is common, as the sub-sections are mentioned, and the number of the opening page of each.

Following immediately upon the essay on trees is a chapter devoted to Japanese gardening, which, with its account of the dwarfed plants and the highly artificial, small-scale horticulture of the Japanese, is oddly remote from the practical and commercial character of what has gone before. The word "nanisation" is introduced to express the dwarfing of large trees, which, as is well known, is a special aim of Japanese gardening, and with which our author quarrels more, perhaps, than is advisable. He seems to think that the Japanese care only for the unnatural and the forced plant. Although he continually admits, and even insists upon, the love of these people for free and wild nature, yet, when he is dealing with the gardeners, he appears to think it bad taste in them to enjoy these *tours de force*, these pine trees and bamboos that would go under a tumbler, and aged forest trees not more than five inches high. He quotes Kaemper's account of the box he saw, four inches long and one inch and a half broad, in which were growing together a bamboo, a pine tree, and a plum tree in flower. Now, the Japanese, in their crowded country (which, as our author himself states in another place, supports a large population on one-fifth only of its surface, the rest being taken up with forests and wild land), have always been somewhat in the condition of the inhabitants of our cities. Land is precious to them, and the piece of ground that one takes up for his garden must be utilized to the utmost. Mr. Hamerton may be right enough in his frequently expressed contempt for gardens, and his preference for a "mile of wild trout stream" over the most beautiful decorative grounds; but there is among the Japanese no lack of appreciation of the wild trout stream, the mountain forest, the savage gorge, the snowclad peak. In all these things they are as advanced as Europeans, while in all the matters of decoration properly so called they are immeasurably in advance of them.

It comes, then, with rather poor grace from a European, and most of all from a German—that is, from a native of the least artistic of European countries — this somewhat supercilious setting down of Japanese garden fancies as necessarily inferior to the European idea. The fancy for dwarf gardening is a whim, like another, and the Japanese, with their love for nature and for decorative art, are entitled to as many whims of this sort as they can be accused of. No doubt, the dwarf tree, or group of dwarf trees, is not the thing that we care most to study in Japanese decorative design; but this is because we are not in the way of learning anything from it, not because it is in itself either ugly or uninteresting. A similar bit of Western conceit is to be seen in the remarks upon the Japanese arrangement of cut flowers. We are told that the enjoyment of beautiful flowers is common, and that what is admired is their individual beauty or their natural combinations. But another sentence states that the "arrangement and coloring of bouquets is not understood by the Japanese." Let us now insert "fortunately" after "is," and this sentence will be in keeping with the facts that precede and follow it. The actual fact is, that the arranging of fresh flowers is a very special art, carefully taught, among the Japanese.

There is a brief chapter on mining, which includes mention of potter's clay, porcelain clay, and the quarrying and extraction of stones, whether for building or decorative purposes; and following this comes that part of the book which will, perhaps, have the most interest for Western people, namely, the account of art industry and related occupations. This is brief, compared with what has been given in other works, in English and French, but it has the peculiar advantage of having been composed on the spot (at least to all appearance), and of being authentic as far as it goes. Moreover, it is devoted entirely to facts about the manufacture and decoration of the objects described, with no attempt to describe the legendary and mythological decorations with which they are covered, or the excellences of the different manufactures. The writer, with praiseworthy thoroughness, describes what he has seen and has learned at first hand, enlivening his narrative by allusions to the more entertaining peculiarities of the delicate work of the Japanese. Thus he speaks of that property of the magical mirrors of showing in the reflections of the face the patterns in relief on the back; he alludes to that peculiarity of bronze that it is freely worked with hammer and chisel as well as with the burin, and he amuses himself and his readers by a description of those peculiar rock-crystal balls, increasing in value according to a scale out of all proportion to their increasing size, which, although not limited to the modern far East, are almost so in the experience of collectors and amateurs. Finally, although it has been said above that but little space is given to the subjects treated in Japanese art, yet it must be stated that mention is made of a few of those plants and birds, whether real or fabulous, and a few of those conventional scenes and formal patterns, which enter most freely into their decoration. It is fortunate that so little of this is done. Our author's art criticisms are extremely conservative, and are those which one might expect from Mark Twain's favorite Sunday-school superintendent, rather than from a student of Eastern art. Thus, he is absolutely certain that the disposition of an artist, whether Western or Eastern, to deal with "dreadful scenes where blood and the odor of death prevail" is to be always reprobated, and he asserts in the same sentence that this taste has never found favor with the Japanese; both of which statements are as untrue as it is possible for statements to be. Japanese pictorial art is assuredly not without representations of those atrocious cruelties which are almost peculiar to Eastern justice and Eastern tyranny, as compared with the European government and administration of law, at least of modern times.

It is certainly not for criticism of Japanese art that we recommend any one to study this book, but for its minute and evidently thoroughly studied accounts of the artistical and industrial processes involved. For example, the account of lacquer ware, although not by any means the only long and minute description of its manufacture that we have, has every appearance of being the most carefully verified of all; and the brief account of the methods of weaving certain textile fabrics has all the appearance of remarkable accuracy. In

this connection, too, one is glad to perceive that the value and merit of recent Japanese industrial art are recognized. One paragraph on page 306 states the whole case accurately as regards this very industry of decorative lacquer. It was feared, at the time of the breaking up of the old order of things, from 1868 to 1870, that soon the last worker in fine lacquer would have disappeared from Japan; but, our author goes on, with the new impulse from abroad and the renewed care for their old art on the part of the Japanese nobles, who were now newly enriched, artistic productions in lacquer ware were "once more made to pay, and the result is that to-day there are *makiye-shi* in Japan whose works may be placed side by side with the best of olden times." Now, this is strictly true, and it is good to see that our author, who apparently has not a quick eye for minute discriminations in decorative art, should have perceived or have learned this fact. The modern lacquers are not exactly like the old ones. Nobody ought to expect to find modern lacquers precisely the same as those of one hundred and fifty years ago, unless they are minute copies of given ancient specimens. The modern work in fine lacquer ranks with the ancient in design, in minuteness, in finish, in all that makes work admirable. Whether it is equal in refined taste or not, is a question which different amateurs will answer in different ways.

The work of Mr. Huish is in a sense the complement of the one last described. It is a good embodiment and condensation of the general stock of European knowledge and conjecture about Japan, derived from the stories of travellers, the partial translation of documents, the minute study of works of art, and the comparison of statements of different European authors. In the European languages there exists already a considerable body of critical and historical analyses of the fine and industrial arts of Japan, and this is constantly undergoing a process of checking and correcting, partly by the aid of educated Japanese who are residing in Europe and America, and partly by the statements of European visitors to Japan. But with these last there is this difficulty, that nearly all of them are persons who have gone to the East to teach and to preach, and not to learn, and who begin with a contempt for all that religion and all that intellectual training which they are bound especially to supersede. These, having the non-artistic European's noble scorn for a dark and non-Caucasian race, go on with the thought that any notice that may be bestowed upon such heathenism, such superstition, as that which is embodied in Japanese literature and art is a favor done it and a great concession to Western curiosity. It must be remembered, too, that translation from an Eastern into a European language is enormously difficult.

The reflection of this partly erroneous, but in the main correct idea, which the Western lovers of decorative art have formed of Japan, of her legends and traditions, and of the true meaning of her refined art, is what is found in Mr. Huish's book. Any cultivated Japanese will point out by the score what he believes to be errors, most of which undoubtedly are errors either in substance or form. The author, who does not pretend to have visited Japan, or to be versed in the language, would probably be as ready as any one to say that even approximate accuracy was most difficult to attain. But, on the other hand, so far as it is instructive to converse with the collector and student of Japanese art, with one who has frequented the shops and the sales of vast London in search of Japanese curios, and who has carried with him in the search the taste and the inquiring spirit of a real lover of art—so far it will be well for every one to become familiar with this book. There will be found in it the discoveries and the ideas of many London specialists, the correcting opinions of a native Japanese student, who is named in the preface; 120 illustrations, mostly very tolerable "process" prints from Japanese drawings, carvings, weapons, and the like; references to many authors who have written about Japan and its arts, together with memoranda as to the value of other books to explain or to illustrate the technical terms and the true feeling underlying all for the value and beauty of Japanese art, which must inspire and edify the reader; and with all this the book is light in the hand and pleasant to look at.

THE CENTURY DICTIONARY.

The Century Dictionary. An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language. Prepared under the superintendence of William Dwight Whitney, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in Yale University. Section I. New York: The Century Co. 1889.

THE Century Company is now about to publish the first section of its encyclopædic lexicon of the English language, and an advance copy has been submitted to the *Nation* for review. This work has extraordinary prestige from the eminence of its editor-in-chief, Prof. W. D. Whitney, and his collaborators, and from its publishers. It has been in active preparation for seven years, and it is said that no American house has undertaken a work of greater magnitude or importance. There is certainly no American house which the public would more confidently expect to carry through such a work with honor.

The sections are bound in flexible cloth, strongly, so as to make a convenient working volume. However high expectations may have been raised, no book-lover will open this section without a glow of pleasure. It is the handsomest dictionary that ever was made. Grimm and Littré are level fields of uniform types. The Historical Dictionary of the Clarendon Press uses freely a large variety of types, and shows a page which is a delight to the eye; but, in addition to all the resources of the printer in types, the 'Century Dictionary' employs those of the engraver. It is full of admirable pictorial illustrations, far superior as works of art to those in any former dictionary, and the paper and presswork correspond. The cuts remind us at once that this is not a simple word-book, a mere dictionary, but an "encyclopedic lexicon." It undertakes to give not only words with their spelling, pronunciation, history, and definitions, but also some account of the objects denoted by the words, and interesting items of information about them, such as are found in encyclopædias. It is not to be classed, therefore, with works of pure linguistic science, with the great historical dictionaries of Grimm and the Philological Society, with which its form and size just now suggested a comparison, but with Webster and his followers, Worcester and the 'Imperial Dictionary.' It is an apotheosis of Webster.

Its purpose is to tell any one who is puzzled with anything he reads or hears in English, exactly what he needs to know in order to understand the matter. He must be able, then, to find any word he looks for. For this the 'Century Dictionary' may be hopefully trusted to its date. Hundreds of new words are made every year. It has, of course, the words in former dictionaries. It has liberally enlarged the number found in other dictionaries of obsolete, dialectic and provincial, colloquial and slang words, especially Americanisms, and has recorded with great fulness the special terms of the sciences, arts, and trades. Specially trained readers have been collecting new words and new meanings for it for many years. It will be strong in phrases, giving important special denotations of the main words. Under *act*, for example, there are described not only *act of God*, *act of grace*, and the like, *Acts of the Apostles*, *Black Acts*, and the like, but *Jekyll's Act*, an English statute of 1736 against liquor-selling, *Riddleberger Act*, *Yazoo Frauds Act*, and others, fifty *acts* or so. About 200,000 separate words and 30,000 phrases are promised. (The 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' of Cassell & Co. is the latest and has the largest vocabulary of the former dictionaries. It gives 180,000 words.) In the portion which we have examined the phrases seem well selected, such as are frequently used and need explanation, and numerous enough. But, of course, they are open to criticism. It is in the nature of the case that everybody finds something to wonder at in the contents of a cyclopædia—the exclusion of this, the inclusion of that. We grumble at our 'Encyclopædia Britannica' for not having an article on a subject in which we are interested, at our 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' for omitting our heroes and filling pages with nobodies. A critic who can find nothing incorrect will find many things omitted. There are important "acts" which are not here. But the comprehensiveness of this work in comparison with its predecessors, and the general good judgment of the editors, cannot be questioned.

Going on with our examination, we look next at the spelling. This is what might be expected from Prof. Whitney. The spellings current in England and America are given. Older and rare spellings are added in different type. The best form is indicated. "The essentially phonetic rule of spelling, that of two or more forms which have equal authority, or are equally supported by usage, the one is to be preferred which is simplest or nearest the phonetic standard, has been adopted." Besides this recognition of the supremacy of reason, of scientific law over living forms of words, attention is carefully called to approved spellings which are in conflict with etymological truth, as the *h* in *aghast*, the *ff* in *afford*, so that the Dictionary is well in line with the best linguistic science in phonology.

Similar remarks may be made about the pronunciation. Prof. Whitney gives this more minutely than it is given by other dictionaries except that of Dr. Murray. Conversational pronunciation is a subject with which the active students of language are specially busy, and it has led to the bringing into prominence great differences of pronunciation among those who have been heretofore considered as using the standard pronunciation of the dictionaries. This standard pronunciation gives mainly the sound of the accented syllables when clearly and forcibly articulated as a trained orator speaks to a large audience. But the phonologists have adopted a new ideal, the natural conversational speech of a gentleman unspoiled by teachers of elocution. The speech of Londoners of this class is carefully recorded, and commended to others as standard English. It is quite different from what has been considered standard English in America, especially in the extent to which the neutral vowel (ŭ in *but*, *burn*) is used. The Londoner begins the Bible thus: "Thŭ Fŭŭst Book ŭv Mosŭs, called Genŭsis. In thŭ bŭginning God creatŭd thŭ heavŭns ŭn

the ŭŭth." *Circumstance* has but one vowel sound, "cŭcŭmstŭnce." As these examples show, *r* after a vowel is silent or sounded ŭ: final *r* is movable and excrescent; thus, in *hair* alone it is silent (hăă), but before a vowel, as in *hair oil*, it is sounded. After final *a*, *r* is excrescent before a word beginning with a vowel, as in *idea is* (idear is). Initial *h* may be silent, as in *which*, or movable, as in *home* (*at ome*), *he* or *e*, and the like.

Such speech is now spoken in the south of England. The prevailing forces of our day make for uniformity in language, a general standard for all speakers of English. If it is to be preserved, it is time to record a standard conversational utterance of the unaccented letters. This very difficult and delicate task Prof. Whitney has performed in a manner which will not escape criticism, but which will commend itself to the general judgment of English-speaking men.

In Latin and Greek phrases, like *A fortiori*, which are often now pronounced in the so-called Roman method, and in scientific terms which have no popular pronunciation, but are uttered by scientists and others very much hap-hazard, Prof. Whitney gives a pronunciation according to English analogies. Dr. Murray has described his adventures in search of this kind of knowledge; his appeals to the introducers of such words who tell him they never thought how to pronounce them, and leave it to him; his attending meetings of learned societies, at one of which he heard his word *gaseous* systematically pronounced in six different ways by as many eminent physicists. They would let Prof. Whitney pronounce as he pleases; it is not so certain they will let him correct them. And it is certain that very few of them ever get through all the syllables of any of their sesquipedalia correctly according to the English pronunciation.

The authorities in favor of the different pronunciations are not given, as in Worcester's Dictionary. We have found it a considerable convenience in Worcester to have them together. The historical side of pronunciation is the least labored of any part of the 'Century Dictionary': how words were pronounced in Shakspere's time, in Chaucer's time, or any time but the present, we are not told. It is a difficult subject — the great Historical Dictionary does not attempt it. Perhaps it would not pay to introduce it even if the materials were at hand, but there are a good many anecdotes which are interesting and noteworthy, and encyclopædic. Doubtless many such will appear; under *oblige*, perhaps, we may find quoted: "It will become your royal mouth better to say *oblige*."

The etymology is the most thoroughly elaborated part of the work. The derivation of each word and its relation to other words in many languages is more thoroughly given than in any other general dictionary, and probably more fully than in any special etymological dictionary, though it is condensed to the last degree. A system of signs is used by which the relations of the words are expressed with algebraic precision and conciseness, so that it does not occupy very much space. The thoroughness consists in handling carefully every part of every word. Not only the principal part, the root part, but every affix and suffix, has its full discussion; and if, upon putting them together, any letter in the word remains unexplained, the origin of that is given. In *amidst*, for example, not only is *mid* traced back to the beginning of things, but the prefix *a*, and the adverbial genitive ending *s*, and these make the whole word in middle English. There is then a special explanation of the final *t*, as a phonetic addition, according to a special law. The work is freshly done on the basis of the latest authorities, with independent judgment and a thorough verification of all the words cited. Original suggestions are not wanting, as that of *akimbo*, based on the earliest passage in which it has been found.

"The hoost . . . set his hond *in kene bowe*.
Woulst thow, said he to Beryn, for to skorne me?"

Here *in kene bowe* is interpreted *with sharp elbow*, an attitude of defiance. So *alewife*, which has been thought an example of transformation by folk etymology from Indian *aloofe*, recorded in 1678, has been found in full form in 1670, "Big-bellied alewives." The scientific philologist will be delighted with the elaboration of every part of the etymology. It is evidently a labor of love with Dr. Scott and his helpers.

The etymology also has its encyclopædic side. The old etymologists have made all sorts of mistakes. A dictionary of etymology naturally is in part a history of vagaries, whims; it runs to anecdotes, to curiosities. And, as errors are infinite in number, it must be selective, and so disappointing to the lover of philological curiosities, who will look for his own favorites and not find them all. Under a^{10} there is quite a full narrative of the way Thomas à Becket came by his present name. The encyclopædist looks for more such. No dictionary has been so liberal in explanation of proper names. Every one seems to be admitted which has been used as a common name, or given rise to a literary adjective. "American" introduces "America," and "America" "Amerigo Vespucci." Here the cyclopædist critic wonders why nothing is said about the contention that "America" is a native word with the aborigines, and was not the name of Vespucci. Lowell talks of "Amphitryon's gold-juice humanized to wine." Here is Amphitryon all right: why not the story of the gold-juice? They are saving it up for the word *gold-juice*, perhaps. That is all right. Under *algebra* there is perhaps the fullest account in any dictionary of the origin of the word, with the minutest explanation of the meaning of the Arabic words from which it is derived, and how *algebra* meant *bone setting*, as well as handling mathematical symbols; but it would not be strange if some critic should find fault because there is no statement of De Morgan's contention that the name originally meant completing the square of an affected quadratic equation, the palmary surgical operation of the Arabic mathematicians of the time. The Philological Society's Dictionary has this advantage in its long columns of quotations, that if the editor does not think an opinion worth introducing into his etymological discussion, he can yet give a quotation which contains it, as Dr. Murray gives this one from De Morgan.

Next come the definitions. There are, in the first place, the definitions of common words, the most difficult and thankless task of the lexicographer. The attempt to give in general terms the connotation of familiar words which skip about day by day from object to object, on the hint of any sort of relation between the objects, is a desperate attempt in the English language. One needs Greek or German, with their free compounds, etymological thickets in whose entanglement one is easily fooled by verbal shadows. The definer is happy who prints nothing more stupid than Dr. Johnson's famous definition of *net*, "a texture woven with large interstices or meshes, used commonly as a snare for animals." There is one class of exceptions to this indefinableness, brief and clear definitions which have been long used in standard manual dictionaries like Johnson and Webster. These have become real meanings by having been authoritatively taught to many generations, even if they were not such at first. The definer of the 'Century Dictionary' does not copy these definitions very freely. He is afraid, perhaps, of infringing copyrights, or, perhaps, sometimes he thinks he can state them in better words. The practical relief from this difficulty of definition comes in two ways. One is the pictures. A single look at one of these engravings makes all plain when a column of words would fail. The other is quotations. For abstract terms there can be no pictures. If one is in doubt about their accurate use, he must have a body of quotations from standard authors in which they and their synonyms occur. Macaulay sends his Johnson to the binder for its fourteenth, or, perhaps, its twentieth cover. He studied the quotations by day and by night. The 'Century Dictionary' has much larger collections of quotations than other works of its kind, and acute and clear discussions of synonyms by Prof. Henry M. Whitney. Workers in English literature, who will accept this book with many thanks, will be sure to wish and hope that the same spirit which has prepared it may by and by give the world an encyclopædic dictionary of literature, in which the chief of our standard authors shall be thoroughly treated, as Homer is in a Homeric dictionary or Shakspere in the Shakspere dictionary, so that they can find every notable passage cited under its important words, and every difficult passage interpreted and explained. Such a work would have been a dream fifty years ago; but scholarship has grown apace in English language and literature, and a corps of American scholars competent for the work and eager for it might now be organized.

We reach at last the encyclopædic definitions, the great bulk of the book. These are the work of specialists in the various departments of science and art. These departments are spoken of as philology, law, biology and zoölogy, anatomy, botany, and other natural sciences, theology and ecclesiastical history, mythology, archæology, fine arts, history. From the nature of the case, as all the words and phrases of the English language are to be treated encyclopædically, the whole body of human thought is to be gone over. 200,000 words and 30,000 phrases will give several millions of definitions. Each of these has been proposed to a specialist as a topic upon which to present the best thought of the present day in the most brief and interesting form. The names of the contributors are a guarantee that the work is thoroughly done. That there are mistakes, shortcomings, neglected topics, is a matter of course. So also in a first section there must be expected occasional unnecessary repetitions and sometimes variations in different parts of articles contributed by different specialists. They will work together more perfectly as they go forward. Particular criticism is reserved. We close this paper with the general judgment that the work thus far meets all reasonable expectations, and when completed it will be the most comprehensive and satisfactory book of general reference yet produced—a book which every one will want, and which ought to have a place in every public library.

RECENT FOLK-LORE PUBLICATIONS.

Fairy and Folk Tales of the Irish Peasantry. Edited and selected by W. B. Yeats. [The Camelot Series.] Pp. xviii, 326. London: W. Scott; New York: T. Whittaker. 16mo. 1888.

Popular Tales from the Norse. By Sir George Webbe Dasent. 3d ed. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888. 8vo, pp. cli, 443.

Bits of Louisiana Folk-Lore. By Alcée Fortier. Baltimore. 1888. 8vo, pp. 69. [Extracted from the Transactions of the Modern Language Association of America, 1887, vol. iii.]

Folk-Lore Brésilien. Par F.-J. de Santa-Anna Nery. Paris: Perrin & Cie. 1889. 16mo, pp. xii, 272.

The Folk-Lore of Plants. By T. F. Thiselton Dyer. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 12mo, pp. 328.

The Tree of Mythology, its Growth and Fruitage: Genesis of the Nursery Tale, Saws of Folk-Lore, etc. A Study, by Charles De B. Mills. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1889. 8vo, pp. vi, 288.

THERE seems to be no lull in the interest taken in popular tales; collections, real and fictitious, follow each other fast, and no slight labor is needed to sift the contents and coördinate the fresh material. The new science of popular tales has already made its influence felt among collectors, but there is still much to be learned, and there is still among many a hazy idea of the word "popular" or "folk" tales. This is peculiarly true of the author of the first work on our list, who has made an entertaining compilation from earlier works (a small portion of it has not appeared before). The collectors of Irish tales have hitherto been littérateurs who were more concerned with the form of their stories than with their contents, thus divesting them of all scientific value, while at the same time largely increasing their interest for the ordinary reader. One need only compare a story like the "Three Wishes" (p. 235), by W. Carleton, with its sister versions in other languages (Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' lxv, "Godfather Misery," the French "Bonhomme Misère," etc.), to see what a racy local flavor has been imparted to the original theme. The volume before us deals chiefly with that delightful product of the Celtic mind, the fairy, although curdling ghost-stories are not neglected. Only eight of the stories in the book are of general interest—the "Three Wishes" mentioned above; the "Legend of Knockgrafton" (Crane xxvii, "The Two Humpbacks"); the "Three Wild Geese" (Crane xv, "Snow-white-fire-red"); the "Lazy Beauty and her Aunts" (Grimm No. 14, "The Three Spinners"); the "Haughty Princess" (Crane xxix, "The Crumb in the Beard"); "Munachar and Manachar" (Crane lxxviii, "Pitidda"); "Donald and his Neighbors" (Grimm No. 61, "The Little Farmer"), and the "Story of Conneda" (comp. Crane iv, "The Dancing Water, the Singing Apple, and the Speaking Bird"). These tales make us deeply regret that no Irish Grimm has yet garnered the wealth of popular tradition which in England and this country has shrunk to such meagre proportions.

In 'Popular Tales from the Norse' we have an old friend in a new dress worthy of his exceptional character. Two men have been born collectors of popular tales; they were Jacob Grimm and P. C. Asbjörnsen. The tales of the people, viewed through the medium of their own minds, assumed a lovely form without losing any of their own individuality. Asbjörnsen's collection, like Grimm's, has become a classic, and its scientific value is as high as its literary worth. Dasent's translation is worthy of the original, and cannot be too highly praised. The introduction, on the origin and diffusion of popular tales, is left as in the second edition, and the reader will find in it no hint of the interesting theory of Mr. Andrew Lang.

The vein that Mr. Harris opened to the public in his inimitable 'Uncle Remus' continues to be worked—with greater interest, we must confess, to the student of folk-lore than to the general reader. Mr. Harris knew, like Grimm and Asbjörnsen, how to impart a literary form to his stories without impairing their original worth. Of the ten stories given by Fortier, none are comparable in the telling to Mr. Harris's, though four correspond more or less to versions in 'Uncle Remus' (i, ii, iv, vi='Uncle Remus' ii, iv; xv, xx; xx, xxxiv; and vi). No. v is a version of the "Forty Thieves" (episode of the cave opening at the word *sesame*); No. vii is Jones's 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast' xxxviii; No. viii is like the story in Bleek's 'Reynard the Fox in South Africa,' page 16, and Jones's xli; No. ix is a version of the widespread story of "Dr. Knowall" (Grimm, No. 98); and No. x is the story of the transformation of a woman into a monkey. The most interesting of the series is the first, which is a version of the "Wonderful Tar-Baby Story" of "Uncle Remus," but one which proves conclusively the South African origin of it. In Prof. Fortier's version, there is a great drought in the land, and the animals dig a well to obtain water. Compair Lapin refuses to work, on the ground that rabbits do not drink water. He is forbidden to use the well, breaks the command, and evades detection until caught by the "Tar-Baby." Now, a version almost exactly similar is found in the *Folk-Lore Journal*, edited by the working committee of the South African Folk-Lore Society, volume i, page 69; the only difference being that the jackal takes the place of the rabbit and is caught by the tortoise, whose back is covered with a sticky substance from the bee-hive, and who is stationed in the well or pond just on the level of the water, so that the jackal steps on him and sticks fast. Prof. Fortier has added to his stories some interesting Proverbs, Sayings, and Songs. The texts are given in the original dialect, with translation and philological notes, the whole forming a very valuable contribution both to the Creole dialect and to American folk-lore.

Some years ago a writer in the *Nation* (February 23, 1871) called attention to the identity of an Amazonian story, "The Tortoise that outran the Deer," with one found among the negroes of South Carolina. Since then a number of animal stories from the Amazons have been published by the late Prof. Hartt ('Amazonian Tortoise Myths,' Rio de Janeiro, 1875), and Mr. Herbert Smith ('Brazil, the Amazons, and the Coast,' New York, 1879), eight of which are to be found in 'Uncle Remus.' Two explanations of this striking resemblance are possible—one, that the Indians on the Amazons obtained their stories from the African slaves of Brazil; the other, that both Indians and slaves originated them independently. Any collection of Brazilian folk-lore that will throw any light on this interesting question is most welcome. M. Nery has made a very readable little book out of the popular poetry, legends, and fables of Brazil, without, however, any pretension to scientific treatment. Comparatively little is new among the animal stories. The author has himself collected three tortoise myths; the others (nine in number) were gathered by Hartt, Roméro, and Smith. No. 3, "Le Jaboty et le Cerf," is Harris's "Mr. Rabbit finds his match at last"; No. 8 is Harris's "Mr. Rabbit grossly deceives Mr. Fox." The tar-baby story finds an echo in "Le singe et el Mannequin de Cire," where a wax image is put in a tree to keep the birds away from the oranges. The monkey takes the figure for a living being and asks for an orange. Just then the wind blows one down. Then the monkey asks for another, and, not receiving it, throws stones at the figure. The stones stick fast, and then the monkey climbs the tree and attacks the figure, with the result that both fall out of the tree and the monkey receives a good bruising.

In accordance with the most recent theory of mythology, we might define Folk-Lore as the views of primitive man in regard to the world by which he is surrounded. The various kingdoms of nature have all been the object of his simple study, and about them has gathered a mass of popular belief of vast extent and diversity. The animal kingdom has already been the subject of a systematic examination by Prof. De Gubernatis ('Zoölogical Mythology,' London, 1872, 2 vols.), who has also extended his researches into the mythology of the vegetable kingdom ('La Mythologie des Plantes,' Paris, 1878–82, 2 vols.). Limited portions of the latter field have also been treated by many others, notably by Mannhardt in Germany. These works, however, were either attempts to explain the origin of the beliefs by certain theories of mythology, or they were elaborate collections of materials. From none could a methodical view of the whole field be obtained unbiassed by the writer's hobby. For this reason Mr. Dyer's book is all the more welcome—a work as admirable in its conception as in its execution.

His object is to give a brief systematic summary of the various branches of the folk-lore of plants. This he does in twenty-three chapters, beginning with the notions of plant life, and ending with certain mystic plants (hellebore, mandrake, etc.). Between these two extremes may be found every phase of popular belief concerning plants, their virtues as medicine and love-charms, their names and language, their use in ceremonies and in proverbs, their relations to the weather and the calendar, their sacred character and worship—in short, all the forms of superstition which have clustered about the vegetable kingdom. Mr. Dyer has full control of his material, and illustrates each point sufficiently. His examples are drawn from all quarters of the globe, although naturally English plant-lore is most fully represented. The author is well acquainted with the literature of his subject, although he does not seem to know the work of De Gubernatis cited above. He wisely abstains from theories of the origin of plant-lore, and leaves the reader to explain it as he will by reference to solar mythology or survival of savagery. The result is a book delightful to the general reader, and not devoid of scientific value.

We have left ourselves but scant space to speak of Mr. Mills's book, evidently a work of love, on which great pains and care have been lavished. It is in the nature of a general treatise upon mythology, strictly from the standpoint of Müller, Cox, and De Gubernatis, whose exaggerated theories of the solar myth Mr. Mills accepts implicitly. He is, however, acquainted with Mr. Tylor's works, and at times has a glimpse of a theory more rational than that of Cox; yet it is but a glimpse, and the reader will infer that there can be but one explanation of mythology, namely, that based upon the ever-recurring change of night and day or the seasons. Although Mr. Mills's work makes no original contribution to the subject of mythology, and is somewhat rambling in its method, it contains much interesting information, and is likely to foster an inte-

rest in a subject worthy of study at all times, and just now rather fashionable.

The Constitutional History and Government of the United States: A Series of Lectures by Judson S. Landon, LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

THE lectures of which this book consists were delivered before the senior classes of Union College during the four years in which the author was President *ad interim*. They aim rather at an expository and narrative treatment of well-established facts than at originality; indeed, the ground has been so thrashed over that the latter quality is hardly to be expected. Mr. Landon's style is clear and simple, and if at times slightly colloquial, this is perhaps explained by the fact that the book was not prepared as a treatise, but grew up out of more or less informal "conferences" with pupils. This may account, also, for a certain hastiness of statement which mars passages of the work here and there. To say of Washington that he was "not an educated man" may, in a certain sense, be true, but it is at least misleading unless accompanied by a good deal more explanation than we get. "Not an educated man" is, among educated men, a term of severe criticism. We might apply it without hesitation to the late John Kelly or even to the late Andrew Johnson; but when we hear the seniors of Union College informed curtly that Washington was not an educated man, we receive a shock of that sort of surprise which produces laughter. We feel inclined to beg at least for a suspension of sentence until we know exactly what an educated man would have been towards the close of the last century—in the estimation of the author. So it is rather a hasty way of writing in a treatise of this kind to say of Franklin that, "could he have been the companion of Solomon, Aristotle, and Bacon, he would have analyzed their wisdom and philosophy—universal expert as he was—and given them such suggestions as would have made them his debtors." No doubt he would, and no doubt he was able to do so without being their companion at all; but this is certainly not a felicitous way of impressing upon us either the wisdom of Franklin or the judicial nicety of the author.

A publicist runs considerable risks when he stereotypes the flowing and familiar discourse of a lecturer to college students into a constitutional treatise. But we find other evidences of the author's haste. He has a theory of the constitutional development of the United States which he seems to think is so generally adopted, or so necessarily true, that it may be laid down without proof, or even against the evidence. This is, that in the period between the inauguration of Jefferson and the outbreak of the rebellion, the growing strength of the national Government, which burst upon the world like a revelation in 1861, was the work of the Supreme Court. His opinion appears to be that, during this interregnum, the executive and legislative parts of the Government went to sleep, while the Supreme Court went on consolidating, unifying, and strengthening the Government. That we may do him no injustice, we quote:

"I shall show hereafter that the Supreme Court of the United States grew to be great, but every other department failed to develop into anything like a dominant and controlling factor in the nation's life. The Constitution was so construed in times of peace as to stand constantly in the way of everything except the merely routine work. Great struggles and great debates there were in Congress, but as a general rule the do-nothing policy, both at home and abroad, prevailed. Whenever any question arose between the nation and the States, the States usually had their power and jurisdiction conceded, except indeed when the question was brought into the Supreme Court" (p. 133).

This theory flies in the face of the historical record which the author gives immediately after stating it. Neither the *laissez-faire* theories of the Jeffersonian school, nor the State-rights theories of politicians of the later Southern school, interfered with the steady growth of nationalism in Congress or the executive, any more than it did in the judicial branch. Jefferson himself purchased Louisiana, while doubting the constitutionality of the act, thus giving the first impetus to the enormous territorial expansion which is partly the key to the subsequent development of national strength; the war of 1812, if it did not seem at the time to redound very much to the national glory, established the position of the country as a naval power; the Hartford Convention ended in smoke; the Monroe Doctrine made its appearance; Protection consolidated the great manufacturing interests of the country behind the national bulwark of the tariff; Andrew Jackson baffled the schemes of the nullifiers; Texas was appropriated, the Mexican war waged; and, finally, through all this period the slaveholders, while preaching State rights, were at the same time, like shrewd politicians, consolidating the national powers in their own interest. The period was not one of what the author calls "Jeffersonian doze," but of great activity in every department; and this, when the crisis came, showed itself at once in the immense rising against the South's pretensions. No doubt it seemed at the time that the party of State rights were making great headway; but in any retrospect now it is impossible not to see that the original Confederacy was all the time being consolidated into a powerful state, with all its pride, conscious vitality, and aspirations for greatness. Exactly what part the Supreme Court played in all this, we would not undertake to say, but it is remarkably unsafe to insist that it was by the decrees of a judicial tribunal, however great, that such a consummation was brought about.

In the last chapter, the author discusses a question raised by Mr. Bryce's recent treatise—how it is that our system seems less and less fertile in great public men. He agrees with Mr. Bryce that the fact is so; that while, in the leading western European nations, government is carried on by a class of men who represent the best ability, character, and education which the state produces, in the United States men of this type are for the most part not found in politics. Does this show a danger to the system, or not? The author takes the optimistic view that, our Government being one of law constitutionally expounded by judges, we can get along with second-rate politicians when another country could not. To this the reply would be that it is not a question of getting along, but whether the character of our politicians does not imply a decadence in government which must show itself in their work. To our minds, it is an axiom that second-rate men must produce second-rate work; and to say that we get along very well on the whole with politics in their present condition, is rather a proof that we flourish in spite of this feature of our Government, and that, if we could command a higher order of political ability, we should flourish infinitely more. You cannot get figs from thistles, and when you admit that a system does not produce statesmen, you admit that in so far it is diseased. Examine into the causes, and a cure may be found; but to say that we need no cure, or that there are some other things in some other country just as bad (a favorite mode of meeting difficulties of this sort), may do very well for the stump, but not for sober discussion.

The narrative portion of the work is well, if not always accurately done, and the chapters on the Supreme Court give a compendious account of its more important decisions.

A Concise Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer's Iliad. By Thomas D. Seymour. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1889.

THERE are men who are old enough to remember when the chief apparatus of the schoolboy consisted of the grammar and the dictionary. In rare instances "Lempriere" was added to the outfit; but that was all. Now, when a young fellow leaves school for college, he has made a large collection of text-books—first books, second books, third books, grammars of several degrees of strength, exercises proportioned to every stage of development, helps to this, aids to that, introductions to the other. There is no use in quarrelling with this state of things. It is a manifestation of a general system of subdivision such as we find in the modern method of gymnastic training. The old plan of dictionary and grammar is gone with the old plan of dog and gun, and the only thing we have to see to is that the apparatus is good and cheap.

The last piece of classical apparatus we have seen has the warrant of its goodness in its maker's name. Prof. Seymour knows his Homer, and his 'Concise Vocabulary to the First Six Books of Homer' may be trusted. The special interest, however, of the little book lies in the very strong indication which it gives of a need that has arisen out of the advanced scholarship of the day. In the old days of dictionary and grammar, boys used to read more of Homer than they have done since the appearance of Anthon's edition. It is a melancholy fact that the fewest young college men—even of those who are especially addicted to Greek—have read Iliad and Odyssey from A to Ω. They have so much to do with the dialect, the versification, and the Homeric Question that they have not had the time to read Homer in those long stretches that are needful for any true enjoyment of the great poems. To meet this want, Homer readings have been instituted—some of them eminently successful—in which gifted professors translate Homer to admiring circles. But this is not sailing on the ocean of the epic in any true sense. At best one is a passenger, not a mariner, and men must read for themselves, not be read to—must hold the tiller and handle the ropes, if they are to understand the true zest of the voyage.

Now, the difficulty is the vocabulary—a difficulty of the imagination, it is said; but seasickness is a trouble of the imagination, and no less real on that account. It is well enough to say that any student who will resolutely go to work will find the trouble of the vocabulary disappearing. Many words, at first strange, are repeated so often that they become familiar after a short time, and the hardest words being still crosses, still *x*'s to the etymologists, may be counted out; so that between the recurring words and the inexplicable words the student finds that he is making rapid progress, and can read first one, then two, then three books at a sitting. But resolute students, like resolute seamen and resolute swimmers, are not common, and the pedagogic mind of to-day says, "Abandon the moral question and make the thing as easy as possible. Turning over the leaves of a dictionary is a nuisance without

any corresponding advantage. Let us make the work as light as may be, knowing that if the boy has once read his first six books of the 'Iliad,' he will find the other eighteen comparatively easy work."

To this good end the 'Concise Vocabulary' has been devised, and with the aid of such a compact manual it is supposed that the learner will have little trouble in getting at the sense, or what Prof. Seymour takes to be the sense, of the words in their connection. Prof. Seymour's understanding of the first six books of the 'Iliad' is as good a sense as boys are entitled to, and they are saved the trouble of picking out the proper meaning from the tangled mass of the larger lexicon, or even the Homeric Dictionary. But if we are to make this part of the work so much easier, why not follow a plan which has been tried in Germany—that of putting the vocabulary in the order of the verses, as Scheindler has recently done? To be sure, this is perilously like an interlinear translation; but an interlinear translation is not a bad thing, if there is no repetition, and if the student is steadily referred to the place in which the words first occur. Indeed, among many methods of mastering the vocabulary of a language, few are practically better than this; and if the teacher punishes the student, or the student punishes himself, for forgetfulness by assigning as a task the committing to memory of the verses in which the forgotten words occur, the attention will be much quickened. That Prof. Seymour's plan has some advantages we are not disposed to deny. Still, as has been suggested above, it is open to the objection that all ready made learning has, and the intellectual fibre will not be so tough as it became in the old way. Some day the student must pass from the 'Concise Vocabulary' to the special dictionary, perhaps even to the great 'Lexicon Homericum,' and the disillusionment that is sure to follow will perhaps make him abandon his Homeric studies in disgust.

The Annual Statistician for 1889. San Francisco: L. P. McCarty.

MUCH industry is evidently employed in collecting and compiling information for this work, but so long as it is not edited with more intelligence than has hitherto been expended upon it, it can never become the standard reference annual which its publisher evidently thinks it already is. If an American statistical publication cannot be depended upon to state correctly the number of Representatives in the Congress of the United States, it is not easy to imagine in what respects it can be relied upon. Yet on page 119 it is said that the total number of the Representatives in the Fifty-first Congress is 334, of whom 172 are Republicans and 162 are Democrats. The list of Representatives published on pages 118 and 119 contains only 325, the correct number, of whom 166, including the Representatives from the Third and Fourth West Virginia Districts (in which districts certificates have recently been issued to the Democratic candidates) are designated as Republicans, and 159 as Democrats. How the number 334 was obtained we do not know. Even if the eight Territorial delegates were added to the true number of Representatives, the total would be only 333.

In his advertisement the publisher of the 'Statistician' claims that in no other similar publication has the information been corrected down to so late a date as was that which it contains. On page 33 appears the act of 1792 designating what officers shall act as President in the event of the death, resignation, or inability of both the President and Vice-President, and fixing the day for the meeting of the electoral colleges. A footnote directs the reader to the index for a reference to the act of 1886, which substitutes the Secretary of State, and after him the other Cabinet ministers in order, in place of the President of the Senate, and after him the Speaker of the House, as the officer to discharge the duties of the President in the event of the death, resignation, or inability of both President and Vice-President. But there is no hint that the remaining portion of the old act of 1792 has been in great part repealed, and that the electoral colleges now meet in January and not as formerly in December.

Most well-informed persons know that in the United States generally the law places fewer obstacles in the way of early marriages than it does in almost any European country. The table on page 307 which purports to give the "marriage age" in different countries, states that in the United States it is 21 for males and 18 for females, while, according to the same table, in Spain, Greece, Portugal, and Switzerland, and among the Catholic population of Hungary, it is 14 for males and 12 for females, in Austria 14 for both sexes, in Germany 18 for males and 14 for females, in Belgium and France and among the Protestant population of Hungary it is 18 for males and 15 for females, and in Russia and Saxony it is 18 for males and 16 for females. The editor of such a book as the 'Statistician' professes to be, ought to know in the first place that there is no such thing as "marriage age" for the United States as a whole, and that the age at which marriage may be lawfully contracted is a matter prescribed by State law, and that the laws of the different States name different ages; and secondly, that the ages he gives for the various countries of Europe are in most and probably in all cases the minimum ages at which minors may marry with the consent of their parents or guardians, while the age given for the United States is probably about the maximum required by any State for the issue of licenses to persons who have not the consent of their parents or guardians. Where the parents or guardians consent, or where they do not consent and the marriage is actually celebrated, whether without a license or with a license issued inadvertently or procured by fraud, the marriage will in many States be valid if the parties have attained the age required by the common law—namely, 14 for males and 12 for females.

Mistakes will happen in the most carefully edited of books as in the best regulated of families, but there are pardonable and unpardonable blunders. The errors we have referred to above are cited not as being by any means all we have noticed in a far from exhaustive examination of the book, but as strongly marked specimens of the kind of misstatements which would have surely been detected and corrected had the manuscript or the proof-sheets been subjected to careful and intelligent revision.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. Moral Order and Progress: An Analysis of Ethical Conceptions. London: Trübner & Co.
Archer, T. A. The Crusade of Richard I. 1189–92. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Balg, G. H. A Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German. Part VII. B. Westermann & Co.
Barham, R. H. The Ingoldsby Legends: or, Mirth and Marvels. Frederick Warne & Co. 75 cents.
De Quincey, T. Murder Considered as one of the Fine Arts. Three Memorable Murders. The Spanish Nun. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fiske, J. The War of Independence. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Goddard, F. B. The Art of Selling; also, Good Buying. Franklin Publishing Co.
Gray, M. The Reproach of Annesley. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Henley, W. E. A Book of Verses. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Horn, H. J. Painting as a Fine Art. J. W. Bouton.
Kemble, Frances Anne. Far Away and Long Ago. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Laing, S. The Heimskringla, or the Sagas of the Norse Kings. From the Icelandic of Snorre Sturlason. 2d ed., revised, with notes, by Rasmus B. Anderson. In 4 vols. Scribner & Welford. $20.
Littledale, R. F. The Petrine Claims: A Critical Inquiry. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Metcalf—Bright. Language Exercises. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Phin, J. An Exact Reprint of the Famous Century of Inventions of the Marquis of Worcester (first published in 1663). The Industrial Publication Society. $1.
Prévost, L'Abbé. The Story of Manon Lescaut and of the Chevalier des Grieux. From the edition of 1753. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Rae, W. F. Miss Bayle's Romance. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Renan, E. History of the People of Israel, from the Reign of David up to the Capture of Samaria. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Schaff, Prof. P. The Progress of Religious Freedom as Shown in the History of Toleration Acts. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Schipper, J. Englische Metrik, in historischer und systematischer Entwickelung dargestellt. B. Westermann & Co.
Scudder, H. E. George Washington. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Shields, Dr. C. W. Philosophia Ultima, or Science of the Sciences. Vol. II. The History of the Sciences and the Logic of the Sciences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.
Short, F. On the Making of Etchings. William Evarts Benjamin.
The Devil and I: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 6, 1889.

The Week.

Our readers will remember that we have dwelt somewhat upon the Norwich, Conn., Post-office case as being one of the most flagrant of the instances in which the President has violated his civil-service-reform pledges. On Monday an election was held in Norwich, and for the first time in its history the Democrats elected their entire municipal ticket, with the single exception of a candidate for Sheriff. The Republicans were completely routed, losing control of the City Council, though they had a number of hold-over members and only needed to elect one to maintain a majority. How much effect the Post-office change may have had in bringing about this result we do not know, but it is perfectly obvious that whatever other effect it had, it did not help the Republicans. If the President's distribution of spoils in other parts of the country is working as it has done in Norwich, the sooner he checks the Wanamaker-Clarkson guillotine in the Post-office Department, the better it will be for his party.

Mr. Roosevelt's plea for more money and larger powers for the Civil-Service Commission ought to be heeded by the next Congress. Whether it will be, is very doubtful. It has always been the delight of Congress to hamper the Commission as much as possible by giving it a very inadequate appropriation, and there are no encouraging signs of a change of disposition in this respect. The Administration is stirring itself with commendable promptness in regard to the needs of the New York Post-office, and a commission has been appointed to make inquiry as to those needs and the increase in appropriation necessary to meet them. In all probability the commission will recommend a large increase and Congress will grant it. The necessity for it has been growing steadily for the past eight years, but it has not been granted because there was at the head of the Post-office a civil-service reformer devoted absolutely to the public interest, and not at all to "politics." Now that his place has been filled with a "practical politician," the appropriation is forthcoming. Will the Administration take as much interest in the needs of the Civil-Service Commission as set forth by Mr. Roosevelt?

It is to be expected that the worsted-manufacturers, in anticipation of suits in court, will now begin to try to work a change in the trade name of *worsted* cloths, coatings, and suitings, and announce them as "*woollen* cloths," etc., but it is too late. What did the Congress sitting in 1883 intend, and what were the trade names in that year? Those to whom Congress spoke in the tariff of 1883 were, and are, the importers of and wholesale dealers in the imported coatings and suitings, not merely the dealers in the home-made article, which is never imported and never taxed. If Secretary Windom, or the draughtsman of his recent opinion, had taken up any commercial newspaper and glanced at articles on the dry-goods trade, or at auction sales, or at the advertisements of the coatings and suitings submitted to his inspection, he would have seen what name the wholesale trade now gives to them. In the New York *Commercial Bulletin* are such phrases as these: "Agents continued to make fair deliveries of heavy *worsted* suitings and trouserings"; "in *woollens* and *worsteds* few orders were placed." One house announces for sale the products of the "Wansback *Worsted* Mill" and the "Auburn *Woollen* Company." The Manchester Mills call attention to "*worsted* dress goods." John F. Plummer & Co. proclaim "*Worsteds*—fancies and coatings." Auctioneers say they will sell on a day mentioned "clothing, woollens and worsteds." Everywhere is the distinction made between "woollen cloths" and "worsted cloths." In order to prevent a manipulation of trade-names by importers, manufacturers, appraising officers, collecting officers, or Treasury officers, the courts confine the testimony respecting importing nomenclature to the date of the law under discussion. Harrison's victory over Cleveland cannot wipe out worsted or make worsted woollen, any more than it can make steel iron.

In a paragraph a fortnight ago, referring to a report from Consul Grinnell of Bradford, England, concerning the exportation of "broken wool tops" from that place to the United States, we spoke of this article as wool tops merely, which are different from broken tops in both the commercial and the legal sense. A woollen manufacturer sends us a description of tops, broken tops, slubbing, waste, and noils, all being products of wool. Tops are dutiable at sixty cents per pound and waste at ten cents per pound. Broken tops are the damaged parts of combed wool. They can be put through the combing process a second time, and made useful for nearly all purposes, or they can be treated as waste. If treated as waste, they are dutiable under our tariff at ten cents per pound. They can be made to resemble waste by mixing a small amount of genuine waste, commonly termed Botany waste, with it. Now, the point is, that under our beautiful tariff, which makes a difference of fifty cents per pound between two articles of nearly equal value, a large premium is offered to the Bradford combers for the manufacture of "waste" for the American market. Good wool is turned into "broken tops," and then a sufficient amount of Botany waste is mixed with it to make the whole of it waste. This is imported at a duty of ten cents per pound, to the supposed detriment and damnification of our wool-growers, and is converted into worsted goods by American manufacturers. The operation is akin to that which was exposed some years ago, when metal statuary was admitted at a lower rate of duty than the metal of which it was composed, the result being a remarkable importation of leaden Mercuries, Venuses, and Minervas, which were, immediately after passing the Custom-house, converted into pig-lead and plumbing materials. Millions of pounds of wool are converted into broken tops and then into waste for our market. Originally, says Consul Grinnell, "the tops were broken up by hand, but the enormous development of the shipments to the United States has caused, it is stated, machinery to be used for the purpose. The wool-combers, as a rule, will not lend themselves to the practice, but deliver the tops to the waste-dealers in the regular form, and the latter either break them or cause them to be broken up. The temptation to 'prepare' genuine tops here for entry into the United States as waste at ten cents per pound is very great, as may be judged when I mention that one of the larger firms in Bradford, of unquestionable reputation, informed me that they had been offered four cents per pound profit over their regular price for all the Botany waste they could supply."

Block Island's reputation as a summer resort has brought it into national prominence during the past ten or fifteen years, and it is visited each year now by people from all parts of the country. Few of these visitors see in the little neighborhood of 1,500 or 2,000 inhabitants anything more than a plain seafaring and fishing community, of primitive tastes and rather barren lives. Twenty years ago, in fact, the inhabitants of the island were remarkably primitive both in habits and knowledge. They went to church barefooted in the summer, and knew little of the outside world. The rapid development of their island into a summer resort has done much to introduce to them both the benefits and the abuses of civilization, but the influence which has been most revolutionary and harmful has been that of politics. This has not come from a portion of the outside world more remote than the mainland of the State of Rhode Island, to which their island belongs. The annual necessity of carrying Rhode Island in order to have the "moral effect" for the cause of protection in the land, has, as is notorious now, converted the entire State into more or less of a rotten borough; and from evidence which is now being taken in a contested-election case on Block Island, this primitive fishing community has had its morals debauched in the most wholesale manner.

At the last election on the island, the Republican legislative candidates were de-

clared victorious over their Democratic competitors. There is a total vote of about 300 on the island, and the Democrats usually have a majority of from fifty to eighty. A few years ago the Republicans discovered that, by the quiet investment of a few hundred dollars, they could surprise the enemy and carry Block Island. This led to counter-bidding by the Democrats, until practically the entire voting population has been educated to look upon election day as even a larger source of income than the "fees" from the summer-hotel guests, many of them getting for their votes more money than they had been able to earn for an entire year. At the legislative hearing which is now in progress, the Democratic contestant has introduced fifteen affidavits showing that Republican candidates and agents offered in cash from $25 to $50 for votes, and promised to pay, in return for votes, the yearly house-rents, to give steady employment for a year, to pay off mortgages, and to defray the expenses of pending lawsuits. Names and circumstances of the bribery are given in all cases, and the bartering appears to have been carried on in the most open manner.

Here are some of the statements of the affidavits as they are published in the Providence *Journal:*

"William K. Gorton deposed that he was approached by Sam Cook, registered as Warren Cook, who told him he was foolish if he did not vote the Republican ticket, as he didn't think he would have any trouble in getting $25 or $50. Subsequently Sam went to Gorton's house and said: 'You are not going back on our party, for if you will vote for us I will see that you get $50 or $60 and a job for the year.' William Hull told him that he thought he could get $50, and some $25. Nathaniel L. Sprague was approached by Frank Littlefield on election day, who offered to give him $45 for his vote. He saw Frank Littlefield give Amos Griffin $45, telling him to vote for him. Littlefield told deponent that his father would give him a year's house-rent if he would vote for him. Lorenzo Littlefield offered him $50 and house-rent for a year at Richard Dodge's place. Charley Mulls swore that he heard Lorenzo Littlefield offer Julius Smith first $50, and on refusal $50 more, if he would vote for Littlefield and Sheffield, and he saw Lorenzo pay Smith two $50 bills. One of the Sheffields went over to the Town Hall with him. Littlefield offered Manuel Allen $50 to vote for him, and paid him in the witness's presence."

The counter affidavits have not yet been presented, but they are said to number 200, and to show that the Democrats offered from $25 to $40 for votes, which was generally refused. It is estimated that the election cost the Republicans about $4,500 and the Democrats about $3,000. Nearly the entire voting population was bought to vote either in one way or the other.

There has been a rumor that Justice Miller of the Supreme Court was about to retire on a pension because of ill-health, but it is authoritatively denied. The country will be pleased to know that there is a good prospect of this able jurist's being able to render some years of faithful service yet, although he has entered upon his seventy-fourth year, and has been eligible to a pension for three years. Justice Miller is the senior member of the Supreme Bench in length of service, having been appointed by Lincoln in 1862, although Justice Bradley, who was appointed by Grant in 1870, is three years older. Justice Field, who was appointed by Lincoln in 1863, was born a few months later in the same year with Justice Miller. Three of the eight judges now serving on this bench are therefore past the age at which they might withdraw, and draw the same salary as hitherto for the remainder of their lives.

Judges as a rule are loath to give up work, even when a pension system offers temptations to a life of retirement. Justice Strong of the Supreme Court is the only man who availed himself of the privilege as soon as he had finished the requisite ten years of service in 1880, his age being then seventy-two. Justice Swayne held on until he was seventy-six. Chief-Justice Waite had the chance to retire more than a year before his death, but there is every reason to suppose that he would not have improved it for many years if he had lived. Doubtless there is an unconfessed hope on the part of many judges that they may rival the record of Justice Duval, who resigned in 1836, after a service of a quarter of a century, at the age of eighty-four, only on account of deafness, and of Chief-Justice Taney, who served twenty-eight years, and was in his eighty-eighth year when removed from the bench by death in 1864.

No child studies the geography of the United States without being struck by the apparent greed of Florida in having deprived Alabama of her just rights in the matter of a coast-line. Only about a quarter of Alabama's breadth is permitted to reach the Gulf of Mexico, and several counties which seem properly to belong to that State owe allegiance to Florida, Pensacola being the chief port and town in this corner of Florida. Alabama has always insisted that she ought to have this territory, and it looks as though the inhabitants would approve the change. At any rate, the two leading newspapers of Pensacola are openly advocating the annexation project. Eastern Florida naturally resents the idea. "It is painful," says the Jacksonville *Times-Union*, "to see Floridians utterly reckless of State pride, and we should be grieved to surrender our interest in west Florida." At the same time it admits that "if a majority of her people are willing to be sold, of course further objection would be useless," although it declares its own belief that not one in ten would vote for annexation.

The wiser Southerners perceive and confess that the only hope for the future of the negro is in education, although there are some who find it hard to realize this. The Statesville (N. C.) *Landmark*, for example, recently declared that the smattering of education which the negroes have received is exactly what makes the race question one of difficulty; while the Charlotte *Chronicle* affirmed that the negro has shown no improvement from his education since becoming a freeman. The Asheville *Citizen*, however, takes issue sharply with these views. While admitting that perhaps as a producer the negro is not what he was as a slave, it holds that this is not due to what little education he has gained since the war, but to the complete change in the system of labor and the general demoralization following the sudden emancipation of a densely ignorant race; and it believes that education will bring them back to and beyond their productiveness as slaves. Moreover, it finds already a noticeable improvement among them in appearance, in manners, in conversation, in morals; while the aggressive impertinence or sullen insubordination which characterized the race just after the war, is giving way to self-respecting courtesy, and in many instances to the dignity of freemen. Although the privilege of learning undoubtedly had some effect in making them contemptuous of the class of work to which they must look, they are rapidly learning that industrial proficiency is the better part of education. That these views of the *Citizen* are shared by the most intelligent Southerners, is proved by the fact that the General Assembly of the Southern Presbyterian Church accepts the declaration of the Northern Assembly that education is the true solution of the race problem, and has agreed to coöperate in the work.

It seems that the ground plan has been laid for an international Salt Trust composed of the English Salt Union and the leading American producers. Certain representatives of the latter have just returned from England, and they announce that they have arranged to "control the imported salt" as well as to make salt here. The reason assigned for this combination is, that "the salt industry is almost crippled by the wholesale dumping of English salt in New York and other Eastern ports, and by the rivalry between small manufacturers and dealers, who have been actively cutting each other's throats by low prices without doing any good to themselves or the consumer." All of which means that the public are to be deprived of the benefit of competition in the procurement of another article of prime necessity, and subjected to the tender mercies of a monopoly. Of course all the talk about the crippling of the salt industry in this country by the "dumping" of English salt on our market is a lie, the duty on salt in bulk being upwards of 79 per cent. ad valorem. The whole mess of complicated falsehood was exposed by Representative Whiting of Michigan in the last Congress. Mr. Whiting is himself a salt-manufacturer. He said that there was no need of any tariff on salt, and he voted to put it on the free list. We shall watch with lively interest the movements of this new craft flying the black flag.

The vagaries of protectionism in France are full of interest. The French butchers have borrowed an idea from the noble guild

on our side of the water. Although foreign meat is taxed a little more than one cent per pound, it comes in from Germany and Belgium in refrigerator cars in large quantities. So the French butchers have asked the Government to require the inspection of the meat, under the sanitary laws, to take place at the boundary. Heretofore it has taken place at the gates of the cities where it is to be consumed. At the boundaries the facilities for inspection and the force employed are small. There will be delay and expense, and possibly the meat may become stale and fly-blown by taking it out of the cool and dark chambers in which it is carried and then putting it back. At all events the butchers were allowed to have their way. The Chambers voted by 318 to 184 in favor of "urgency" for the consideration of the measure. It is said that contracts have been made for the carcasses of 250,000 sheep from Germany to be supplied to Paris during the exhibition, and that the urgency of the matter is to prevent the visitors from getting this mutton.

Another demand for protection—this time the city against the country, not domestic labor against foreign—has been made by the Paris washerwomen against the "pauper labor" of the suburbs. "They allege," says the Paris correspondent of the London *Economist*, "that, labor and rent being cheaper in the suburbs, a tax is necessary to enable them to compete with the suburban laundresses." The same writer continues:

"The most extravagant pretension is, however, that put forward by the directors of theatres and proprietors of cafés and restaurants in Paris, who ask the Government to close the exhibition at least three nights a week, in order to constrain the public and visitors to pass the evenings in their establishments. The demand was so preposterous that one is surprised to read that the Ministers gravely discussed it in a Cabinet council, and instead of boldly replying to a deputation that the request was absurd and unreasonable, evaded a refusal by explaining that the Direction of the Exhibition would be exposing itself to claims for damages, as a condition of the letting of space in the building and grounds for places of public entertainment was that the grounds should remain open during the evening. The petitioners were thus left under the impression that the Government might have acceded to their demand had it been able."

Bastiat's petition of the candle-makers that all people be required by law to close their shutters and keep out the sunlight in order to make business for dealers in tallow and oil, candlesticks and snuffers, will be the next thing on the carpet.

The French Government is much concerned at the increase in French emigration to South America, particularly to the Argentine Republic. No less than 17,105 Frenchmen sailed for that country in 1888, as against only about 5,000 in 1886. This is peculiarly trying to the Ministry in view of the comparative failure of the efforts to induce colonists to go to Algeria and Cochin China. The Minister of the Interior, M. Constans, directed a circular letter to all the prefects of France on April 18, urging them to put intending emigrants on their guard against the illusory promises held out to them by the agents of foreign countries. He speaks with considerable justice of the dubious prospect necessarily before the larger part of the emigrants to the Argentine Republic, destined to be set down in the midst of the vast uncultivated areas of the interior, under obligation to the Argentine Government or to emigration companies for their passage money, exposed to the probability of a fall in the price of labor and to the uncertainties of a fluctuating paper currency, and with no chance of becoming owners of land except as metayers. The prefects are ordered to press these facts upon the attention of the people generally, as also to proceed with the greatest severity against emigration agents who are not duly authorized. They are also to enlist the help of village authorities in the attempt to diminish emigration, getting the latter to discourage to the utmost intending emigrants who apply for the necessary passports and papers. It will be interesting to observe the effect of these vigorous measures; it does not seem possible that they can fail of accomplishing much of their aim.

It is not at all probable that the Government of France intends to burn its fingers by meddling with the affairs of Hayti. Any reader of Spencer St. John's 'Black Republic,' or any recent visitor to the island, or anybody acquainted with the social condition of those West India Islands in which the blacks are the largely preponderating mass of the population, knows that the task of bringing order and civilization into that community would prove herculean. Every such person knows also that a commercial treaty embodying special privileges to one country could not be enforced unless the country having the treaty should land a force there and administer the custom-houses—in short, take possession of the island. This would be like grasping a wasps'-nest or laying claim to a smallpox hospital. No civilized country could afford to expend its energies in such an endeavor. France sacrificed millions of treasure and tens of thousands of lives to hold Hayti, and failed in the end. She is as little likely now to put her hand on her ancient colony as she would be to seize a red-hot poker. The lessons of the past and the present are equally instructive to us. We had better take all the Antilles to our bosom and fireside than to take Hayti alone. If we could see reasons moving us to annex the whole lot, and if no obstacle interfered with the purpose, it would still be a sufficient objection that we should have to provide for the government and civilization of Hayti.

Through cable despatches to Cuban newspapers we get our earliest detailed accounts of the recent crisis in the Spanish Ministry. It was only the breaking out of an opposition to Sagasta within his own party, or rather the fusion of parties owning his leadership, which has long been threatened. The immediate cause of the rupture was the defeat of the proposition to increase the duties on cereals. At the time of voting on the bill, May 23, a great disturbance took place in the Chamber, the President, Martos, actually leaving the chair to vote against his party, while Gamazo and his little band of protectionist Liberals, seeing that the measure was destined to defeat, refrained from voting altogether. To these disaffected Liberals, it was publicly understood that Gens. Cassola and Dominguez, with Romero Robledo, had joined themselves, and that they could muster about fifty votes against the Government. They proposed to join the Conservatives in demanding a vote on the Administration bill to grant universal suffrage before discussing the estimates, and counted on ousting Sagasta on that issue. The situation was so critical that the resignation of the Ministry was generally looked for. Sagasta, however, chose to stave things off for a month at least, and secured the Queen Regent's assent to a decree suspending the sessions of the Cortes. It is expected that that body will be assembled again early in July, and it will then appear whether Sagasta has been able to make combinations assuring the continuance of his Administration. The outlook for him is certainly most stormy.

Longevity extraordinary can certainly be claimed for the inhabitants of Chili, if the Chilian census of 1885 is to be believed. From the statistics there presented it would appear that nearly 500 persons, out of a total of 2,500,000, are upwards of a hundred years old. This proportion is perhaps not too great, but the astonishing ages recorded put a strain on the strongest credulity. One man coolly returned his age as 150, and this would make it very probable that he is, as the editor of the census remarks, the oldest man in the world. Next after him comes a woman aged 138; two women and one man report themselves as 135; 132, 130, and 127 each have a representative, while there are seven 125 years old. Below that age the numbers mount rapidly, showing twenty-eight persons of the age of 120, twenty-seven aged 115, and no less than ninety-one aged 110. Of course, this is all deliciously absurd. The returns carry their own discrediting on their face, with their marked preference for the decades and half-decades—twenty-eight, for example, set down at 120, while but two are given to 119, and only one to 117; ninety-one put at 110, while but eleven reach 109. If this does not mean a fuddled memory vaguely feeling after a big figure best capable of expressing a belief that one must be very old not to remember things more clearly, then the indications are misleading. Our own census bears witness to the untrustworthiness of the testimony of the ignorant as to their age; but 2 out of 100,000 white persons giving their ages as above 100, while 45 out of 100,000 colored persons claim that distinction. The surprising thing is not to find Chilian Indians making themselves rivals of Thomas Parr, but to find Chilian census officers gravely accepting the impossible figures.

AMENDING THE TARIFF.

To make an interesting subject for popular instruction out of the Treasury decision on worsteds and woollens is no easy task. It seems to be a duty, however, to make the attempt. There is a purpose, we think, in the councils of the tariff oligarchy to rely hereafter upon Treasury decisions, rather than acts of Congress, for such amendments of the law as time and the progress of invention make necessary for their purposes. The reason why they should seek "relief" in that quarter, rather than in Congress, is that a tariff bill is a very risky thing. Whatever it may happen to be in the beginning, there is no knowing what it will be in the end. There are so many people to be consulted, there are so many conflicting and varying interests to grapple with, there are so many dark corners and dark lanterns, so many tangled bushes and gopher-holes to throw people down unexpectedly, that he must be a bold man who will take his chances on a new tariff if there is any other way to get what he wants. Moreover, the protected Trusts, which now constitute the largest force in the tariff oligarchy, are opposed to any measure which will bring them under discussion. What they want is security and silence. Any bill to change the tariff, even so simple a one as to abolish the distinction between woollens and worsteds, would necessarily be open to amendment. Anybody might move to put sugar, or copper, or white lead, or cotton bagging, or binding-twine on the free list. Perhaps some of these amendments would hold and be carried through. At all events, they would lead to discussion, and that is distinctly not wanted. If there is any way to change the tariff from time to time in particular places—to cut a hole in the shoe when it pinches too hard as the foot grows—that is much the safest procedure.

Now, in order to understand the worsted decision, the following things must be kept in mind:

(1.) That the law makes a distinction between woollens and worsteds, the same as it does between wool and hair or between iron and steel.

(2.) That it makes a distinction between "enumerated articles" and "non-enumerated articles."

(3.) That the phrase "enumerated articles" has been judicially determined to imply a designation sufficient to distinguish the articles in question from other articles, and that it is not necessary that they should be specifically mentioned. Thus, for instance, it has been held, and it is the law to-day, that the words "manufactures of which steel is a component part" are sufficient to put *all* such manufactures into the list of "enumerated articles," and that it is not necessary for this purpose to say steel rails, steel blooms, steel wire, etc. The case which establishes this principle is that of Arthur vs. Butterfield, decided by the Supreme Court on August 19, 1888.

Now, let us test the worsted decision by these principles. The Tariff Act of 1883 says that "*all* manufactures of *every description* composed wholly or in part of worsted, the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals, except such as are composed in part of wool, not specially enumerated or provided for in this act," shall pay a certain rate of duty. The Treasury decision lifts out of this category and this section of the law certain manufactures of worsted, namely, coatings and suitings, and puts them into another section where the duty is higher. Under the Supreme Court's decision referred to, these are "enumerated articles," just as much as if the law had said "flannels, blankets, *coatings, suitings,* and all manufactures of worsted."

If these coatings and suitings were made wholly of goat's hair or cow's hair—material that never saw a sheep's back—the reasoning employed would require that they should be lifted and transferred from one section and schedule into another, because the law couples worsted and hair in the same designation. And as if this were not sufficient to make the meaning plain, it says that if *wool* enters into the composition of the article, in however minute a degree, it shall go into another schedule. Here we have a clear perception on the part of the law that there is a difference between woollen goods on the one side and worsted and hair goods on the other. As a matter of chemistry there is no difference between the three things. Hair is shown by analysis to be the same as wool, and wool the same as hair, just as the diamond and charcoal and black lead are shown to be chemically the same.

The contention of the woollen-manufacturers adopted by the Treasury is, that if a "cloth" is produced from worsted, it was not intended to be charged with a lower rate of duty than woollen cloth, since it answers the same purposes as woollen cloth. It produces, they say, an incongruity in the tariff, and the law should be so construed as to take the incongruity out of it. Now the tariff is full of incongruities. In the nature of things it must be. Only the eye of omniscience could make a tariff covering thousands of articles, ranging from the lowest raw materials to the highest finished product, without incongruities. The question is whether it is the province of the Treasury officers to eliminate incongruities. An affirmative answer virtually takes the taxing power away from Congress and vests it in the Secretary, because he is to decide first whether there is an incongruity, and then what steps should be taken to eliminate it. He might put hair-cloth into the schedule of wire-cloth if he found it incongruous to keep them apart. That we are not far from this latitude of interpretation may be inferred from the following paragraph at the end of the decision:

> "The familiar maxim should be applied that 'a thing within the intention is within the statute, though not within the letter, and a thing within the letter is not within the statute unless within the intention.'"

Taking this maxim as a rule for executive action, no rate of duty or classification can be considered sufficiently stable for business purposes. Why, for instance, should not the Secretary rule that iron ore is subject to the same tax as lead ore, or that iron ore *is* lead ore? Fortunately, we have judicial tribunals in the land as well as taxing officers, and we are convinced that they will make short work of this Treasury ruling when it comes before them. The trouble is, that much time must pass before it can be brought to a hearing. The parties interested in the ruling will interpose delays. Heavy bills will run against the Government for extortionate assessment of duties. The public will pay two prices for worsted cloths. They will pay an increased price as consumers, in consequence of the new tax, and as taxpayers they will eventually refund to the importers principal and interest of the excess taken from them. This is an old story. Tariff bills have been deliberately "doctored" during their passage for the purpose of making litigation. The getting up of refunds is a branch of law-practice, and not an unprofitable one. Of course the taxpayers foot all the bills in the end. Fleecing the public goes on with regularity and in a thousand unseen ways.

It would exceed the limits of this article to go through the Secretary's decision seriatim. Much space is given to the contention that these coatings and suitings are not worsted at all. But it is a part of the literature of the subject that Mr. John L. Hayes, a member of the Tariff Commission of 1883, and an expert, conceded in his argument that worsted cloth was well known in 1883. It was made in New England as early as 1869 from worsted yarn spun near Philadelphia. Mr. Hayes conceded, further, that it was generally and specifically known in 1883 as "worsted coating and suiting." The truth is, that in 1883 nobody imagined that worsted coatings and suitings would ever be made at a lower cost than 80 cents per pound. There was where Mr. Hayes and Mr. Whitman and the rest of the tariff-tinkers made their mistake. Now they want Mr. Windom to correct it for them *nunc pro tunc*, and he has been weak enough to do so.

In conclusion, we ask particular attention to the following words in the decision—words which might have some relevancy if they were a true citation from the law, viz.:

> "In determining the questions involved, regard should also be had to the provisions of section 2499—that if two or more rates of duty should be applicable to *any imported article*, it shall be classified for duty under the highest of such rates."

Now, there is no such provision in section 2499 of this or any other law. Section 2499 says that "if any *non-enumerated* article equally resembles two or more *enumerated* articles on which different rates of duty are chargeable, there shall be levied, collected, and paid on such *non-enumerated* article the same rate of duty as is chargeable on the article which it resembles, paying the highest rate of duty." Worsted cloths being "enumerated articles" under the Supreme Court's decision in Arthur vs. Butterfield—*i. e.*, being embraced in the words "*all* manufactures of *every description* composed wholly or in part of worsted"—section 2499 has no reference to them.

STOCK EXCHANGE QUOTATIONS.

THE action of the Stock Exchange in removing all "tickers" from their room, and

cutting off the whole world from the customary knowledge of the range of prices of securities—a knowledge which has become necessary to the transaction of many kinds of business—is undoubtedly aimed at the Consolidated Exchange, a rival organization. The Consolidated Exchange, up to this time, has depended upon the Stock Exchange for the true quotations of the securities which are mostly traded in. Since there cannot be two quotations for the same thing, in the same market, at the same time, the trading body which has the larger capital, credit, and business will necessarily make the quotations, and any rival must be guided by those quotations. It would be ruinous for the smaller concern to be buying and selling Western Union, for example, half a point above or below the transactions taking place at the larger one. The essential thing about a quotation is, that any amount of securities within reach can be bought or sold at the figure named. This is the only significance of a quotation to business men. But this condition of things—namely, ability to take or to supply all the stock afloat at the given figure—can only exist at the financial centre of gravity. If trading is going on somewhere else in convenient proximity at different figures, the larger body can swamp the smaller one, or "scoop" it, in very short order.

Now we think the Stock Exchange has the legal right to exclude the public from its place of business. If so, it has the right to exclude reporters and telegraph operators. It has the right, also, to regulate business within its walls, subject to the rule that all persons not members shall be treated alike. This latter qualification has been established judicially in Illinois, and will probably hold good everywhere, since it is in harmony with the current and growth of law, although the Stock Exchange cannot be considered a "common carrier." The questions of most importance, however, are not legal, but economical. Will the Stock Exchange gain more than it will lose by boycotting the Consolidated, when the act boycotts the public as well? This is a serious question, and can only be answered experimentally; but we think it will soon be apparent to the members of the Stock Exchange, if it has not already become so, that a great mistake has been made in banishing the "tickers" from their precincts. The ticker has become a necessary part of financial life in all parts of the country. The credit system hinges upon it. Lending and borrowing take place in Chicago, St. Paul, and New Orleans, as well as in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, on the faith of the ticker. To abolish this instrument, now that it has become indispensable to the daily life of trade, is simply impossible. If it is banished from the Stock Exchange, it will establish itself elsewhere in the shortest possible time, and business will rally round it regardless of the names of the people who control it, provided only that they are honest and responsible men. Honest and responsible men will hasten to any place where money is to be honestly made. It looks to us, therefore, as though the Stock Exchange had deliberately thrown away the best piece of machinery ever devised to bring grist to its mill.

But it is said that they will restore the ticker in their own way. They will make it a private and not a public ticker. They will serve their own members and such bankers as will agree to keep the ticker in a closet where nobody else can see it. We hope that nothing so foolish as this is in contemplation. Setting aside the impossibility of keeping secret a thing which is flying about in a hundred different directions, and which has a large pecuniary value, what view will the stock-trading public take of a measure which avowedly requires them to do business in the dark? At present all are on an equality as regards knowledge of prices and amounts of stock transactions. Nobody suspects for a moment that he can be deceived as to these fundamental things, or that anybody else can get the start of him. Buyers and sellers in Boston or Chicago are on as good footing as those in New York. Business exists by virtue of this fact.

Now let us see what will be the effect of the system of "pushing the pad," or the system of private tickers. No customer can rely upon the information he gets unless he is personally present in the office of his broker. Even then he must take the broker's word for it, which he may not always feel inclined to do. The customer always wants to save the one-eighth or one-quarter per cent. at which the market price stands at a particular moment. Especially he wants to know that he is not cheated out of it. The ticker is his guarantee that both due diligence and fair play have been used in executing his order. Strike out of the business all the orders that are due solely to the knowledge the ticker conveys and the confidence it breeds, and the balance, we venture to say, will not support half as many men as now get their living by virtue of their membership in the Stock Exchange. The introduction of private and confidential tickers will be a worse stroke of business than "pushing the pad," because everybody will suspect everybody else of having better information than himself. Everybody will know that valuable information is flying about, over his head or under his feet, to favored individuals, *i. e.*, to bankers and brokers and their clerks, and the particular friends of themselves and their clerks. What this is, he has no means of knowing with certainty or celerity. If he does business at all under such conditions, he must expect to lose his eighths and quarters, if not larger fractions. He will probably conclude either to abandon the business altogether, or to transfer his clientage to some place where more reasonable notions prevail.

If this were a real crusade against bucket-shops, there would be something to be said in its favor—that is, from the pulpit. But surely the Stock Exchange would not feel complimented if a moral purpose were ascribed to it in this matter. It has no objections to bucket-shops as dens of corruption, any more than to book-makers, or pool-sellers, or the jumping fleas of Chinese gamblers or the jumping frogs of Calaveras. The morals of bucket-shopping are simply outside of its ken, as they ought to be. Is it supposed that business in the Stock Exchange is lessened in any degree by the $10 bets at the bucket-shops? Those bets are very much like frog-jumping. There is no delivery of stocks and none is expected. The patron of the bucket-shop bets against the "house" that a certain stock will jump higher or lower the next time the ticker records a sale. Business on the Stock Exchange is not affected one way or the other by such gaming. The outcry against bucket-shops, so far as it proceeds from the Stock Exchange here, or from the Board of Trade in Chicago, has an extremely hollow sound.

The Stock Exchange will have to sink or swim on the principles of free trade. If, with its capital and prestige, its experience and character, it cannot stand open competition, it will have to go to the wall. The conditions for the formation of a Trust do not exist, because the Exchange does not sell material things, but only services. Anybody can sell services, and those who sell them most acceptably to the public will get the trade.

THE CONEMAUGH HORROR.

It is always easy to be wise after the event, and it is especially so now with reference to the indescribable catastrophe in a peaceful Pennsylvania valley, which has destroyed thousands of lives, swept away millions of dollars' worth of property, and carried unutterable grief into countless happy homes. As we look at the conditions as they existed just before the disaster, they are seen to have been arranged with terrible sureness to bring about precisely what has followed. Lying in a narrow valley, which was little more than a gorge in the mountains, were eight villages, aggregating between 50,000 and 60,000 inhabitants, the largest of the eight being situated at the lower end, with about 25,000 inhabitants. Through the narrow bottom of this valley ran two small streams which came together at the lower end, just below the largest village, forming a shallow, swift-running stream of a few hundred yards in width. Across this stream had been built a massive stone railway bridge. Far up in the mountains, 300 feet above the chief village of the valley, hung a huge body of water. As nature had designed it, this had been a small lake with natural outlets, which prevented it from being a menace to the valley below. But the hand of man sought to improve the work of nature. An immense dam, 110 feet in height, held back the water till the lake was more than quadrupled in size.

These were the conditions on Friday last. There had been heavy rains for several days. The artificially enlarged lake was really a receiving reservoir of the water-shed of the Alleghany Mountains. Every little stream running into it was swollen to a torrent. The lake, which in ordinary times is three and a half miles long, with an average width of over a mile, and a depth in some portions

of 100 feet, was swelled into a volume of water of enormous proportions. Between it and the valley below there was a dam nearly 1,000 feet wide, 110 feet high, 90 feet thick at the base and 20 at the top. This barrier gave way, and the water rushed into the valley in a solid wave with a perpendicular front of forty feet. It swept away the seven smaller villages like straw, hurled them, together with uncounted thousands of their inhabitants, upon the larger village, and then, with the accumulated ruin of the whole eight, dashed upon the stone bridge at the bottom of the valley. The bridge withstood the shock, and a new dam, as fateful with horror as the first had been, was formed. It held back the water so that the whole valley was a lake from twenty to forty feet in depth, with the remains of its villages beneath its surface. The wreckage of the ruined villages, piled from forty to sixty feet high against the bridge, spreading over a vast area, with countless bodies of the living and the dead crushed within it and struggling for life upon it, caught fire, and burned to the water's edge.

Surely never was a death-trap more ingeniously constructed, and never did one more remorselessly accomplish its mission. Everybody is able to see now where the main responsibility lies. It is admitted that the dam has been looked upon for years as unsafe. It is admitted that the dwellers of the valley have been repeatedly warned that it might give way. In fact, they had been warned so often, with no danger following the warning, that they grew indifferent to the peril, and when the alarm of the actual break came they refused to heed it. There is nothing remarkable about this; it is merely human nature. Least of all can it be cited as in any way lessening the real responsibility for the disaster. That must rest upon the persons who built and maintained the dam. They were constantly impressed with the peril which lurked in it, for, according to their own admissions, they were constantly warning the villagers. It does not lessen their responsibility a particle to say that their warnings were not heeded. On the contrary, it increases it, for there was so much the more reason why they should remove the danger by the only sure way—that is, by gradually removing the dam itself.

To suspend such a stupendous body of water in such a place, and to hold it there, knowing all the time that its barriers were unsafe, is a most incredible act of foolhardiness. It would be scarcely less reckless to construct under a city a huge powder magazine, and remain content with warning the inhabitants at frequent intervals that they must keep a close watch and be ready to run at any moment, for a careless person might drop a match into the powder at any time. If such a magazine were built, and if, in spite of the warnings, the city were to be destroyed, would anybody think of placing the responsibility upon the victims? The same governmental authority which would prevent the building of such a magazine ought to be able to interfere and prevent the building of such an obvious menace to human life and property as the Conemaugh dam.

The need of the hour is, however, not to dwell upon the persons who are responsible for the disaster—for that is far beyond the power of any human strength to bear or to attempt to expiate—but to give aid and relief to the afflicted survivors. This is certain to be generous, for the heart of the American people is stirred to its depths by the awful details of the greatest calamity known in our annals. The Governors of all the States, the Mayors of all our cities, and every church in the land are already at work, and everything that can be done will be. It is, of course, of great importance, not only to give quickly, but to have the aid forwarded in a systematic manner, and for this reason it will be well for all contributors to seek official channels for their contributions.

PROGRESS OF ELECTORAL REFORM.

THERE are now nine States which have on their statute-books comprehensive ballot-reform laws drawn upon the model furnished by the Australian system. One of these, that of Massachusetts, was passed in 1888; the remaining eight were all passed during the present year. For such rapidity it would be difficult to find a parallel in the history of reform movements in this country. It was in the spring of 1887 that agitation of the subject first took formal shape. The discussions of the Commonwealth Club of this city led to the formation of a committee to draft a law embodying the principles of the Australian method, for presentation to the New York Legislature. No comprehensive measure of the kind desired had been previously outlined. The nearest approach to it had been a bill which had been presented to the Michigan Legislature early in 1887, but this, while interesting as containing the germ of the reform principle, was incomplete and inadequate.

The Commonwealth Club Committee were not long in discovering that their task was no light one, and that no satisfactory measure could be drafted in time for presentation to the Legislature of that year. They accordingly postponed its introduction till the following year, early in the session of 1888. This was the original Saxton bill. It has undergone many changes since, but in principle, and largely in its methods of applying the Australian system to American election laws, it remains to-day substantially the same as it was at first. So generally have its merits been recognized that it has been made the basis of all the nine laws which have since been enacted. Its leading principles were: an absolutely secret ballot, all ballots to be printed and distributed at the public expense, none but official ballots to be received at the polls, provisions for independent nominations. These principles will be found, in practically the same form, in all the laws passed, as a brief examination and comparison of their leading provisions will show.

(1.) *As to the secrecy of the ballot.* Every one of the nine laws requires the erection of booths or compartments, into which the voter shall, after receiving his ballot, retire, and, free from all observation, prepare it for the polls. The proportion of booths to voters varies somewhat. The Massachusetts law says not less than one for every seventy-five voters. The Indiana law divides the whole State into voting precincts, each containing, "as nearly as practicable, 200 voters," each polling-place to be provided with three compartments. The Montana and Wisconsin laws require one compartment for every 50 voters, or fraction thereof; the Rhode Island, Missouri, and Connecticut laws require not less than one for each 100 voters; the Tennessee law not less than three, and the Minnesota law not less than two for each 100. This is a very slight variation. The important provision is, that all except illiterate and physically disabled voters are absolutely alone while preparing their ballots. The method of marking the ballots varies somewhat. In Massachusetts, Montana, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Connecticut the voter is required to place an X opposite the name of each candidate for whom he wishes to vote. In Indiana he is required to make the mark with an official stamp furnished by the election officers for the purpose. In Missouri he is required to erase the names of all candidates on the ticket except those for whom he wishes to vote.

(2.) *Ballots printed and distributed at the public expense.* Every one of the nine laws provides that the ballots shall be printed and distributed at the public expense. This provision takes away all excuse for assessments upon candidates, and removes from the polls all ticket-peddlers, "workers," and "heelers."

(3.) *None but official ballots to be used.* Every one of the nine laws forbids the use of any except official ballots. There is considerable variety in the methods provided for the marking of the official ballots by the election officers in such a way as to prevent the use of imitations. The Massachusetts law requires that "on the back and outside, when folded, shall be printed, 'Official Ballot for,' followed by the designation of the polling-place for which the ballot is prepared, the date of the election, and a facsimile of the signature of the secretary of the commonwealth or city clerk who has caused the ballot to be printed." The Indiana law requires the poll-clerks to write their initials in ink on the backs of the ballots. The Montana law requires the election officers to stamp on the back of each ballot before handing the same to the voter the words "Official ballot." The Rhode Island and Tennessee laws copy the Massachusetts method. The Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Missouri laws require the poll-clerks to write their initials on the backs of the ballots, and the Connecticut law requires them to write their full names on the backs.

(4.) *Provision for independent nominations.* Every one of the nine laws contains, with slight modifications, the principle first embodied in the original Saxton bill, allowing independent nominations by means of petitions or nomination-papers. In this way citi-

zens who are dissatisfied with all the regular nominations for a given office can, by uniting in favor of a suitable candidate, have his name printed upon all the official ballots, and have it distributed at the polls on equal terms with the names of the regular party candidates. This is the most deadly blow that could be aimed at the caucus or primary system, and is certain in time to lead to the destruction of that system's worst evils, if not to the abandonment of the system itself.

It is a melancholy reflection that the State of New York, which took the lead in this most notable and beneficent reform movement, should still be without a law embodying its principles. In no State, if we except Indiana, is that reform more urgently needed, and in none has public sentiment in favor of it been more emphatically expressed. For the failure to obtain it, the State has to thank its chosen Governor alone, who has twice vetoed what may emphatically be called a model measure.

PROGRESS AMONG THE NEGROES.

UNDOUBTEDLY there are a great many people in both the North and the South who feel quite disheartened as to the future of the negro race. To all such we commend a careful perusal of the twenty-first annual report of the Hampton (Va.) Normal and Agricultural Institute, by its principal, Gen. S. C. Armstrong, just presented at the close of the school year. The most discouraged could not resist the inspiring influence of the mass of hopeful facts and figures which are here grouped in compact form.

The history of Hampton itself is full of encouragement. It is, in Gen. Armstrong's words, the history of "a steady growth of over twenty years, from 15 to 600 pupils, never advancing a step without a struggle, never knowing beforehand how the year's expenses were to be met." The net annual cost of the Institute is now $98,000, which provides for 600 boarding-students from thirteen States and Territories (460 negroes and 140 Indians), a dozen day pupils, and a large corps of officers, teachers, managers, and assistants (for the industrial system pursued requires two full sets of instructors) —a total of about seven hundred people connected with the school, and almost wholly dependent upon it for their education and subsistence. The fundamental principle of the institution is the instruction of the pupils in the way to earn their own living; and about one-third of the annual expenses of $145,000 is the cost of labor done by the colored pupils, they being credited annually with from $45,000 to $50,000 for their work on the farm, in the shops, and in the various branches of household industry. The board, clothing, etc., of 120 Indians (not including tuition, which costs equally for both races) is paid by the United States Government at the rate of $167. In order to encourage them, their savings are given to them, one-half to be spent as they choose, the remainder to be saved until they return home.

The industrial system has now been pursued long enough to show its results in the life of pupils after they leave Hampton, and it is already amply vindicated. The examples which they offer of better living and farming are as valuable in the country regions where they teach as is the book knowledge which they impart. Not only the colored people but their white neighbors profit by contact with graduates from Hampton, whose knowledge of stock and agriculture not infrequently makes a marked change in the methods of the working people among whom they settle. Young women, as well as young men, are often local preachers as well as teachers, "sometimes antagonizing the old-time sensational shouting by a better statement of Bible truth, and becoming for their race what, centuries ago, the teacher was in our own civilization, leaders in all things." In short, the chief endeavor at Hampton is to fit the colored pupils effectively to lead to better lives the simple people among whom their lots are cast. "Labor," says Gen. Armstrong, "is the greatest moral force in civilization, and the moral value of our industrial system is its chief excuse. Students who come to us with little or nothing can pay their school bills in labor, thus making their poverty a means of grace, for through its training in self-help come skill, character, and success."

But the chief value of this report is not in its exposition of Hampton's work, but in Gen. Armstrong's treatment of "The Negro Question," to which the local discussion naturally leads. No man in the country is so well qualified to present the situation with knowledge and candor as Gen. Armstrong, whose twenty years at Hampton have brought him into intimate relations with the leading forces of Southern society. It is most gratifying to find that a Northern man and Union soldier, who has had such an experience as this, is altogether hopeful as to the future. He presents first an impressive showing as to what has already been done by Southern taxation and by Northern benevolence for the education of the negroes. The Rev. Dr. Atticus G. Haygood of Georgia, agent of the Slater Fund, computes that since 1862 there has been given for this object $10,000,000 through the American Missionary Association (chiefly Congregational), $2,250,000 through the Methodist Society, $2,000,000 through the Baptist Society, $1,600,000 through the Presbyterian Society, and probably $1,000,000 more through other channels—in all, say seventeen millions from the North for the education of the ex-slaves. This is less than half the amount devoted to that object from the self-imposed taxation of the South; the total Southern aid for negro education since 1868, in common and normal schools, having amounted to over $37,000,000. This money for the education of the blacks, it must be remembered, has come almost entirely from the pockets of the whites, Gen. Armstrong's estimate being that of every $100 paid in Southern taxation $91.50 is paid by white people.

The first and most important effect of this education is the establishment of law and order. While lawlessness is still the curse of some sections, there is, even in the "black belts" of the Gulf States, a steady, if slow, advance towards good government, the gain in every ten years being noticeable. Gen. Armstrong admits that he did not himself believe this until his own observations and the opinions of some thoughtful Southern men convinced him of it. He finds the popular talk about the negro to be in a hopeless key; but to the direct question, "Are the laborer's pigs and poultry and crops safer than ten years ago? are the loafer and thief more likely to get their due? are the negroes inclined to get homesteads?" the answer is usually, "Yes." While there are, unquestionably, multitudes of "low-down" negroes and many wretched neighborhoods, intelligent white men everywhere in the South admit that the line between the good and the bad is every year more distinctly drawn—a sure proof of progress.

The gain was never so rapid as now, and Gen. Armstrong believes that "this basis of hope is beyond the reach of any political pressure." Indeed, he thinks that politics had better be dismissed from consideration, and that time through education is the only cure of the evils which remain. "Increasing enterprise at the South and the new industrial life of the people," he says, "are helpful conditions, and, where they are supplemented by education, are pushing the better part of the negro race into prosperity, giving them a place and making them a power. The talk of disfranchisement is idle; it comes too late; the negro is not what he was twenty-five years ago, and the next half-century will see great changes. As prosperity creates social distinctions, political divisions will follow, and the human nature of both races may be trusted to adjust the relations, which are, indeed, to-day, generally amicable. In those localities where lawlessness and injustice have repelled capital and immigration, the penalty of impoverishment is the swift result, and Government can do little; the people must finish the work of reconstruction."

By a curious and encouraging coincidence, we receive this report of Gen. Armstrong, the most prominent white educator of Southern negroes, at the same time with the appearance in Charleston, S. C., of the *New South*, a paper printed and edited by colored men, which in its salutatory preaches exactly the same sound doctrine. "We believe," it says, "that the future of the negro depends infinitely more upon his own efforts than upon any other agency at work in his behalf. There is no railroad for the negro. He must ascend the ladder of moral, material, and intellectual development as other races have done; and it seems to us that it is high time for him to cease following the *ignis fatuus* of politics, and begin the work of development upon those lines only on which real progress is possible. The politician has long since exhausted his storehouse in the negro's behalf."

It is thus obvious that, in the opinion alike of the wisest whites and of the wisest blacks, "the negro problem" is solving itself as rapidly as could be expected, and

in the only way that solution is possible. Interference from the "Bill" Chandlers and Gov. Forakers of the North can only work harm.

TRADE COMBINATIONS IN GERMANY.

THE development of pools and syndicates in Germany has gone quite as far as in America. The same industrial causes have been at work in each case; but the result in Germany has been more complete, because the legislation of that country has been more consistent. In the United States we have encouraged them by tariffs, and at the same time have tried to prohibit them by State laws. In Germany the internal as well as the external policy of the Government has been favorable to their growth.

The first important German syndicate, that of the tin-plate-makers, dates from 1862. Few others were formed until after the crisis of 1873. The period of depression which followed, combined with the gradual development of protective tariffs, caused them to multiply rapidly in the years from 1876 to 1880. Kleinwächter, writing in 1883, says that at that time there was hardly a branch of trade which did not have its combination or syndicate. Matters have gone so far that syndicates as such have a newspaper which is their avowed champion and official organ. This paper gives the following list of combinations existing at the beginning of the present year, which, for Germany at any rate, may be taken as authentic:

(1.) International combinations: International steel-rail pool (of long standing but temporarily broken up); Austro-German iron syndicate; international mining conventions for the sale of lead, tin, and zinc; international conference of glassworks; international dynamite trust; thread-manufacturers' combination; Anglo-German strontianite syndicate; herring-fisheries agreement; copper syndicate.

(2.) German trade combinations: Four separate coal and coke combinations for different districts; cast-iron combination of the Rhenish Westphalian district; German rolling-mills union, with four distinct subdivisions; iron-ties combination; union of wire manufacturers; four combinations of tin-workers; union of steel wheel-makers; union of fork-manufacturers; brass rolling-mills union; zinc association; lead syndicate; lime combination; cement union; glass-manufacturers' union; brick-makers' union; soda syndicate; bromide combination; potash combination; white-lead syndicate; "sulphonal" syndicate; oil-manufacturers' union; three distinct syndicates of salt works; bank of alcohol producers (which has recently failed); Bavarian society for the sale of alcohol, preliminary cotton-thread union; Southern cloth syndicate; jute syndicate; Saxony embroiderers' union; wrapping-paper association; cardboard association; paper-bag combination.

To this list, which is an authoritative one, should be added several transportation companies, and the vast number of railroad pools which have been encouraged and systematized from the very outset, the Government itself, on its own lines, actively taking part in such contracts.

It is interesting to see how pools work where they are thus recognized and favored. Let us take in detail the history of the rolling mill syndicate, as given by Professor Brentano. This association was formed in 1887. It was arranged for three years, to terminate at the end of 1890. It originated in Silesia, and was by no means the first combination of the sort, one having been formed soon after the crisis of 1873 and another in 1883. The present arrangement differs from its predecessors in being more complete. In 1877 the representatives of the Silesian mills, with one exception, placed their sales under the direction of a single agency. The plan worked so well that the Association soon extended itself to the Rhine and Westphalia districts as well as to central Germany. The south German works joined somewhat later. The territory of the Association is now divided into four groups corresponding to the geographical divisions just mentioned. Each set of works has a monopoly in its own district. The proportions to be sold by the different mills are controlled by a central bureau or clearing-house in Berlin. Besides these separate territories there are a number of neutral grounds (East and West Prussia, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Brandenburg, and Saxony) where partial competition is allowed, but every precaution is taken against cutting prices.

As far as internal competition goes, the whole matter seems to be accurately regulated, and a further extension of the arrangement prevents complications from the Austrian side. But the possible competition of England or Belgium or of those few German mills which do not belong to the Association has some curious consequences. In the first place, the product is shipped to foreign countries other than Austria at much lower prices than are charged in Germany. In the second place, deliveries at frontier stations are made at a price corresponding to that for which foreign producers are willing to deliver, that price being, of course, somewhat increased by the German tariff. As stations are further and further from the frontier, the price becomes higher and higher, proportionately to the increase of railroad charge which prevents the cheap delivery of foreign iron. Again, prices are usually made somewhat lower in large cities than in small ones, and purchasers on a large scale are given rebates.

If it happens that an independent German mill makes lower prices than those fixed by the syndicate, the nearest mill belonging to the Association has not merely the right but the duty to compete, and any losses which it may suffer from rate-cutting are made up out of the common purse. This renders outside competition dangerous. A further means at the command of the Association for suppressing such competition is not unlike the American method of boycotting. No one mill is likely to furnish rolled iron in all its forms. If a manufacturer deals with a producer outside of the syndicate, the other associated mills will not furnish him his necessary supplies, or will furnish them only on such conditions as seriously hamper his activity.

For the present the arrangement seems perfectly strong. The authorities approve of it; the law makes an agreement of this kind enforceable against the various members; the deposits which they have made make it dangerous to withdraw. All this strength only makes the possible abuse of the system more noticeable. For the present, at any rate, the policy of the Association as just outlined involves all the abuses to which monopolies have been liable in the United States. The arrangement favors the large producer at the expense of the small producer; it favors the large city at the expense of the small; it gives a special advantage to those who have the benefit of foreign competition, so that shipments to foreign countries are actually made at much lower prices than home deliveries. Whether prices will be steadied, remains to be seen.

The history of the rolling-mills, as thus outlined, represents fairly enough the facts with regard to the arrangement of other pools in other lines of industry. We have given it simply as a set of facts with comparatively little comment. It is too early to predict with anything like certainty what will come of it. The German Government obviously regards with favor a centralized organization of industry. It is in harmony with the centralized military system and with the methods of compulsory insurance, which have the indirect effect of reducing the laborers to more complete dependence even while apparently making a provision for their old age. Under such circumstances it is natural that the Government should be ready to help the organization, and to disregard the possible effects on the public. In America, where we have no systematic policy on these matters, we may expect self-contradictory legislation for some time to come.

PICTURES AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

MAY 16, 1889.

A CAREFUL examination of the Royal Academy Exhibition does not encourage one in any great hope for the art of the future. A certain tendency to realism exists, it is true, among the younger men, with a desire for better drawing and some definite method of painting, but all improvement ends here: very little power of invention can be detected, very few efforts at historic painting or ideal work of any kind among the rising painters. As is to be expected, the principal places on the line are occupied by the works of the R. A.'s themselves and the Associates, and this insures the usual degree of merit or of commonplace in the general aspect of the rooms; for if some are rather below the mark one year, others may have surpassed themselves, so that it is in the work of outsiders that we would seek some promise of progress, and it is disappointing to find so little to arrest one's attention in all these acres of pictures.

A work which seems to have immediately met with recognition is "The Prodigal Son" of Mr. J. M. Swan, an animal painter of great distinction, who studied in Paris, and whose drawings of animals were much praised by Ruskin many years ago. His work hangs on the line, although he exhibits here for the first

time this year. Black swine among scarlet poppies, green grass, and weeds, surround the prodigal, who sits with his back towards us on a stone, his head resting in his hands in an attitude of despair. The landscape around him is arid, the sky dark and ominous, yet all is full of splendid, harmonious color; and although nothing could exceed the perfection with which flowers and leaves and stones are painted, the detail is never obtrusive. The swine are admirably drawn; the prodigal himself, though good in general effect of flesh painting, is the least satisfactory point in the picture.

Mr. John Sargent's portrait of Henschel the singer is a very vivid sketch, an excellent likeness, done with great skill and facility of handling; but it gives the impression of being rather under life-size, which is unfortunate. The head of Irving the actor, another sketch, is also good as a likeness, although Sargent has exaggerated the massive black eyebrows, and there is too much evidence of hasty execution for it to be agreeable as a work of art. The full-length portrait of Mrs. G. Gribble is the most important work he sends here this year. The lady turns towards the spectator with figure in profile; she is hugging a gray fur boa up against her cheek; her dress, of black-striped velvet and satin, is admirably painted; the background is gray blue. The whole picture is harmonious and quiet, and brings out the delicate bright tints of the fair head and bare arms.

"All Hands to the Pumps," by H. S. Tuke, is also excellent in quality of painting and in careful rendering of individual expression in the faces of the sailors. Only one thing does not explain itself: if the men are supposed to be actually at work, why are their hands quite passive on the pumps? We rather suppose, from their attentive, eager faces, all looking towards the same point, that they are expecting the captain's order for action. The wave-swept deck, and the intense anxiety on every face, help to tell of the excitement of the moment. Arthur Lemon's "Outpost of Gauls on the Roman Campagna" is one of the most interesting landscapes in the exhibition, both in subject and in execution. No. 1128, "The Seamew's Nest: an Idyl of Morocco," by E. Wauters, a Belgian artist, attracts one by its simple, broad execution, and truthful color. A young Moorish girl in white, carrying on her back her little sleeping sister, is looking at some object beyond the white sea wall across which her arm lies stretched. The girl, the wall, and the distance are all bathed in the golden sunlight of the East; only the children's brown faces tell in dark color in the midst of so much light. The Eastern type of the elder child, without any actual beauty of form, by its excellent drawing and relief makes the picture, simple as it is, very remarkable. Edward King, a name we have not before noticed, has a very clever work with the inscription, "That it may please Thee to protect all fatherless children and widows." We see the interior of a pew in a village church, in which is seated a lady in black, who is trying to awaken to the service the attention of a very small boy. Her little girl beside her, in large white poke bonnet, is looking out of the corners of her eyes, with a most amusing expression of virtuous indignation at her little brother. The background, of gray stone column, with the light coming through a window, is very well managed; the severity of color in the work, limited to black, white, and gray, suits the character of the scene very well. The expression of both mother and children is excellent, and the manner of painting as good as anything here.

Among the works of outsiders, Mr. S. J. Solomon's main contribution is chiefly notable for its great size. Year after year he sends to the Academy immense compositions which cannot fail to arrest attention and invite criticism. These canvases are invariably filled with half-nude figures in violent action, and the forcible drawing is rendered still more striking by the high exhibition key of color which he paints up to. "Sacred and Profane Love" is the name he has chosen this year; and in all truth, if he has chosen a title used by Titian before him, his work in no way plagiarizes the great Venetian master. It is a very unattractive composition, not even painted with Solomon's usual skill. The centre of the canvas is filled by the protecting angel, with vast outstretched wings. Under the left wing, husband, wife, and child are taking refuge; the man looks back in terror and aversion to Profane Love, who, in the immediate foreground, in unseemly undress, pelts her victim with roses while dragging him over a precipice. This figure, supposed to represent beauty, does not at all realize the artist's intention: the lurid light and confusion in this part of the picture are quite bewildering. Mr. Solomon's less pretentious works, the portrait of Sir J. Simon, Serjeant-at-law (No. 1239), and the portrait of Miss Raphael (No. 393), have more merit. No. 756, "The Harbor Bar," of Adrian Stokes, is a sea-piece full of charm. Fishing-boats, with red-brown sails, are starting for the night's work. One sees the gray sands in the foreground, and beyond the sea dark clouds covering the evening sky, still tinged with sunset gold.

We now turn to the work of the Royal Academicians themselves, not having space to mention many good landscapes, a branch of art which seems to be more adapted than any other to the English temperament. Sir John Millais's "Murthly Water," No. 74, is a faithful transcript of nature. The Tay near Dunkeld is the running river we see in the clear light of a bright autumnal afternoon; purple hills in the distance meet the wind-swept sky. The short bracken turning orange, the dry grass and fallen leaves, the bare trees with logs lying in the foreground, with the half of a boat, beside which two fishers are trying their luck, show that Sir J. Millais's hand has not lost its cunning, and that he still has the power of doing excellent work. No. 242, "The Old Garden," is less successful: the empty space of path in the foreground near the fountain seems to require figures to make a picture; the tall, well-trimmed hedges are rather monotonous in painting, and the yew trees beyond are done in a slovenly manner.

Two works of the President, Sir Frederick Leighton, hang in the first room—"Invocation," No. 31, and "The Sybil," No. 25. They are both astonishingly bad. The descriptions and incidents concerning their production which have been given to the public by the daily press and the magazines, had stirred up much interest in these pictures, so that many will be disappointed to find that, after all has been said and done, it is the same well-known face of Sir F. Leighton's model draped in the usual fashion, only the oft-repeated theme has lost interest and charm. The color is more muddy than usual in the "Sybil," and still more lifeless and waxen in the "Invocation." For this latter we hear that the arms had to be modelled in clay so as to preserve the swing of the drapery in this difficult position. It is in the *Magazine of Art* for this month that reproductions from studies of draperies and studies for the nude for these figures are to be found, with a full account of Sir Frederick's method of work. After all, it is not the affair of the public to know how each artist does his work, but simply to judge of what is presented to it as finished and complete. Even less pleasing are the Greek maidens playing at ball on a housetop, in the long gallery, No. 300. The grace of line which characterizes almost all the works of our accomplished President is here completely wanting; the figures are neither graceful in action nor possible. The shoulders of the girl who has just thrown the ball make a very ugly line, hiding her face, and her draperies are too much broken up to give the idea of the momentary action of the figure. The girl who is trying to catch the ball stands poised on the tip of one foot with legs far apart; the attitude is not possible. The color is very much the usual combination of mulberry red and yellow green, with blue and white in the sky and mountainous distance.

There is great poetic feeling and a good quality of moonlight effect in Frank Dicksee's "The Passing of Arthur" (No. 150). The barge, rowed by spectral oarsmen, is just leaving the shore; the three Queens surround King Arthur, whose face, pale in death, lies on the lap of one, while another kisses his hand. The oarsman standing at the stern is pushing the barge out from among the thick reeds which fringe the shore. The head of the King is very weak and destroys the interest of the work, which reminds one strongly of the poetic conceptions of Poole, an Academician of some twenty years ago.

Alma-Tadema has sent but one picture, "At the Shrine of Venus," the interior of a Roman barber's shop, painted with all the perfection of texture and harmony of color which makes his work so remarkable. Two ladies are reclining on a couch waiting for their turn. The one, with loosened locks, is gazing into a hand-glass; the other is listlessly holding hers downwards. Their draperies are purple and pale yellow, while a third lady in gray is entering the shop. She is holding a flower in her hand, an offering to Venus. One sees arranged along the street which makes the background a row of wigs of different hues, and a huge blue amphora, between which appear the heads of the passers-by, discussing the wares; two attendants fill up the space within the shop. The figures are remarkably graceful, and have more beauty of feature than usual with this great master of detail. G. F. Watts sends a roguish Cupid knocking at a door, his head covered with a monk's cowl; he is looking around, with mischief in his eyes, at the spectator. His lank figure, with wings of bright red, orange, blue, and tawny white, is by no means hidden by the monk's habit trailing behind him. This work is very characteristic of Mr. Watts's manner of painting. "The Habit does not make the Monk" is its title.

Mr. John Brett's landscapes have at any rate the merit of careful study of nature, and his subject this year (No. 414) is interesting: "The Lion, the Lizard, and the Stags," the well-known rocks on the Cornish coast—a splendid sea-view, full of color in the rocks. Unfortunately, his painting of sea is too metallic and small to get any breadth of effect. There is too much detail everywhere. Mr. Boughton's full-size portrait picture of two ladies on a seat in a garden near the sea, across which the sun is setting, is not good. His method is not adapted for this large scale of figure-painting. His other piece, "A Salmon River, the Beauly, Inverness-shire," No. 465, has more the qualities we expect to find in his work, though even here the interest of the figures is very slight. No. 243, "The Young Duke," by W. Q. Orchardson, is one of the pictures of the year by merit of its painter rather than by any

interest of its own. The Young Duke, who, with his friends, is in Louis XV. periwig and flowing coat, sits at a table laden with flowers, fruit in silver dishes, Venetian glasses full of wine. His boon companions stand drinking his health, while he lolls vapidly back in his chair. The faces seem for the most part to have been painted from the same model. Besides this monotony of form, there is also throughout a pervading tint of yellow ochre. The table, coming close to the spectator, seems, by an awkward effect of perspective, to carry objects of immense size compared to the heads behind them, which are supposed to be far off. No. 255, "Preparing for the Festival of Anubis," is the most important of E. Long's Egyptian scenes. A girl stands holding a blue vase, watching with apparent interest some performing dogs who are telling out letters at the bidding of a priest sitting on the ground.

Briton Riviere, the very popular painter of birds and beasts, has two works, of which the most noticeable is No. 231, "Of a fool and his folly there is no end." A number of horsemen whose steeds have been started by a court jester, in scarlet robes, on a donkey, brandishing a bladder full of peas, are being carried full pelt down a steep hillside. A most accomplished painter of horses is Mr. Andrew C. Gow, whose manner recalls Meissonier, although his work is not so brilliant in touch as that of the French master. Gow's subject is taken from Clarendon's 'History of the Rebellion.' King Charles I., on a white charger with the Prince, surrounded by his cavaliers, is before the walls of Kingston-upon-Hull in 1642. He is parleying with Sir J. Hotham, Governor of the town, with drawbridge up and gates closed against him; the Cavaliers, with drawn swords and horses firmly held in, are relieved against the red-brick ramparts and the city moat. The Humber with its shipping is in the distance. The whole picture is very well composed, and tells its story thoroughly; the drawing throughout is excellent. The horses, all very impatient of standing still, are especially good in action.

Herkomer has no less than eight works this year, of which seven are portraits painted in his usual manner, only, as years go on, that manner is getting more monotonous and the work seems done with less care and feeling. His only subject picture, "The Chapel of the Charterhouse," has been purchased by the Academy for the Chantrey bequest, and this acquisition will without doubt meet with criticism from those who understand that bequest as applying either to the best work of the year or to that of some young struggling artist, for under neither of these conditions could Herkomer's work be classed; the picture being a very poor one. The pensioners are assembling before the service in the chapel of the Charterhouse. They are all covered with their black cloaks. We learn from a note in Mr. Blackburn's catalogue that Professor Herkomer chose the faces of the pensioners not from the Charterhouse brethren, but, wishing to depict types, he painted characteristic faces from among his friends. We can understand that the subject might be treated in a very interesting manner, but unfortunately this is not the case, for neither in arrangement nor in painting is this work distinguished.

We must now pass on to the Sculpture Gallery, where Mr. W. B. Richmond's "Arcadian Shepherd," his principal work this year, holds the post of honor. The figure of the young shepherd is of heroic proportions. He is walking down hill, his head raised with parted lips as if singing for joy of youth and strength. His outstretched arms curl round his crook, which he is holding behind his shoulders, and curving by the action of his arms, the left arm being extended on a level with the shoulder, while the right lies along the figure to the elbow, then stretches out with hand round the crook. The play of muscles throughout the torso is very fine; the ribs show the drag of the uplifted arm. The weakest point is the setting of the head on the shoulders, and perhaps the Greek character of the work would demand greater simplicity in the head. The statue is in tinted plaster. It is meant to be cast in bronze, and will undoubtedly look finer in that substance. The most attractive work in this gallery is Mr. Onslow Ford's "Singer," in bronze, a young Egyptian girl standing beside her harp. Her arms, with slight outward curve, hang down; one hand is striking the strings of her instrument richly ornamented with enamel in color. The stand and column on which the statuette is placed are also in bronze cloisonné. The figure is about three feet in height. The head is thrown back with half-closed eyes; an Egyptian head-dress hangs on either side of the cheeks. The whole thing has a very charming decorative character, very Eastern in type of figure and face.

Mr. Hamo Thornycroft sends a small bronze copy of his well-known statue of "Teucer," now in the South Kensington Museum. The statuette is far more pleasing than the statue. The same artist also sends two bronze panels for the Gordon memorial in Melbourne. In the first, Gordon is seen teaching ragged boys at Gravesend; the second represents the death of Gordon at Khartum. In both, the subjects are treated literally, without any beauty of line or form, truth to nature only having been considered. Modern costume does not lend itself to sculpture, and the result of these faithful representations is very dull. Mr. Gilbert has a bust of G. F. Watts. The head seems to be rather larger than life, and has not the refinement of feature and expression of the great painter. The pose of the head is not at all characteristic, and the pupils of the eyes are too deeply scooped away. Harry Bates's "Hounds in Leash" is a fine work injured by the rather monotonous treatment of surface; man and dogs having exactly the same quality of roughness. A very good portrait bust of Robert Browning is by Miss Henrietta Montalba. J. E. Boehm has a portrait of the late Frank Holl, and Mr. J. M. Swan a bronze study of a young Himalayan tiger. We must also notice a bronze head of a girl resembling in purity of type and in pathetic expression some early Florentine master. It has the line "In silence prayeth she" for a title, and is by G. G. Frampton.

The water colors and pastels are unusually poor this year: as very few people, comparatively, visit the water-color room at the Academy, it is not surprising that members of the societies are better content to exhibit only at their own exhibitions. One realistic scene is forcibly given in pastel by Hubert Vos: it is a room in the Brussels almshouse for women. While neither beautiful nor refined in treatment, it has the quality of being very like the real thing; and this appeals to many picture-seers who do not care about art excepting as representing faithfully what they see and know.

HARRIET SHELLEY AND CATHERINE NUGENT.—I.

DUBLIN, May 11, 1889.

As is well known, Shelley, with his girl-wife Harriet, aged sixteen (and her sister), visited Dublin early in 1812, a few months after their marriage. It is not so well known that one Catherine Nugent, aged forty, shop-assistant to Mr. Newman, a furrier, who carried on business at No. 101 Grafton Street, then became intimate with the young people for some years, and kept up a correspondence with Harriet. She was a woman of an ardent and enthusiastic temperament—in thought and feeling what would be called much above her station in life. She had been intimate with many of the leaders of the patriotic party, and was well prepared to appreciate the spirit in which the Shelleys came to Ireland. Her silhouette, taken at a somewhat later period, is before me.* It depicts a countenance singularly bright, attractive, and perspicacious. I have no doubt she is referred to by Dr. Anster in his article on Shelley in the *North British Review* for 1847. He was intimate with her, and an expression which will be found in letter ii of the correspondence occurs in that article:

"One copy of Shelley's pamphlet was obtained through an Irish friend of Shelley's, whose acquaintance with the poet originated accidentally. A poor man offered the pamphlet for a few pence—its price stated on the title-page was five pence. On being asked how he got it, he said a parcel of them were given him by a young gentleman who told him to get what he could for them—at all events, to distribute them. Inquiry was made at Shelley's lodgings to ascertain the truth of the vender's story. He was not at home, but when he heard of it he went to return the visit, and a kindly acquaintanceship thus arose. The Shelleys, husband and wife, were then Pythagoreans. Shelley spoke as a man believing in the metempsychosis, and they did not eat animal food. They seem, however, to have tolerated it; for on one occasion a fowl was murdered for our friend's dinner. Of the first Mrs. Shelley, the recollection of our friend is faint, but is of an amiable and unaffected person, very young and very pleasing, and she and Shelley seemed much attached."

The following extract of a letter from Harriet Shelley to Eliza Hitchener, dated Dublin, March, 1812, prepares us for a knowledge of this friendship. It was discovered by Denis F. MacCarthy in the Irish Record Office (whither, probably, it had drifted through some interception of Shelley's letters and papers by the Government), and is to be found in his 'Shelley's Early Life':

"I believe I have mentioned a new acquaintance of ours, a Mrs. Nugent, who is sitting in the room now and talking to Percy about virtue. You see how little I stand upon ceremony. I have seen her but twice before, and I find her a very agreeable, sensible woman. She has felt most severely the miseries of her country, in which she has been a very active member. She visited all the prisons in the time of the rebellion, to exhort the people to have courage and hope. She says it was a dreadful task; but it was her duty, and she would not shrink from the performance of it. This excellent woman, with all her notions of philanthropy and justice, is obliged to work for her subsistence. To work in a shop which is a furrier's. There she is every day confined to her needle. Is it not a thousand pities that such a woman should be so dependent upon others? She has visited us this evening for about three hours, and is now returned home. The evening is the only time she can get out in the week. But Sunday is her own, and then we are to see her. She told Percy that her country was her only love, when he asked her if she was married. She called herself Mrs. I suppose on account of her age, as she looks rather old for a Miss. She has never been out of her own country, and has no wish to leave it."

A close intimacy was formed between Harriet Shelley and Catherine Nugent, and a correspondence ensued of which Harriet Shelley's share was preserved. I copied the following letters eight years ago from the originals in the possession of Catherine Nugent's niece. Professor Dowden had the use of my manuscript

*I have also in my possession a mask and a daguerreotype taken after death.

when writing his 'Life of Shelley.' He loyally adhered to an agreement not to copy any portion or give any clue to its existence. The death of Catherine Nugent's only representative now renders possible their publication.*

I.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

If you are not engaged will you give us your company this eveng. as Mr. S. is not at home. Bring your work. Yours truly

To MRS. NUGENT, H. S.

Wednsy. 17 Grafton St.

II.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Mrs. Shelley's compts. to Mrs. Nugent, and expects the pleasure of her company to dinner, 5 O'clock, as a murdered chicken has been prepared for her repast.

Sundy. Morng.
17 Grafton Street.

III.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Direct NANTGUILTE, April 16th [1812], RHAYADER, RADNORSHIRE, South Wales.

My Dear Mrs. Nugent,

After travelling over an immense tract of country in the hopes of finding a house in which it would be our greatest joy to welcome a *native of that country* so dear to my recollection, tho' at the same time so painful to the feelings of one who unfortunately, being an *Englishwoman*, must never hope to see realized her warmest wishes in behalf of a *nation* so deserving of every happiness which this and the next world can afford. You know when we left Dublin the wind was against us; but by making several tacks we contrived to get out of harbour, and continued sailing 36 hours when we had been informed that at the most we should certainly be no more than 12 hours. There is no dependance upon the word of a sailor, you may have heard me say, and now I am more confirmed in it. We did not arrive at Holyhead till near 2 Oclock on Monday morning. Then we had above a mile to walk over rocks and stone in a pouring mist before we could get to the inn. The night was dark and stormy; but the sailors had lanterns, or else I think it would have been better to have remained on board. As soon as we could get supper we did. We did not eat anything for 36 hours all the time we were on board, and immediately began *upon meat*; you will think this very extraordinary, but Percy and my sister suffered so much by the voyage, and were so much weakend by the vegetable system, that had they still continued it would have been seeking a premature grave. I fared the best of any as I slept most part of the time. On Tuesday we began travelling and that day week we found our way here. Strange as it may appear, we have been all through North Wales to find a house, but not one presented itself, nor should we have this if a very unpleasant circumstance had not taken place. The person to whom it belongs was a sea captain, and a brother in law of his has involved him in bankruptcy by very unfair means, and has himself absconded with £2,000, therefore now all this mans property is to go to satisfy the creditors. He was his partner in this countrys bank and has defrauded many people of their money. The beauty of this place is not to be described. It is quite an old family house, with a farm of 200 acres meadow land. The rent is £98 a year, which we think very cheap; but by letting a part of the farm we can reduce it to £20 per annum. I must now say adieu. We all unite in kind regards, and believe me your sincere *friend* H. S.

IV.—P. B. Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

NANTGWILT, May 7, 1812. WHAYADER RADNORSHIRE, NORTH WALES.

My dear Madam:

Harriet is now recovering from an intermittent brought on by the fatigues of our journey. I have been considerably anxious about her though I have no doubt but that in a short time she will be able to thank you for your kind letter, and inform you herself of her convalescence. Your letter arrived yesterday morning Accept our sincerest united thanks, for tho' you are Harriet's correspondent remember that you were first my friend. I shall not readily forget the greatness of mind on your part that presented me with a knowledge of you. How unequally has the detestable system by which human beings govern their affairs distributed poverty and wealth. How much do you suffer from the distribution. Had you the millions which the Prince will possess. How would England not be benefited were he compelled to sit in Mr. Newman's shop and sew fur on to satin. In what would she be injured. That this remark is not meant for flattery you will believe. No, your opinion of your own abilities is far too low. With regard to the notions you may have framed of abstract perfection, I know not how true or how false your opinion of yourself may be; but this I know that with regard to what human nature is your character is formed to excite that esteem and attachment which our little party feels for you. I fear that hunger is the only excitement of our English riotings; any change which they may produce appears to me likely to be devoid of principle and method. I sincerely hope that a just indignation against that crowned coward and villain the Prince does prevail, but I do not think that it has gained any strength. The local Militia, that body of soldiery nearest approaching and immediately mingling with the character of citizen have been called out near Carlisle and other great towns to quell the populace. That the Government has dared to call the local into action appears to be an evidence that at least they do not think that disaffection to Government (except so far as directly connected with starvation) has any share in these tumults. War with America appears in a manner now inevitable. Ministers have been at some *ministerial* work in that country, viz., Capt. Hemgd., Sir [paper torn] Craig. Redfern's letters have not yet been distributed. They were packed in a box which we left at Holyhead; but which we expect by the carrier tonight. Remember me to Reynolds; tell him I shall not be idle about Redfern, and that as soon as I have done anything I will write to him. We expect to take possession of this house and farm on Thursday next. Accept, my esteemed friend, from that time the sincerest welcome that our warm hearts can give you. Believe that if anything can add to the pleasure we shall receive from your visit it will be the earliness of the period which you fix for its commencement. With sincerest wishes for your peace and health, in which Harriet and Eliza join, believe me, yours most truly. P. B. SHELLEY.

Did you see Sir F. Burdett's speech on the Marylebone Baneichs [?]*

V.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Direct CUM ELAN, June 7th [1812], RHAYADER RADNORSHIRE, S. W.

My dear Mrs. Nugent

So long a time has passed since we have had the pleasure of hearing from you that the various conjectures arising in our minds as to the cause require explanation. I am sure of this, should you chance to receive my letter. But in the meantime let me tell you all our disappointments. First, then you will see from the date of this that we are not at our beloved Nantgwylt. Alas that charming spot is, I am afraid, never destined to be ours! The possessor cannot settle with Percy, and indeed he has acted such a *villanous* part that we have been obliged to leave him, and for a few days take up our residence at Mr. Groves, about a mile and a half from our favourite residence. You may imagine our sorrow at leaving so desirable a spot, where every beauty seems centred. I had hoped to have seen you there; but I am afraid I must relinquish and with sorrow so fallacious a wish. We have some thoughts of going to Italy till Percy is of age, as the same difficulty will attend us wherever we. [*sic*] One very great inducement to go to Italy is the warmth of the climate, as Percy's health is so extremely delicate that the cold air of this country is not likely to benefit him. What have you thought upon the murder of the Prime Minister? Undoubtedly it was very distressing, but the man's composure is astounding. I think he was a Methodist from his behaviour. I am sorry for his family. It had been better if they had killed Lord Castlereagh. He really deserved it; but this poor Mr. P. I believe was a very good private character. Do you not think it nonsense for all the little towns and villages to send petitions to the Prince upon the occasion. I suppose Ireland has not done anything half so silly. How do your poor countrymen go on? I hope things are not so scarce there as here. How very lovely the weather is now. Summer comes at last and with it brings its disappointment for you are not the only one I had hoped to have seen at Nantgwylt. Godwin's children were to come to us; but our evil genius has stepped in and forbid us that happiness. We are to begin travelling again soon and where to bend our steps I know not; but we think of going to the seaside until our passports come. We must remain here until we receive remittances from London. Percy is related to Mr. Grove, and his wife is a very pleasant woman, tho' too formal to be agreeable. He is a very proud man. Therefore you may guess how we pass our time. Do you ever see Mr. Lawless. We hear from him sometimes. As to the poems I have no idea how and when they will come out. The printers are very slow in their operations. I must now conclude in hopes of hearing from you soon. Believe me your sincere, affectionate friend H. S.

Percy and Eliza desire to be remembered.

VI.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Direct LYMOUTH, June 30th [1812] near BARNSTAPLE Devonshire

My dear Mrs. Nugent.

Now that we are again settled I take up the pen in the hope of giving that pleasure which I receive from reading your letter. I received it during my stay at Cum Elan and a few days after we left that lovely spot, and its amiable hostess for a journey to Chepstow, where we were in hopes of finding a house that would suit us, and where we might with pleasure receive the visit of one whose presence like the sun would make happy those who beheld her. Your letter damped the joy I felt from reading it, by seeing that you could not come to us this summer, for I had hoped tho' we had left Nangwylt that we should have been sure of a visit from you. However, I will say no more about it, as you must be the best judge of your own affairs, and I doubt not that were we to draw you from your own country we should be the means, tho' innocently, of depriving many of your unfortunate countrymen of that relief you know so well how to bestow. I will say this though I am a loser by it. Continue, oh amiable woman, the path marked out to thee by virtue and humanity, and let not the whisperings of selfishness in us take thee from so laudable an undertaking. We may yet meet ere this world shall close our eyes, and that we both desire it our hearts are the best judges. I will now tell you how we came into Devonshire. We arrived at Chepstow. We found the house not half built, and by no means large enough for our family. I did not regret it, as the country was by no means beautiful. We then proceeded into this country, and came to this place on our way to Ilfracombe, and the beauty of it has made us residents here for the summer months, when we think of going to London for the winter. It combines all the beau-

* The writing, except that in xvi, was beautifully clear and legible. There was not an erasure or alteration. The spelling was perfect. Where necessary and possible, dates from the postmarks have been supplemented in brackets. I, ii, xxi, xxii, xxiii, were written on note paper, vii and x, on folio paper, the others on letter paper, of various makes, mostly gilt-edged. xii and xvi were originally closed with a red seal "Truth," xvii with "Harriet" in German text, the others with wafers and seals of different colors and patterns, but no device. I. is simply addressed "Mrs. Nugent," ii "Mrs. Nugent, 101 Grafton St.," iii to xi "Mrs. Nugent, No. 101 Grafton Street, Dublin, Ireland"; xii to xxiii, with the exception of xix, "Mrs. Nugent, No. 101 Grafton Street, Stephen's-Green, Dublin, Ireland." The "101" or "No. 101" was generally in the lower left-hand corner of the address. I. and ii were evidently delivered by hand, xii was franked "Glasgow," xxi "Geo. T. Beresford." The rest passed through the post as ordinary paid letters. Occasional holes in the paper, obliterating words, generally arose from seal or wafer tears.

*I can find no reference in contemporary papers to elucidate this word.—A. W.

ties of our late residence with the addition of a fine, bold sea. We have taken the only cottage there was, which is most beautifully situated, commanding a fine view of the sea, with mountains at the side and behind us. Vegetation is more luxuriant here than in any part of England. We have roses and myrtles creeping up the sides of the house, which is thatched at the top. It is such a little place that it seems more like a fairy scene than anything in reality. All the houses are built in the cottage style, and I suppose there are not more than 30 in all. We send to Barnstaple for everything, and our letters come but twice a week. It is 18 miles from Barnstaple, therefore one ought to be able to [paper torn] very well on a horse to get there. We have an immense prcipice to descend into this valley, about 2 miles in length, which no carriage can come down. It seems as if nature had intended that this place should be so romantic and shut out from all other intercourse with the neighboring villages and towns. We have still our Irishman Daniel, whom you may remember in Grafton Street. I am afraid we shall be obliged to part with him, as we do not find him that useful servant we expected he would have [*sic*] Percy has some thoughts of sending him to Dublin, to see after his poems that are at the printers; but whether he will or not is impossible to say. We have not heard from Mr. Lawless now for some time. I suppose his present employment to my idea not very laudable, fills up his time so much that he cannot think of his absent friends. I hope this is not the case as I should be sorry, knowing him to be an Irishman, if it were true. I think he is a man of very great talent and abilities; but I am afraid that Mr. Curran will never lend him a helping hand. I must now say adieu, my dear friend, and may you ever feel that happiness which springs from conscious integrity and goodness of heart. Percy and Eliza desire to be most kindly remembered, and believe me ever your truly sincere and affectionate friend

HARRIET.

VII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

LYNMOUTH, August 4th [1812]

My dear Mrs. Nugent

Your affectionate letter gave us very great pleasure. To hear from those we love when it is not in our power to see them constitutes one of the greatest joys in existence. You may suppose how we laughed at the idea of the tempter, tho' how such a horrible looking creature should gain admittance to the garden of Eden at once surprises me and turns the sanctity of the whole into a burlesque. I suppose the ingenious discoverer has very good reasons and arguments to support his cause, tho' we may doubt if we like, the idea is truly ridiculous and laughable and how do the people take this new mode of accounting for how all the sin in the world arose. Will they believe it as soon as they would the other? If they do I should be inclined to think their belief is a mere matter of form and not an involuntary act. If they go on in this way we shall next hear, I suppose, of its being a bear or lion or anything else. I thank you in Percy's name for your kind offer of service, though at the same time we cannot accept it. The case is this. His printer refuses to go on with his poems until he is paid, Now such a demand is seldom made, as printers are never paid till the profits arising from the work come in, and Percy agreed with him to this effect, and as long as we staid in Dublin he wore the mask which is now taken off. However I am in great hopes that Mr. Lawless will get them from him. He is coming to London on business and then we shall see him. I wish to think well of him because he is your countryman, tho there is too much "the man of the world" about him. Perhaps he is different out of the city. If not, I shall still admire his talents, tho I shall have no high opinion of him. What do you think of Cobbett? A man that can change his opinions so quickly I do not admire, and particularly when he could write of Sir F. Burdett in such an abusive and contradictory a way. It seems to me that Cobbett merely changes his sentiments as occasion requires as best suits his interest. I hope I am mistaken, tho his behaviour looks very like it. Percy has sent you a defense of D. F. Eaton. It must not be published, but you will give us your opinion of it. What think you of Lord Stanhope?—divine being, how beautifully he speaks. We have sent him one as well as Sir F Burdett. Did you see a clergyman enter into his defence? I do not remember his name, but it was a very wonderful thing to hear a clergyman write for universal toleration. He said his standing in the pillory was an honour to him. I think the publick mind is very much in favour of Mr. Eaton. It looks well, does it not? Our friend Miss Hitchener is come to us. She is very busy writing for the good of mankind. She is very dark in complexion with a great quantity of long black hair. She talks a great deal. If you like great talkers she will suit you. She is taller than me or my sister, and as thin as it is possible to be. I hope you will see her some day. I should think that next summer you might take a peep at us. You may judge how much we all wish to see you. Your being an Irishwoman must interest us in your happiness independently of our knowing the amiable qualities you possess. I have read Miss Owensons "Missionary" and much do I admire the author. I am now reading her "Novice of St. Dominick." I regret not having known her when I was in Dublin. Her patriotic sketches have won my heart. She speaks so feelingly of your dear country that I love her for that. Miss Hitchiner has read your letter and loves you in good earnest. Her own expression. I know you would love her did you know her. Her age is 30. She looks like as if she was only 24 and her spirits are excellent. She laughs, and talks and writes all day. She has seen the Godwins and thinks Godwin different to what he seems, he lives so much from his family, only seeing them at stated hours. We do not like that; and he thinks himself such a very great man. He would not let one of his children come to us, just because he had not seen our faces. Just as if writing to a person in which we express all our thoughts, was not a sufficient knowledge of them. I know our friend whom we call *Bessy* just as well when we corresponded as I do now. Such excuses sit not well upon so great a literary character as he is. I might have expected such an excuse from a woman of selfish and narrow mind, but not from Godwin. I must now finish. They all unite in love and affection to our dear little Irishwoman, and believe me more than ever your sincerely attached and affectionate friend

H. S.

VIII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

LYMOUTH, August 11th [1812.]

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

Your friend and our friend *Bessey* has been reading pieces of Irish history and is so much enraged with the characters there mentioned that nothing will satisfy her desire of revenge but the printing and publishing of them to exhibit to the world those characters which are (shameful to say) held up as beings possessing every amiable quality, whilst their hearts are as bad as it is possible to be. They will be shown to the world in a new light, and it will remain to be seen if that world does not repay them as they so eminently deserve. Percy thinks of printing it by subscription. 500 subscribers at seven shillings each will amply repay the printing and publishing. Percy intends to print some proposals for printing Pieces of Irish History, saying that every one whether Irish or English ought to read them. We depend upon you for many subscribers, as being upon the spot where so many of your exalted and brave countrymen suffered martyrdom. I should think there were very many would be glad to put their names to it. There must be many still smarting under the wounds they have seen their brave companions suffer, and all from this hated country of mine. Good God, were I an Irishman or woman how I should hate the English. It is wonderful how the poor Irish people can tolerate them. But I am writing to one who from her example shows them how they ought to tolerate this barbarous nation of ours. Thank God we are not all alike, for I too can hate Lord Castlereagh as much as any Irishwoman. How does my hearts blood run cold at the idea of what he did in your unfortunate country. How is it that man is suffered to walk the streets in open daylight! Oh if I were to meet him I really think I could fly at him, and tear him to pieces! I have drawn a likeness of him and Percy says it is a very good one. You know I have no pretensions to drawing; but sometimes I take up the pen and sketch faces. I have not preserved the horrible countenance but if I were to meet it I should it for him [*sic*]. I cannot bear Curran what use is he to your country? Was he active at the time of the Union? No! if he had been, tho' his life had been the sacrifice, Ireland would have been saved. I have no patience with Curran. I shall convert Mr. *Lawless* I hope from his *idol*. It is too sickening to hear him talk of Curran as he does. We are going to the valley of Llangothlin. It is much nearer to Ireland than we are here or even at Nangwylt. If we are there next summer I hope we shall see you. Bessy wishes very much to see you. Your last letter won her heart instantly Reading "Pieces of Irish History" has made her so low spirited. She possesses too much feeling for her own happiness. I am in great hopes she will get the better of her low spirits. May I ask how are your spirits and your health. If they are but as good as I wish them to be it will make me very happy. You do not let your feelings get the better of your reason If you do I am extremely sorry, as I shall know from that you are not as happy as you ought to be. They all unite in the kindest regards to the dear little Irishwoman, and believe me most sincerely your attached friend

H. S.

[Note added by P. B. Shelley.]

I shall print proposals for publishing by subscription, and if you could send us any names you would much benefit the *cause*. We determine at any rate to publish the Irish History. It is a matter of doubt with me whether any bookseller will dare to put his name to it. This will be no obstacle.

IX.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

LEWIS'S HOTEL, ST. JAMES'S STREET, LONDON [undated, 1812].

My dear Mrs. Nugent

You will smile at my address, wondering how and where we have been during the long interval which has taken place since the receipt of your last letter. I believe I mentioned that we were going to the Vale of Langothlin there to remain at least for the winter season; but I know not how it is that whenever we fix upon any particular place of residence something comes to take us to another. Instead of going to Langothlen we went to a New town which is called Tremadoc. It is built upon land that has been saved from the sea by a Mr. Madock, M.P. for Boston. The character of this man is such as to call forth our warmest admiration and esteem. He is what we call a true *patriot* in every sense of the word. He loves his country dearly and always stands up for the interests and welfare of the poor. He is building an embankment which does honour to him and is an ornament to his country; but unfortunately possessing only a small fortune, when compared with the immense sums that others possess, he has not sufficient to finish the undertaking which has cost him 12 years hard labour. We came up to London in the hopes of raising a subscription that would finish; but as yet nothing is done. Bysshe's being a minor lays us under many unpleasant affairs and makes us obliged to depend upon in a great measure the will of others, in the manner of raising money, and without which nothing is to be done. We have seen the Godwins. Need I tell you that I love them all? You have read his works therefore you know how you feel towards the author. His manners are so soft and pleasing that I defy even an enemy to be displeased with him. We have the pleasure of seeing him daily, and upon his account we determined to settle near London. For long journeys do not agree with him, having never been in the habit of travelling when a young man. There is one of the daughters of that dear Mary

Wolstoncroft living with him. She is 19 years of age, very plain, but very sensible. The beauty of her mind fully overbalances the plainness of her countenance. There is another daughter of hers, who is now in Scotland. She is very much like her mother, whose picture hangs up in his study. She must have been a most lovely woman. Her countenance speaks her a woman who would dare to think and act for herself. I wish you could share the pleasure we enjoy in his company. He is quite a family man. He has one son by his present wife a little boy of nine years old. He is extremely clever, and will I have no doubt, follow the same enlightened path that Godwin has before him. Godwin is particularly fond of Curran and I am to be introduced to Miss Curran on Sunday. How comes [or came] [paper torn] in England, can you solve this problem? You know that Mrs Godwin keeps a bookseller's shop. She conducts the whole herself. I am in great hopes she will succeed. They are sometimes very much pressed for enough ready money. They require such an immense capital; but taking every thing as it goes, I think they will succeed. The many trials that Mrs Godwin has had to encounter make me very much inclined to believe her a woman of great fortitude and unyielding temper of mind. There is a very great sweetness marked in her countenance. In many instances she has shown herself a woman of very great magnanimity and independence of character. Oh if you could see them all tomorrow. I am going to stay all day with them. G. is very much taken with Percy. He seems to delight so much in his society. He has given up everything for the sake of our society. It gives me so much pleasure to sit and look at him. Have you ever seen a bust of Socrates, for his head is very much like that? Percy, Bessey and Eliza desire to be remembered most affectionately to you. Percy says he wishes you to go to Stockdales, and get all his manuscript poems and other pieces. I am afraid you will be obliged to use a little manœuvre to get them In the first place you can say you wish to look at them, and then you may be able to stout them away from him. I leave it all to you, knowing you will do your best, in the way to obtain them, and believe me ever most sincerely your attached friend H. Shelley.

P. S. If I have said anything wrong pray forgive me.

X.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Stratford upon Avon
November 14th [1812]

My dear Mrs. Nugent

My last letter to you was from London, which place I left on Friday the 13th, and am now on my way to Tunyralt our beautiful Welsh cottage. The reasons of your silence I am at a loss to account for. Unless your answer has not been delivered to me, a circumstance not at all impossible, considering the hotel we lodged at. Do not think from this that we are backward in our enquiries every day respecting letters. They are and always will be the first objects of our solicitude, when coming from so dear a friend as yourself. The lady I have so often mentioned to you, of the name of Hitchener has to our very great happiness left us. We were entirely deceived in her character as to republicanism, and in short everything else which she pretended to be. We were not long in finding out our great disappointment in her. As to any noble disinterested views it is utterly impossible for a selfish character to feel them. She built all her hopes upon being able to separate me from my dearly loved Percy, and had the artfulness to say that Percy was really in love with her, and it was only his being married that could keep her within bounds now. Percy had seen her once before his marriage. He thought her sensible but nothing more. She wrote continually, and at last I wrote to her, and was very much charmed with her letters. We thought it a thousand pities such a mind as hers appeared to be should be left in a place like that she inhabited. We therefore were very urgent for her to come and live with us; which was no sooner done than we found out our mistake. It was a long time ere we could possibly get her away, till at last Percy said he would give her a £100 per annum. And now thank God she has left us never more to return. We are much happier now than all the time she was with us. Have you been able to get the poems from Stockdale? If not it cannot be helped, but do pray write to us, for we are quite uneasy at not hearing from you for so long a time. Direct your letters to me at Tunyralt, near the town of Tremadoc (in Carnarvonshire, North Wales). It is 260 miles from London, but the loveliest place I have seen many a day. We are not very far from Ireland. If you could so manage it as to come to us in the Spring, you know not the happiness you would confer upon our little circle, which is now just as you beheld it in your own native air. I have got the Irish Melodies, which I intend to study. If you know of any good old Irish song I should esteem it a favor to hear of it. I must now say adieu, and believe me truly your affectionate friend

H. S.

Percy and Eliza desire not to be forgotten.

Alfred Webb.

Correspondence.

TWO KEYNOTES TO CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think that no one can have read your paper for the last few months without a conviction that civil-service reform in this country has proved a failure; that, notwithstanding the elaborate organization of the Civil-Service Commission, the political pressure for offices, if not as extensive, is just as great as ever; that how far it is yielded to depends entirely upon the personal character of the President; that even such resistance as was made by Mr. Cleveland showed almost superhuman resolution and strength of character, while the ordinary occupants of the Presidential chair which our system produces, would bend before it like a reed before the tempest; that public opinion cannot be kept up to the constant strain necessary to secure even partial success; and that there are signs that even the Civil-Service Commission, with its complete absence of public responsibility, may in time become the corrupt instrument of the spoils system.

There is no sweeter phrase which the human mouth can utter than, "I told you so," but I hope it is less in this spirit than for the lesson to be derived, that I refer to the fact that, from the outset, I have steadily maintained that this would and must be the result. So long as public office means not something to do, but something to get; as all leadership and individuality are absent from public life; as politics are built up from below and not guided from above; as nominations, and therefore elections, are made by anonymous bodies worked by trading wire-pullers, the people having no voice in and knowing nothing about the matter; as the elected do their work secretly, freed from responsibility, and therefore debarred from the possibility of honor and credit and the risk of personal condemnation—so long will no human force be adequate to prevent the offices from being used as the tools in the political game. The only way to prevent the President and the heads of departments (who, be it observed, hold full power in their hands) from joining in this game, is to make it cost them more to yield to than to refuse the office-seekers. This would be the case if these heads of departments had to stand up daily before a body of several hundred men, and therefore before the whole country, and were open to individual question and answer. A half-dozen determined civil-service reformers could make it so hot for them that before long they would rather beat off a whole tide of office-seekers than encounter such an ordeal.

It seems as if the sarcasms of such a paper as *Puck* must make the most thick-skinned wince; but they are seen by comparatively few persons and have no weight of authority. The same strokes would have a very different effect if applied in an arena towards which every eye in the country was naturally turned, and would be under such circumstances, with greatly increased interest.

It is a curious illustration of how political problems are repeated in national and local affairs, that your last number contains an attack upon Mayor Grant for filling the offices with the Tammany Democracy. The law of November, 1884, gave to the Mayor of New York the absolute power of appointment without confirmation by the Aldermen. It thus greatly increased the possibilities of good government by a good mayor without corresponding gain in the case of a bad mayor. The security should be precisely the same as with the general Government. If the Board of Aldermen, now apparently stripped of all functions except those of intrigue, were converted into a body of independent critics before whom the Mayor and his officials were compelled constantly to appear to make answer to individuals, the whole people of the city would be led to form an opinion of their Mayor, and to take an interest in electing the right man.

In a government by public opinion two things are necessary: first, that public opinion should be informed, and, secondly, that it should be brought to bear. And these things, again, are to be arrived at through two principles which, in our present organizations, are conspicuous by their absence—somebody to be responsible, and somebody to enforce responsibility. This is the keynote to civil-service or any other reform.

G. B.

Boston, June 1, 1889.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I enclose, in the form of a clipping from the Chicago *Journal* of May 18, a specimen of the sort of enlightenment this community obtains on the important subject of civil-service reform from one of its leading apostles of advanced thought, and a professed idealist at that, Prof. David Swing. The *Nation* alone, it seems to me, could so handle the rich material contained in this curious contribution to a discussion which I had hitherto regarded as advanced at least to the dead point where theoretic argument is exhausted, as to bring out the ludicrous aspect of this professorial plea for the better and more perpetual establishment of a government of offensive partisanship, by offensive partisanship, and for offensive partisanship.

Prof. Swing appears to be pretty well pleased with the election of Gen. Harrison to the Presidency, and yet he does not bear himself as a contented and satisfied Republican ought. He toys with the vice of Mugwumpery to the extent of being afraid that Mr. Harrison "can easily resist the pressure of the abstract truth that the President should, on entering his office, cease to be a politician." On the other hand, he has had some vexatious experiences with the business working of the Chicago Post-office (which of us has not, I should like to know?), and this has satisfied him that "the Civil-Service Law has proved itself to be one of the failures of the age." He is alarmed lest a too scrupulous observance of its spirit prevents the clean sweep of which he sees the necessity; for "its cardinal idea was to make an infant-school of the nation, to which school green

persons could be sent four years to be prepared for a second four years." Incompetency and illiteracy, protected by the Civil-Service Law, are everywhere battening on the emoluments of public office; eminent men are remaining abroad in our diplomatic service more than four years, to the great detriment of their country and patriotism, forgetting the simple republicanism to which they were erst inured, and acquiring a distaste for homespun American joys. "The average old-timer at Washington should be permitted to return to private life. He has become a part of a machine. His long term has not made him into a statesman, but into a boss." The outs are as bad as the ins, or worse—not because a large proportion are totally unfit and untrained for the offices they seek, and which the present incumbents do not particularly adorn, but rather because "all the men who, having served under Grant or Arthur, were discharged by Mr. Cleveland, are back now seeking office again under the new President." Such a spectacle of greed is indeed revolting! "Office-seekers, as a class, are a type of manhood that should be broken up."

The curve of Prof. Swing's thought presents a remarkable series of osculations with the perverse Mugwump doctrines he has condemned. It is the remedy for this state of things proposed by him that is radically different from anything the civil-service reformers have yet thought of. This is no less than "a Constitutional provision that should make all Federal offices expire at the end of four years, and never be renewable again to the same man." "Men who have served one term should be retired for ever." "Others just as capable and just as worthy are waiting." "That law would end 'offensive partisanship,' because a large amount of the vice of Presidential campaigns comes from the frantic efforts of those in office to remain in, and from the money raised by assessing those who are drawing salaries from the Nation."

In other words, we here have the edifying spectacle of a prominent literary and journalistic expounder of moral questions, a clergyman and a professional teacher, contending, ostensibly in the interest of efficient and decent government, for the principle that public office is a national feeding-trough, from which a Constitutional provision is to drive away greedy hogs, at the rate of 25,000 a year, in order that other animals may have their turn at the hog-wash. "No citizen should monopolize what honor there may be on the hands of the country to give to worthy sons."

I have long followed Mr. Swing's utterances with an unusual interest—an interest strengthened by the personal incident of having been his successor in one of the classical recitation-rooms at "old Miami" University—and with considerable sympathy. It is, therefore, as a representative of a portion of his audience whose prejudices are altogether in his favor that I would say to him: If such a political ideal as this, even though tempered by the highly practical collateral suggestion that "offices should be filled up by a process of selection in which the man selected should play no part," is the logical outcome of your idealism, we shall be compelled to look around us for an idealism of a totally different type.

Respectfully, ALFRED EMERSON.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY, ILL., May 30, 1889.

BALLOT REFORM IN OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent enumeration of States where progress in ballot reform had been made, you failed to include Ohio, whose Legislature passed a local bill applicable to this city, providing for the printing and distribution of election tickets at public expense. A bill embodying the Australian plan for the whole State was introduced by Senator Taylor of Bedford, but failed by a single vote.

Respectfully, L. B. TUCKERMAN.

CLEVELAND, O., May 28, 1889.

THE PROTECTION OF GOLD AND SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1246 of the *Nation* you say: "We have not yet put any duty on the precious metals, but is it not time to do so?" In an interview with Gov. Stanford by G. A. Townsend, published in the San Francisco *Examiner* a week or two prior to the Presidential election, Gov. Stanford advocated the protection of American silver. The Western protectionist brain can advance more purely tom-fool theories than are dreamed of in the effete East. Y.

"TRY *AND*."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Caskie Harrison says that "with past tenses *and* cannot take the place of *to*." If usage is to be taken as the standard (and usage is a hard master) in this, as in the other instances cited by him, his statement does not hold good, for, shortly after reading his letter in the *Nation* of May 23, I came across the following passage in Thackeray's 'Vanity Fair': "Nor did Dobbin try and convince him that Amelia's happiness was not centred in turtle-soup." Who would venture to assert that *to* was not the correct expression here, as in the other instances given? Indeed, Prof. Harrison's very argument as to why *and* should not be used with the past is the chief reason why it might. He says: "The past being the domain of fact only, the main event, once contingent, either did or did not occur." This would be ample justification for saying "he tried and did it," though every one will acknowledge that the preliminary "is no longer important as such." In other words, it is only after the trying is over that we can say whether the main event did or did not happen as the result of the trying. As to the stress laid by Prof. Harrison on the past as being the domain of fact, the generic present is also the domain of fact, for the generic present embraces the past, too, so that when you say, "I try to read a little every day," the trying has already begun, the statement holding good for all time.

The quotation from Cicero (De Or. I, xlvi) I have *tried to find*, but have not succeeded. The passage may be incorrectly located. I will *try to find* it elsewhere. If I *try and find* it, I shall feel amply compensated for having tried, but even as early an instance as that, in classic Latin prose, can surely prove nothing. It may be regarded as an early exemplification of a tendency that is indefensible. It is illogical, whatever the language may be in which it occurs, and ought to be expunged from all. Cicero himself was guilty of such things even at his best, and his most ardent admirers will scarcely attempt to say that his diction was always perfect.

R. L. PRESTON.

CENTRAL UNIVERSITY, RICHMOND, KY., May 29, 1889.

THE STANDARD OF PRONUNCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few evenings ago I was at supper with a young physician from Glasgow. All of a sudden, apropos of nothing, he inquired, "What is the German for *yawt*?" "For what?" "For *yawt*, a boat." "Oh, you mean *yacht*. We call it *yŏt* in America." "Well, then, you are certainly wrong."

To avoid a dispute, I brought out a small pronouncing manual in which the various sounds of *o* are given, with three or four model words as keys to the pronunciation. We agreed in the pronunciation of all but two classes. *Wool, foot, good*, he pronounced *wule, fute, gude*. *Yacht* is transcribed *yŏt*, and the test words are *nŏt, ŏdd, resŏlve*, which he pronounced *nawt, awd, resawlve*. "So, you see," remarked he, "that you are wrong, even on the authority of your own book."

To this knockdown argument there was of course no reply; but in thinking over the affair since, I could not help asking myself whose pronunciation is to be taken as the standard in that golden age of the future when we shall all write "Glossic" or "Romic." Our spelling is without question a rock of offence and a stone of stumbling, but no inconsiderable obstacle in the way of reform is the inability to reach settled conclusions as to what sounds are in question. My friend from Glasgow makes no distinction of sound in pronouncing *not* and *naught*, *sot* and *sought*, *rot* and *wrought*. Ellis says distinctly that there is no fixed standard of English pronunciation, though there are several ways of pronouncing English correctly. Who is to settle the question for us, the Scotchman, the Londoner, the Bostonian, or the "boomer" from Guthrie City?

Respectfully yours,

WILLIAM EDWARD MEAD.

BERLIN, May 20, 1889.

TOLSTOI AND HIS TRANSLATORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read in your issue of May 16 a letter from Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, in which he takes the French translators of Russian novels to task for changing certain phrases and altering somewhat the meaning of certain sentences. Mr. Dole is the last one who should make such a charge. His translation of Tolstoi's masterpiece, 'Anna Karénina,' is almost totally spoiled by the omission of the greater portion of chapter xi., book ii. This chapter is the ethical key to the whole work. One gets an entirely different idea of the characters of Vronsky and Anna from that given in Mr. Dole's translation, when one reads in the French this marvellous presentation of the truth that the punishment of sin commences with the very act, and that to noble natures like Anna there is no delicious period of sinning before the inevitable remorse. Mr. Dole has not only cut out this perfect scene, but he has also, by introducing words of his own, endeavored to hide his fault, and make it appear that no omission was made. I suppose that he imagined he had saved his conscience by saying in the preface that he had omitted some scenes "in deference to our Puritan taste." People prefer the French translations because they expect to find there the whole work of the writer, not garbled to suit any "taste" whatever. The omission I have mentioned is not the only one of which Mr. Dole is guilty; they are only too numerous, and render his work valueless to any one who wishes to know the great Russian writer as he really is.—Yours, etc., WM. SCHUYLER.

3411 WALNUT STREET, ST. LOUIS, MO., May 24, 1889.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I make some corrections in the re-

port of the recent meeting of the American Oriental Society, which is found in the *Nation* of May 30? First, as regards the Manuscript Committee, its work is not so far advanced as would appear from the statement that over four hundred MSS. have already been examined. What the Committee reported was that, on the basis of returns from most of the public libraries, and from some private collections, the number of Oriental MSS. of all sorts in the country was estimated to be not less than four hundred. A rough classification, by languages, of the much smaller number the titles of which are actually in hand, was also presented.

The copy of Shihâb ed-Dîn's philological commentary on the Alfîya which I described is dated A. H. (*not* A. D.) 894, and the subscription fixes the composition of the work in A. H. 840. The copy of the commentary on the Alfîya which goes under the name of Ashmûnî is not dated, nor was any opinion expressed as to its age. So far from proving in my paper "that its authorship must be attributed to Ashmûnî," I held exactly the opposite opinion, viz., that the attestation which the three MSS. we know give to the current attribution, is not of a character to outweigh the explicit statement of Hâgî Khalfa that the author was Esh-Shumunnî. The Hebrew manuscript from the Andover Library was written in Southern Arabia, A. D. 1330, and contains a considerable collection of poetry, both liturgical and non-liturgical, but I should hardly say "chiefly for weddings, etc." Nordheimer is named in this connection by mistake.—Respectfully yours,

GEORGE F. MOORE.

ANDOVER, MASS., June 1, 1889.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. will publish, in connection with Bickers & Son of London, an *édition de luxe* of Swift's Works in nineteen volumes, octavo. Only 250 copies will be placed on the American market. The reprint is after Sir Walter Scott's second edition. The same firm also announces 'The Beginnings of New England,' hitherto unpublished lectures by John Fiske; and 'Indoor Studies,' by John Burroughs.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue directly the first two volumes of Theodore Roosevelt's historical work, 'The Winning of the West.'

'Follies, Foibles, and Fancies of Fish, Flesh, and Fowl,' a small quarto collection of amusing pictures of animal life, about to be brought out by Frederick Warne & Co., will interest the admirers of Birket Foster as being the production of that artist's son.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, are to be the American publishers of the annual photogravure record of the Paris Salon, whose text will this year be Englished.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately, by arrangement, 'Unknown Switzerland,' by Victor Tissot, translated by Mrs. Wilson; 'Fishin' Jimmy,' by Annie Trumbull Slosson, with illustrations; a new illustrated edition of Mrs. E. Prentiss's 'Stepping Heavenward'; 'The Imitation of Christ,' by Thomas Kempis, set forth in rhythmic sentences, according to the original intention of the author; and 'How They Kept the Faith,' a tale of the Huguenots in Languedoc, by Grace Raymond.

A new story by Robert Louis Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne, with the title of 'The Wrong Box,' will be published by the Scribners in a fortnight.

From Macmillan & Co. we have volumes 13 and 14 of the author's edition of Browning's Poetical Works—the former containing "Aristophanes's Apology" and the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus; the latter, "Pacchiarotto," and other minor poems of the fruitful years 1876–1878.

A work of obvious utility makes its first annual issue as 'The Manual of American Water-Works,' compiled from special returns, edited by M. N. Baker, and published from the *Engineering News* office in this city. It appears to be a very excellent performance. Turning to Johnstown, Pa., the scene of Friday's appalling disaster from flood, we find mention of three reservoirs in addition to the lake which burst its bounds, all more than 150 feet above the menaced city, with its estimated 30,000 inhabitants.

Another beginning is the 'Handy Lists of Technical Literature,' a reference catalogue of books printed in English from 1880 to 1888 inclusive, besides a select list of books printed before 1880 and still procurable (Milwaukee, Wis.: National Publishing and Printing Co.; London: B. F. Stevens). Part I. deals with the useful arts in general; products and processes used in manufacture; technology, and trades. It is both an author (or title) and subject catalogue, under one alphabet, with cross references; an accompanying key explains the abbreviations of names of publishers and serves as a directory to their several publications in the catalogue, but is sold only to booksellers and librarians. This laborious work has been compiled with great intelligence, and with all the details needful for the student or the bookseller, by H. E. Haferkorn and Paul Heise. Six more parts are in preparation, and will cover exhaustively the field embraced in the general title.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May contains articles on recent Danish explorations of Greenland, by H. Rink, on the Flora of Schleswig-Holstein, by Dr. E. Krause, accompanied by a map, and the first part of a description of a journey to the sources of the Tigris, by Prof. J. Wünsch. An account of Stanley's expedition, by H. Wichmann, calls attention to the extraordinary fact that not a letter nor even a message appears to have been sent by Emin Pasha through Stanley to his friends in Europe. There is an admirable map of the route taken by the expedition. The undiminished interest in Africa is shown by the fact that in the review of recent geographical literature there are noted 202 books and papers in scientific periodicals relating to this continent.

A school wall-map of the Persian and Macedonian Empires, compiled by Dr. Henry Kiepert, has just been issued by Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, in six sheets. It includes a side map of the kingdoms of Alexander's successors, and shows the routes of the Ten Thousand and of Alexander. The territory portrayed—or at least the Asiatic part of it—seems at some future date more likely to be labelled Russia than by any other name of modern political geography.

The Council-General of the Faculties of Paris has just made its annual report to the Minister of Public Instruction. During the academical year 1887–'88, the number of regular students at the University of Paris has risen to 10,320, a gain of 91 over the year before. Of these 886 were foreigners. The number of women students was 271, viz.: 2 in law, 117 in medicine, 16 in sciences, and 142 in letters.

In the last number of the quarterly publication of the Société des Amis des Monuments there is a note from an architect, M. Charles Durard, which conveys some curious information about the tomb of Montaigne. He says that the late M. de Tauzia of the Louvre bought some years ago of an old-iron man an ancient grille, which had evidently been part of a tomb, and bore upon it hatchments of sheet iron, repoussé, showing the arms of Montaigne. M. de Tauzia admired this greatly as one of the very finest works of the end of the sixteenth century, and was full of scorn for the municipality and the architect who had thrown away such a treasure. "But," goes on M. Durard, "this ancient masterpiece was made in 1846, after a design by your humble servant, at the time of the restoration carried on by my father. The name of the man who forged it was Chavanton, and one Cognard set it up."

The new Superintendent of the Census announces that Dr. John S. Billings, Surgeon U. S. Army, has consented to take charge of the Report on the Mortality and Vital Statistics of the United States as returned by the Eleventh Census. In default of any national system of registration of vital statistics, such as is relied upon by other countries for the purpose of ascertaining the actual movement of population, the Census Office is issuing to the medical profession throughout the country "Physician's Registers" for the purpose of obtaining more accurate returns of deaths than it is possible for the enumerators to make. The record should be kept from June 1, 1889, to May 31, 1890. Nearly 26,000 of these registration books were filled up and returned to the office in 1880, and nearly all of them were used for statistical purposes. Physicians not receiving Registers can obtain them by sending their names and addresses to the Census Office, and, with the Register, an official envelope (which requires no stamp) will be provided for their return to Washington. All information obtained through this source will be held strictly confidential.

—Mr. Grant Allen, who has recently written a book to show that he is not capable of comprehending the meaning which scientific men attach to such terms as energy and force, has settled the woman question in six pages, in a late number of the *Forum*. Women, he has discovered, have been "told off" from the race for the purpose of reproduction, and it is a subversion of the laws of nature for them to look forward to performing a more varied part in the human economy. As a reply to Prof. Lester F. Ward's paper on "Our Better Halves," this article is conspicuously inadequate. Prof. Ward wrote in support of two leading propositions—first, that there is no analogy between the subjection of women in modern society and the decorative superiority of males among birds and mammals; and, second, that, if the whole of organic nature be taken into account, the female sex is the main trunk and type of life, the male sex being, as it were, an *arrière pensée* of nature. Neither of these positions is affected by Mr. Grant Allen's reply. To deny the first it would be necessary to show that female birds and mammals are so exhausted by the reproductive function as to be obliged to depend upon the males for food, shelter, and protection from enemies, both for themselves and their young. Not a single fact is given to show that this is the case, and we can only conclude that none worth adducing are to be had. To deny the second, Grant Allen shows that various influences have tended to cause certain forms to be set apart for certain purposes, but the cases he cites are among the best that could be chosen in support of the view that the female is the important half of most species of animals. By a transparent *suppressio veri*, he fails to tell his readers that the working bee and the honey ant are structu-

rally females, and he does not give a single case where the whole female sex is exclusively occupied with reproduction.

—If we assume, as we fairly may for animals, that there are only two functions, reproduction and nutrition, and that superiority is measured by the degree to which a being exercises both of them, and especially the latter, then there are any number of cases in which the females are superior, and not one in which the males are superior. For even in mammals and birds that exhibit the greatest inequality in the sexes, all females perform both these functions, and are not only self-sustaining and self-protecting, but, in addition to this, are able to feed, shelter, and defend their young whenever they require it, for the most part unaided by the males. On the other hand, the differences which characterize the males have nothing to do with the nutritive function, are often a hindrance to it, are chiefly ornamental, often an obstruction to activity, and, when calculated to add strength, do so in a manner that is never applied, and cannot be applied, to supplying the body with nourishment, much less to furnishing it to dependents. From this point of view, the stag, with his cumbersome antlers to be grown and shed every year; the peacock, with his gaudy tail-feathers of no use in flight; and all the other male creatures having purely ornamental characters due to sexual selection, may be considered to be, to a certain extent, "told off" for reproductive purposes, while the females enjoy the normal exercise of both the reproductive and the nutritive functions. Both Prof. Ward and Grant Allen seem not to have given sufficient weight to the fact, amply made out by Galton, that father and mother are exactly equally concerned in giving children their qualities, the practical conclusion to be drawn from which is that not to give mothers the best attainable development, both from study and from the active exercise of such faculties as they may have, is to dwarf the human race of one-half the progress which each generation ought to insure it.

—*Artistic Japan*, a monthly journal of which the first year is nearly completed, is a publication in small folio, of Parisian origin, but with a good deal of English as well as French editing. It is announced as the publication of Mr. S. Bing, one of the most extensive dealers of Paris in Oriental art treasures, who has, or had a few years ago, a large establishment in the Rue La Fayette and another on the ground floor in the Rue de la Paix, and was a liberal contributor to loan exhibitions (New York, 220 Fifth Avenue). On the title-page a score of co-editors are named, and it is stated that the English edition is under the special control of Mr. Marcus B. Huish, President of the London Fine Art Society, and author of a little book recently reviewed in these columns, 'Japan and Its Art.' This publication, therefore, may be taken as a quite complete declaration of the European students of Japanese art as to their ideas of it. It is hardly necessary to insist on the difference that exists of interest between the European view of Japanese art and the Japanese view of it, nor upon the superiority of the latter. If it were possible for us to have and to understand a Japanese book or periodical by a competent author or editor upon this topic, it would be more difficult indeed to master, and the European reader would have to make some perceptible intellectual effort to put himself at the point of view taken by the Oriental; but the result would be immeasurably more instructive. On the other hand, the present work appeals to a much wider circle of readers and amateurs, and it will undoubtedly carry a feeling for the higher qualities of Japanese decoration to quarters where otherwise but little would be known of them. Each number appears to have one solid leading article. In No. 2, Mr. Gonse, the well-known author of the large and costly book, 'L'Art Japonais,' writes on "The Japanese as Decorators," an obvious subject for a "leader"; and in Nos. 2 and 3, Mr. Victor Champier gives an article on "Japanese Architecture," which is rather a misnomer, as there is very little attempt in it to analyze the building art of the Japanese, and the author contents himself with a few words about the peculiar heavy framing in wood which is a device to diminish the harm done by earthquakes, and goes on to interior decoration, and small details (such as the sculpture and ornamental piercings and accessories), which may be as well studied in Europe as in Japan. Apart from these articles, which are certainly cursory and hasty enough, the text seems to limit itself to the explanations of the plates, and leaves unexplained all that most needs explanation. The plates are of varied merit. The uncolored photographic reproductions are without sufficient sharpness and accuracy of outline and detail, and give no information to the would-be student. On the other hand, the reproductions of color decoration are very clever, the character of the soft half-tints affected by the Japanese being well rendered, and one or two plates of brocaded stuffs that we have examined furnishing what must be quite admirable facsimiles of the beautiful originals. There are a multitude of black-and-white illustrations in the text, all, or nearly all, facsimiled from Japanese originals. In short, the value of the publication is in its illustrations, and these may be very instructive to every person who is not the happy possessor of a large collection of treasures of Japanese art.

—The Halliwell-Phillipps Library is advertised to be sold by auction in the present month of June. Several of its curios were only discovered after long search by Mr. Phillipps late in 1888. Concerning one, "Wellobie, his Avisa," he says in the margin, "I bought this volume of Quaritch in November, 1888, for fifteen pounds." Regarding another, "Vince's Tour," No. 42 in the catalogue, he spoke in his very last letter to us as among his most recent acquisitions. Two others, at least, of the forty-seven gems chronicled in the catalogue were acquired by Mr. Phillipps in 1888. Noting that the Hollingbury Copse preciosities were no sooner gathered than scattered, we say "the wedding baked meats do coldly furnish forth the funeral tables." In the list of Shaksperiana now about to be sold, the *editio princeps* of Shakspere himself stands first. It deserves that proud eminence. That edition, published in 1623 and sold for one pound a copy, was sold in 1885 for a thousand guineas to N. Q. Pope of Chicago. The highest price before paid was £716 2s., in 1864, by Miss Burdett-Coutts. The book is so rare, and so large a proportion of its specimens are entombed in monumental libraries, that it seldom comes into market. Quaritch, offering one for sale this season, claimed that nothing like it had been purchasable for twenty-four years. In 1879 no more than thirty-seven sales of it, made since 1787, were known to Allibone. The copies in America may be counted on one's fingers. There are two in the Lenox Library and one in the Astor. We know of none in Philadelphia but that of Mr. Furness. In our catalogues of Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania libraries, as well as that of Congress and of the New Dominion at Toronto, the city libraries of Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, and San Francisco, it is wanting. The Phillipps copy was bought in 1867 for £410. That offered by Quaritch is priceless in his catalogue among thousands of priced books. In one point at least the Phillipps is a greater rarity than the Quaritch, and was no doubt an earlier impression. On p. 172 *and* is misprinted *add*, and *tis* for *kiss*. All other copies known, save that of the Earl of Ellesmere, were struck off after these blunders had been discovered and corrected. It is to be hoped that Mr. Poole, who is seeking for the Newberry Library in Chicago volumes that will be "prized above a dukedom," has secured for it one of those Kohinoors which, like the Sibylline books, are constantly becoming fewer, and, what is worse, are held at a fast-growing price.

—Buffalo Bill, with the Greatest Show on Earth ("l'attraction la plus grande du monde"), has arrived in Paris, and receives from the *Figaro* a welcome, two columns long, in which the French reporter fairly turns himself loose, and paints a picture which, in the breadth and freedom of its handling and its frank gayety of color, recalls the earlier, or the earliest, manner of our own Mr. George Alfred Townsend. When the brilliant newspaper-man goes out to meet the incoming ship, he says:

"Le *Persian-Monarch* ralentit son allure pour nous donner le temps de virer et de nous remettre en marche de conserve avec lui. Pendant ce temps, la musique de Buffalo-Bill, qui s'est rassemblée à la hâte, exécute le *Yankee Doddle*, l'air national américain.

"—Vive la France! s'écrient les passagers du *Monarch* aussitôt l'air fini.

"—Vive l'Amérique! répondons-nous.

"Nouvelle musique—la *Marseillaise* cette fois."

Then he describes, always brilliantly, *le colonel* Cody, and Red Shirt, and Gabriel Dumont, Riel's lieutenant in Manitoba, who very singularly has a French name, and the Sioux "des tribus des Cutoïs, Arapahœ, Brulay," and afterwards he is presented to "Miss Annie Oakley, la fameuse 'reine du Riffle' américaine, qui tire la carabine et le pistolet comme Ira Paine." But, after all, it is the noble savage that impresses him most deeply:

"Quant aux Peaux-Rouges, ils se promènent majestueux et fiers. . . . Seulement, comme j'ouvre mon porte-cigarettes, vingt mains couvertes de tatouages se tendent vers l'étui. Je fais un signe affirmatif. En un clin d'œil, le porte-cigarettes est vide.

"Il est vrai que je suis récompensé par des *owah! owah!* de satisfaction.

"Et maintenant," he says in ending, "souhaitons à tous la bienvenue, aux Canadiens si français par le cœur, aux Peaux-Rouges, aux Américains et, comme on dit dans leur pays: *Let her go Galeghear!*"

—On May 12 there passed away another of the great generation of Russian writers, Mikháil Yevgráfovitch Saltykóff, who wrote under the name of Stchedrin. The son of a well-to-do noble in the province of Tver, he was born in 1826, and, after finishing his education in the Lyceum of Tsarskoe-Selo, "that nursery of statesmen," entered the chancery of the Minister of War. The two first stories which he wrote, innocent as they were, excited displeasure, and he was transferred to Viatka on the edge of Siberia, where he was attached to the Governor. It was not till 1855 that he obtained permission to return to St. Petersburg, but he continued in the Government service till 1863, reaching the rank of actual State Counsellor, equal to that of major-general. He was thus able to acquire a wide knowledge of Russian administration and Russian administrators. In 1856 he published his 'Provincial Sketches,' satirical, humorous, pathetic, a book which created a great sensation and settled his

literary reputation. With the poet Nekrásoff, he edited the *Annals of the Fatherland* from 1868 until it was suppressed in 1884, and gave himself entirely to satirical writing. His books, whether mere sketches or in the form of novels, were devoted to the exposure of venality, corruption, and wrong-doing in every class of life; the denunciation of reactionaries and theorists, and of the abuses which even reform made possible. In order to write freely, he was obliged to develop a terminology of his own, and even then many of his best things have probably never seen the light. It is told of him that on one occasion he printed a piece of arrant nonsense, subsequently explaining that this was a specimen of the only kind of stuff that the censors would permit him to publish. The books by which he is best known are 'Tashkentians' and 'Male and Female Pompadours.' His Tashkent has nothing to do with Central Asia, but lies everywhere, and his Tashkentian is a synonym for a diffuser of enlightenment who has no education or basis of his own, a civilizer for the personal and practical advantages to be obtained by the work. Curiously enough, Tashkentians in this sense are as numerous in Am rica as in Russia, though here they are called "men sound on the main question." "Pompadours" are, however, rarely to be found out of Russia. This term immediately hit the popular sense. It is impossible to translate it, but a short journey in the interior of Russia, with proper introductions to the authorities, would soon enable one to comprehend its meaning. As a satirist, Saltykóff will stand in the first rank of the world's literature, and his death is to be deplored, although for some time past he had written little or nothing.

THE WAR HOSPITAL.

My Story of the Civil War. Narrative of Four Years' Personal Experience with the Sanitary Service of the Rebellion. By Mary A. Livermore. Hartford: Worthington & Co.

The Other Side of the War: With the Army of the Potomac. Letters from the Headquarters U. S. Sanitary Commission in 1862. By Katherine Prescott Wormeley. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

"INASMUCH as ye have done it unto the least of these, ye have done it to me." Eloquent sermons have been preached from this text, but we question if any have made a deeper impression than will the perusal of the books whose titles are given above. They contain an account of the work of some noble women who, by precept and example, did much to tinge with silver the dark clouds of the war. Mrs. Livermore's story is a sharp photograph of a phase of war in which the virtues of patience, faith, hope, charity, and mercy were practically applied. Commencing with the first gun at Sumter, she outlines the progress of events to the assassination of Lincoln, dwelling upon the work of the Sanitary Commission as it came under her notice during a close acquaintanceship with the horrors of war. Seldom does one meet with so rich an experience of human nature. The reader must be made of stern or indifferent stuff who can peruse this book without having his heart deeply stirred. If an American heart, it must throb with pride at this fresh revelation of heroism—the heroism of the forlorn hope in the face of lingering disease and horrible mutilation.

A marked feature of the work of the Sanitary Commission, in the light of Mrs. Livermore's story, was the wonderful executive ability of many of its gentle representatives in the field. Duties pertaining to half-a-dozen of the great administrative departments of the army were performed with a mingled intelligence, tact, and force that was simply irresistible. Before this new power, red-tape, custom of service, bad roads, want of transportation, as obstacles to prompt succor of the sick and wounded, were promptly brushed aside. The official preference expressed for the Catholic sisters as nurses in hospitals, which is alleged to have existed at an early period of the war, and the reasons assigned for it, are interesting:

"'Your Protestant nurses are always finding some mare's-nest or other,' said one of the surgeons, 'that they can't let alone. They all write for the papers, and the story finds its way into print, and directly we are in hot water. Now the "sisters" never see anything they ought not to see, nor hear anything they ought not to hear, and they never write for the papers; and the result is, we get along very comfortably with them.'"

The gentle and untiring ministrations of the sisters of the Catholic Church are gratefully remembered by thousands of veterans. Their traditions restricted them in the performance of duty to narrower limits than their Protestant colleagues observed; but, as Mrs. Livermore shows, there were cases of incompetency or inefficiency in the medical administration of the vast Union army not to be reached by ordinary operation of the law or orders, and the resources of the North would often have failed to save life had there been none but the regular channels. Hence, as we are told, "the Protestant sisters carried the day, chiefly because of their good sense and worth, and hundreds went to the front before the end of the war, welcomed by both surgeons and patients, and rendering valuable service."

Of such was Mother Bickerdyke, who came of Revolutionary stock, and whose grandfather crossed the Delaware with Washington; but the record of her gallant ancestor pales before the remarkable achievements of this woman, who was a terror to incompetent or dishonest hospital officers, an organizer of relief for sick and wounded, a tender and untiring nurse even upon the battle-field. There is a suggestion of Ethan Allen in her reply to the Medical Director who found her at the rear of a corps after a day of fighting, wearing a Confederate overcoat, and a soft felt hat, and surrounded by camp kettles of soup. Said he: "Madam, you seem to combine in yourself a sick-diet kitchen and a medical staff. May I inquire under whose authority you are working?" Without pausing in her work, she answered: "I have received my authority from the Lord God Almighty: have you anything that ranks higher than that?" Want of space forbids further reference here to the good woman who was trusted by Grant and Sherman, and loved as a mother by hundreds of soldiers, to whom she had given in their hour of need more than a cup of cold water.

The practical workings of the system of voluntary aid in war-time are thoroughly illustrated by a series of anecdotes, from which we make one or two extracts. In the course of her labors with the army before Vicksburg, Mrs. Livermore found in hospital twenty-one soldiers whose cases were pronounced incurable. Owing to the loss of their descriptive lists, stringent orders regarding furloughs, etc., there was no prospect of relief through the regular channels. The surgeons sympathized, but had exhausted official means. Armed with certificates, the gentle missionary boarded Gen. Grant's headquarters boat, and, reaching the main saloon, was told to pass behind a certain curtain-screen at one end. She says:

"I obeyed, and through the blue haze of a cigar-smoke curling through the apartment, I saw Grant sitting at the table, wearing his hat, a cigar in his mouth, one foot on a chair, and buried to his chin in maps, letters, reports, and orders. Whatever *mauvaise honte* I may have felt in thus obtruding myself upon the modest General was speedily banished by his discomposure. For the moment he seemed the most bashful man I had ever encountered. Rising and placing a half-dozen chairs at my service, he begged me to be seated, removing his hat and taking his cigar from his mouth, and then quickly and unconsciously replacing both. I remained standing, and, without any circumlocution whatever, announced my errand and implored his aid. He heard me without interruption. 'But these are matters which should be laid before my Medical Director. I have put all these things out of my hands,' were his first words. Yes, I knew that, and told him so, and I also told him that it was necessary for some one to cut red tape boldly and promptly in behalf of these men; that no subordinate dared do it, but all said he could, and encouraged me to believe that he would; and I besought him, with the earnestness that women felt in these sad cases during the war, to give me the pleasure of restoring these boys to the mothers and sisters and wives, who would lighten with love the dark valley of death into which they were fast descending. I promised, if he gave them discharge and transportation, to take every man to his friends, leaving no one of them until I saw him well cared for. The General briefly examined the documents I gave him, and then said he would let me know to morrow what could be done.

"The next evening an officer of his staff came to our boat and . . . made me supremely happy with the discharge of these twenty-one soldiers. But if I was happy, what shall I say of the poor emaciated fellows who looked for my return to them as one looks for a reprieve from sentence of death? Most of these men were brought North on our sanitary boat. One of them died on the way, and was buried at Memphis, and another died in Chicago; his home was in Wisconsin, and a ride of four hours more would have taken him to the arms of his mother, who was expecting him. But when we reached Chicago, Saturday evening, the train for his town had left, and he was compelled to remain in the city over Sunday. I took him to the hotel near the station from which he was to start on Monday, and when I had seen him comfortable in bed, wished to leave him to telegraph his mother of his nearness to her, and then go to my own family. I promised to send him a nurse in less than an hour and to accompany him home to Wisconsin myself on Monday; but he begged so mildly that I would return myself and stay with him that I consented. . . . He followed me to the door with his beseeching eyes, saying, 'I hate to have you go, for it seems as if I should not see you again.' . . . In less than two hours I was back at his bedside. 'He has been sleeping quietly ever since you left,' said the servant. There he lay as I had left him, with one hand under his head, his face towards the door, that he might see any one who entered the room, sleeping—yes, the sleep of death."

On another occasion she visited a large field hospital containing nearly two hundred men in various stages of chronic disease. They were soon to be sent to St. Louis, but as their only diet had been army rations, it was doubtful if many could stand the journey. Mrs. Livermore says:

"It was a miserable place, although, at that time, and in that locality, the best probably that could be done. The cots were placed inside the tents, on the unplanked ground. The soil was so dropsical that wherever one trod it sank under one's weight, and one immediately stood in a little pool of water. The legs of the cots stood on small square pieces of board, which alone kept them from sinking into the moist earth. The weather was as warm as July in our climate, although it was April, and the atmosphere was dense with gnats, small flies, and every other variety of winged insects. The hospital swarmed with large green flies, and their buzzing was like that of a beehive. The men were hushed to the stillness of death. They had been sick a long while, and had utterly lost heart and hope. Many of them did not even lift their hands to brush away the flies that swarmed into eyes, ears, nose, and mouths."

Into this veritable hotbed of disease and despair entered Mrs. Livermore with good cheer in word and deed. She first aroused the poor fellows with promise of immediate removal North, and then tried to stimulate their appetites with delicacies of which she had an abundance. She commenced with one patient by making tea, out of a small tea-pot, with the following result:

"A hundred pair of eyes had been watching these preparations, and as I set the tin cup of tea and tin plate of toast on the camp stool, I received a score of orders from neighboring beds for some tea and toast 'just like that 'ere.' Crowding his knapsack and pillow behind him, I propped up the forty-five-year-old 'boy' to whose uncertain appetite I was catering, and invited him to taste his 'special diet.' As he tasted, a sickly smile distorted his then ghastly face, which was succeeded by a fit of weeping, his tears literally mingling with his drink. 'Is it good?' I asked. 'It's—proper—good—just—like—what my wife makes'—with the drawl of long sickness and great weakness. I had got into business. 'Tea, tea, tea, with white sugar and milk in it'—was the cry that came up from every bed. I undertook to make tea by the wholesale in the inevitable camp kettle, in which soldiers make tea, coffee, soup, and cook everything. But no, they would have it from my home-spun tea-pot, as one of them called it. 'Don't—let—that—'ere—old—tea-pot o' yourn git played-out—before—you—git to—me,' entreated a Missourian at the further end of the hospital. I explained to him that there was no play-out to the tea-pot; that I had alcohol and tea enough to keep it in active operation for weeks, and he then waited patiently for his turn."

'The Other Side of the War' differs materially in treatment from the book just described. It is a bright sketch of a sad subject, comprising a brief but clear account of the origin and development of the great auxiliary to the Medical Department of the Army, followed by a bundle of letters full of the spirit of the time when McClellan was the idol, and the Army of the Potomac the most completely appointed of the land forces. Miss Wormeley's letters are cheerful in tone, sparkling with clever descriptions of persons and places, and showing an appreciation of the romantic as well as the prosaic side of war. Between the lines, however, it is not difficult to catch glimpses of the mountain of misery which the Sanitary Commission did so much to alleviate and reduce. Miss Wormeley seems to have combined with a heart alive to the sufferings of others a rare philosophy, which strengthened her hands and increased her efficiency under exceptionally trying circumstances. The tonic effect of a cheerful face at the side of a sick-bed is beyond description, and it was the nursing rather than the surgery that pulled so many of the soldiers through the valley. And this is the key to the situation. The Government supplied the surgeons, the Sanitary Commission the nurses.

Both of these publications are typographically excellent, with large type and good illustrations. Miss Wormeley's book has three fine portraits on steel. Mrs. Livermore's story is accompanied by full-page war scenes and seven portraits. The colored pictures of battle-flags have a suggestion of "padding" uncalled for in such an important work; they should form the basis of a history of American battle-flags.

RECENT NOVELS.

Steadfast: The Story of a Saint and a Sinner. By Rose Terry Cooke. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Sam Lovel's Camps: Uncle Lisha's Friends under Bark and Canvas. A Sequel to 'Uncle Lisha's Shop.' By Rowland E. Robinson. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company.

Red Carl. Translated from the German of J. J. Messmer by Mary E. Ireland. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

A Stiff-Necked Generation. By L. B. Walford. Henry Holt & Co.

My Cousin Miss Cinderella. Translated from the French of Léon de Tinseau by E. W. Naylor. D. Appleton & Co.

Reuben Sachs: A Sketch. By Amy Levy. Macmillan & Co.

Sought and Found. Translated from the German of Golo Raimund, by Adelaide I. Buckley. Funk & Wagnalls.

A Happy Find. Translated from the French of Mme. Gagnerin by Miss E. V. Lee. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Gertrude's Marriage. By W. Heimburg. Translated by Mrs. J. W. Davis. Worthington Co.

It is evident that Mrs. Cooke has not yet exhausted her resources. In 'Steadfast' she takes us back into the early days of New England; and the historical facts of the time—especially an action of the Consociation of churches—form the foundation for an effective story. A Congregational clergyman is summarily assailed for having dared to preach in a Baptist meeting-house. The bigotry and tyranny of the Consociation are briefly but thoroughly exhibited in the resolution which it passed and sent to the Rev. Philemon Hall, after receiving his reply to its first admonition: "Resolved that the Rev'd Mr. Hall soe preachynge was Disorderlie. That Mr. Hall should not Sett as a member of this Counsil for his disorderlie Preachynge." It might occur to the modern mind that there was only one worse thing than being dismissed from such a body, and that was a continuation of membership in it. But such peremptory action in those days brought sorrow and pain and disgrace in its train, as well as years of hopeless struggle to maintain an independent position. The saintly Mr. Hall became increasingly impressed with the right and justice of his attitude, but it was a slow martyrdom for all that. This portion of the book is treated with unusual force, and the lighter elements of the story work harmoniously together. Esther is particularly well drawn—and altogether 'Steadfast' is much above the average novel.

Life is not long enough to read many dialect stories, and 'Sam Lovel's Camps' hardly makes up in narrative interest for the hours necessary to translate its pages into intelligible English. The book will be enjoyed by those who think the trapping of muskrats and other small game one of the concerns of life, and who regard episodes wherein green hands at hunting and fishing are tipped over backward into the water as exciting and funny. The author observes carefully—even poetically at times—and the dialects and provincialisms are well rendered. But when the laborious reading of the first few chapters is accomplished, the rest may be safely and cheerfully skipped with a clear conscience.

There is always a certain dreariness about translations of German stories. 'Red Carl' is a trifle less heavy in that the scene is laid in America; but it will have little interest for any but German working-people, to whom it will probably appeal. The story is a sort of Sunday-school novel, written by the pastor of a German church in Baltimore. Much very moral and undeniably proper teaching upon the hackneyed subjects of the labor question, socialism, and temperance is spiced with trades-unions, strikes, dynamite, and a cyclone.

Every one has heard of the clergyman who was always happy at funerals. Similarly it may be said that Mrs. Walford is always entertaining with her bores. Her bright people are all very well, but her dull ones, like Miss Austen's, are delightful. She has now given us a book full of tiresome characters which show her pen at its cleverest. As a story, it is not one of her most attractive, and a growing habit of comment and explanation is making havoc with her charm of style; but rarely has she done more ingenious writing than on some pages of this latest novel. Here, as heretofore, she is somewhat over-free with Death, ringing in his services with as little concern as one would summon a messenger boy withal. The hatchment in excess ill becomes the society novel. Moreover, it is disappointing to be early called, as in this case, to part with one of the most diverting personages of the book, a lady of the Campaigner family. An engagement between an aristocratic beauty and a plebeian army officer, its origin, rise, and fall, give Mrs. Walford her opportunity for her specialty—social contrast. Inimitable are the self-plumings of the officer's relations, the complacency of the bridegroom elect, the match-making and fussing among the old dames. When the stage is cleared of all the disagreeables, the plot grows thin and the book is willingly closed. The discrimination between man and man is singular in the Walford novels. A boor may not carry his hands in his pockets (very properly), but why may a peer dine in his shooting clothes (when not in America)?

No pen but a French one can make such a sketch as 'My Cousin Miss Cinderella.' Its mingled lightness and pathos, wit and simplicity, cynicism and tenderness, are wholly Gallic—also, may it be said, its fustian later pages? The story is of the slightest fabric, beginning with the account of the life of a little French boy brought up in an old château, in a fossilized group of relatives, whom the child vaguely thinks of as "ancestors." The mouldy life of the household viewed by his childish eyes is full of half-comic, half-sad contrasts between crabbed age and youth. His relations with his "enemy the gardener" form one of the amusing touches in the sketch. A little girl cousin comes to live at the château. The boy grows up, enters college, goes to Paris to see the world, and meets his fate through a mysterious correspondence. This is all the story, which is more in manner than in matter, and which loses its charm after the hero reaches manhood. One wishes that he might have remained always a little boy at Vandelnay.

The Jews are said to be deeply grateful to George Eliot for 'Daniel Deronda.' It would be interesting to know whether they are also thankful to the rising school of fiction-writers who, in hitching their wagons to George Eliot's star, draw them, not through the golden streets of Jerusalem, or even the picturesque Jews' quarter, but through the plush-furnished drawing-rooms of the modern rich, vulgar Israelite. We should suppose that the more sensitive portion of the Hebrew people might feel that mediæval persecutions had begun again, and be ready to cry out, with 'Daniel Deronda's' author, that observation without sympathy is torture. Amy Levy's book, 'Reuben Sachs,' is a clever sketch of life among the Jews in London. There is too much crowding of figures for so small a canvas, and too much description of each figure; but every one stands out with garish distinctness. Whether Miss Levy designed to arouse interest in Hebraism, or to set the faults of the Hebrew race in a strong light before themselves in warning, or whether she simply intended to make a realistic picture out of a latter-day phase of a world-old

type, she has made a readable book, and of a certain technical ability, whose interest is not to be found in a race question, or in any profound problem, but in speaking scenes of vulgarity, where the only virtues (devoutness and family affection) lean to failings' side—the failings of narrowness, inquisitiveness, and greed.

'Sought and Found' "was translated because of its rare simplicity and beauty," says the brief preface. Its simplicity is not a "sancta simplicitas," but consists rather in an absence of all but the most elementary representations of human life and feeling. Half the characters are marked by a frank depravity, the other half by that type of virtue which struts and says, "I'm a man, every inch of me." The writer has thus been spared all the trouble of making mezzo tones in his symphony. A cumbrous style and some thoughts on politics give the book an illusive air of importance which will not deceive after the third page. The translation is not throughout bad, but one comes upon phrases like this: "It is the story of the hidden treasure. He who too early or the wrong word speaks, cannot find it." "Oh! it was a bitter but salutatory draught which I forced upon him." Cakes and ale are distributed in the proper places, and the curtain goes down on discomfited spleen, and injured innocence, with tears upon its lashes, smiling in rectitude's clasp.

Companion in insipidity is 'A Happy Find,' from the French, which is, however, more readable by reason of its clear and simple style, and of an excellent rendering into English. A footnote, as follows, "*Char*, a conveyance, somewhat like a wagon, used in France and Switzerland," carries an idea of the naïveté of the translation. Equally primitive are the incidents of the story. No one but an inhabitant of another planet will have any difficulty in scenting out each mystery as it appears, shrouded in threadbare veiling. In a library devoted to the initiation of such an alien being into the art of reading earth's modern fiction, a book like this would find a place among the elementary volumes.

Following these with 'Gertrude's Marriage' is much like passing from pap to pap. The minimum of flavor is reached in them all, and one wonders when the public will have had its fill of these stereotyped feeblenesses. That they continue to be written proves the capacity of the reading world for the "illimitable inane." That they get themselves translated, and well translated, proves it even more fully, while the addition of poor photogravure illustrations, it is to be feared, is a life-preserver instead of a "crowning," which by rights should "curse and kill."

David Livingstone. By Thomas Hughes. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 1889. Map. Pp. vii, 208. 8vo.

THE author of 'Tom Brown' has a congenial subject in Dr. Livingstone, and he has written an admirable account of his life. It would be hard, indeed, to find a better popular biography. The story is simply and naturally told, in large part in Livingstone's own words, and it cannot fail to interest deeply even those who are already familiar with it. There are no attempts at portrayal of character, nor discussions of moral or scientific questions, but Mr. Hughes confines himself strictly to his task of telling what the great missionary-explorer did in the thirty years of his active life.

He shows very clearly that Livingstone's roving life was not, as has generally been supposed, the following out of a natural bent, but was mainly the result of circumstances. On reaching Africa in 1841, instead of being allotted to a station, he was obliged to find his own field of labor; and, seeing that Cape Colony was overstocked with missionaries, he pushed almost immediately into the unexplored territory to the north to make for himself a home. Three times in the next eleven years, at three different places, he founded a station and built the necessary mission buildings, only to be obliged to abandon them—in one instance on account of prolonged drought and the removal of the natives, in another because of the destruction of the station by the Boers. Once more, in 1861, he attempted to establish himself permanently on the Shiré, near Lake Nyassa, but the death of his wife in the fever-haunted swamps of the lower Zambesi frustrated this design. From that time his chief energies were directed to the opening of Central Africa to Christianity and commerce, to the healing "the open sore of the world," the slave-trade, and to the discovery of the sources of the Nile. This last motive, it can hardly be questioned, was, however, the ruling one at the end.

Mr. Hughes gives many instances of Livingstone's extraordinary power of attaching men to him and inspiring them with his own enthusiasm for the end he had in view. The African negro was not the only one who felt this, as is shown by what Livingstone accomplished during his eighteen months' stay in Great Britain after his first great journey. "He found Africa the dark continent," said one at the time, "and left it the most interesting part of the globe to Englishmen." Nor was it the natives alone whom he befriended and took into his service that showed this attachment for him, but the Arab slave-traders equally felt his influence, calling him "the Good One." His power was largely due to the absolute trust which he inspired His followers knew that what he said he would do would be done unless death prevented. This was once strikingly shown in an act the heroism and self-sacrifice of which have rarely been equalled. When he reached the west coast of Africa, after a terrible journey of many months, through a forest similar to that which Stanley had to penetrate in order to reach Emin Pasha, although exhausted with privations and repeated attacks of fever and dysentery, he refused to go to England, where his wife and children were, because he had promised to take the natives who had accompanied him back to their home on the Zambesi. It was a year's journey distant, but, after a few months' rest, he did not hesitate to undertake it. In noble emulation of this, Stanley, a few years later, instead of returning directly to Europe from the mouth of the Congo, first took the Zanzibaris who had followed him across the continent back to their home, in fulfilment of a like promise.

It is not difficult to discover from this account of his latest biographer the cause of the affection with which Livingstone was regarded by his countrymen. It was not simply his adventurous career which touched the popular fancy, but it was rather the character of the man, who to a perfect courage and fortitude joined a singular tenderness for the suffering; whose work, carried on with a thoughtlessness of self and with an energy which neither pain nor weakness could conquer, was marked by a wonderful thoroughness in its smallest details. A remarkable instance of this is the careful noting of the number and course of the streams which he passed in those last days of his life when he could "hardly hold a pencil" and his sight had nearly failed. Above all, he was a man who added to the qualities which the Anglo-Saxon race most admire, a deep piety. His religious belief was singularly liberal and tolerant, for a Scotchman, but perfectly simple and childlike, and so unlike that of the other popular hero whom he in so many respects resembles, Gen. Gordon. Possibly the most striking fact in Dr. Livingstone's history was the steadfastness of his faith. No man in this century was probably ever witness to so much cruelty and misery as he. No man could say with greater truth than he did after the massacre of the women at Nyangwe, "It gave me the impression of being in hell." More bitter still, even, was the fact, which at last forced itself upon him, that he had, with infinite toil and sacrifice, opened Africa, not to the Christian missionary, as he had hoped, but to the slave-trader, who followed close upon his footsteps. Yet, with all this, his faith never faltered, one of the last entries in his journal being: "Nothing earthly will make me give up my work in despair. I encourage myself in the Lord my God, and go forward."

Mr. Hughes's closing chapter sums up the results, as regards the establishment of missions, of Dr. Livingstone's labors, with a sketch of recent events in East Africa. The map contained in this volume shows very fairly his route in his various journeys, but it does not give, as it ought, the results of the more recent explorations.

Picturesque Alaska; A Journal of a Tour among the Mountains, Seas, and Islands of the Northwest, from San Francisco to Sitka. By Abby Johnson Woodman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 8vo, 212 pp., cuts.

THIS is an amiable little book which should have been privately printed and distributed to friends. It consists of a brief preface by John G. Whittier, three chapters of rhapsody about the route from San Francisco to Puget Sound, overland, and four, ditto, on the remainder of the route to Alaska and return, by the inland passage. Having entirely exhausted the resources of the English language in commendatory adjectives while engaged on the first part of the journey, the author disproves Max Müller's theory of language, as follows (p. 104): "Happily, our powers of appreciation are capable of infinite expansion, and we have been able to meet the demands of every new occasion with increased enjoyment; but words have their limitations in my vocabulary. Only this can I say, multiply and add three-fold to all I have said of the former, and you may have some idea of the latter."

There is nothing new in the text or illustrations. The latter are familiar from the railway circulars, and the map is not as good as the railway maps. However, a person who has never read any of the other books on the Alaskan tourists' route will get a very fair idea of it from these letters. The most interesting thing in the book, to any one conversant with the subject, is the unconscious evidence it affords of how myths grow. The famous Baranoff died at Batavia in 1819 at the age of eighty, leaving no widow or children. He was originally a provincial shopkeeper in Siberia. About 1868, a Russian sailor named Baronovitch, who remained in the country when the Russian authorities departed, set up a salmon-salting establishment and smuggler's resort at Kasa-an Bay. His wife was of Indian origin, and, after the death of Baronovitch, took an Indian husband, with whom she carried on business at the old stand. Now, as we learn from Miss Woodman, she is called "the Baroness of Baronoff," and, "during the

Russian rule in this northwest she was the wife of Baron Baronoff."

As dates and statistics are little appreciated in this primitive society, and the people living in Alaska, for the most part, know little of its history under the Russian rule, we may expect, in time, quite a crop of myths and legends of modern origin. The last item which has come to hand, and which should certainly attract the attention of the Society for Psychical Research, is, that the well-known and long-established ghost of the "castle," or Governor's house at Sitka, has submitted to be photographed by an artist who has a studio in the ancient pile.

The Play-time Naturalist. By Dr. J. E. Taylor, F.L.S. Appletons. 1889. 8vo, xii, 287 pp., 366 ills.

THIS is a book out of place. We find in it a very large number of illustrations of common British birds, insects, shells, etc., of which very few are found in America, and those only among the lowest and most minute forms illustrated. The pictures are coarse and rude; some of them are very old acquaintances, and few of them are sufficiently explained in the text to be of use to American boys and girls. The anatomical figures are particularly poor and confused, the details indicated by the lettering frequently not being even mentioned in the text. British children might find it useful in aiding them to identify creatures which they collect in hedges and ditches. In this country it will not be thus available, while the text is so hurried, brief, and mixed as in no way to make up for the deficiencies of the pictures.

It is astonishing, in view of the general interest in natural history indicated by the success of the Agassiz associations, that so few American text-books for beginners have been offered to the public. Little books, like that of Dr. Stokes on 'Infusoria,' which we had occasion to praise some time since, are rare exceptions; inadequate rehashes or bald reprints of inapplicable foreign booklets, like the present publication, are unfortunately still the rule.

My Autobiography and Reminiscences. By W. P. Frith, R.A. Vol. II. Harper & Bros. 1889.

MR. FRITH has been emboldened by the success of his first very readable volume of Reminiscences to add a second, which is also a pleasant means of passing time—one may say in this case of wasting it, for we have here only the lees of the cask. The matter consists mainly of anecdotes of models and artists, lunatic asylums, the Hanging Committee of the Exhibition, and literary convivialities. Dickens, Landseer, Sala, Leech, Shirley Brooks, and others of more or less note appear in the gallery, and there is a good deal of correspondence, especially from Shirley Brooks; but these letters are illustrations of good-fellowship only, and often trivial. The level of the whole is that of free conversation, glancing from grave to gay, but good only for the moment. Like the previous volume, it affords a look into the life of artists (which, like that of actors, is a world of its own), but with much less breadth than in the former case. The instances of folly and ignorance in the purchasers of pictures ought to serve as warning to collectors, and the views of the seamy side of life may amuse the cynical. We have found one good anecdote of Constable: "In one of Constable's pictures, among those in his studio, was one in which a kingfisher or a heron, I forget which, had been introduced. I admired it and Constable said, 'Yes, I saw it. I had sat a long time without a living thing making its appearance. I always sit till I see some living thing, because if any such appears it is sure to be appropriate to the place. If no living object shows itself I put none into my picture.'" The chapter upon the oratory of the R. A.'s is a bright spot. Mr. Frith states his opinion that the present system of instruction in art is inferior to that under which the pupil was apprenticed to a single master for a long time; and as our author is not free in expressing opinions, this is the more noticeable. The amiability and warmth of appreciation which he exhibits towards his fellow-craftsmen is one of the best qualities of his volume.

Bureaucracy; or, A Civil-Service Reformer. By Honoré de Balzac. Translated by Katherine Prescott Wormeley. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1889.

THIS is the thirteenth volume of the excellently printed and bound series of the novels of Balzac that Roberts Brothers are bringing out. Perhaps through the fatality which is well known to inhere in the number thirteen, the volume that happens to fill this place is 'Les Employés,' a novel, if one may call it so, which hardly possesses the life or the interest of some of its forerunners. In form it is to a considerable extent almost an essay. In the whole first half of the book there is no movement nor stir of life. Portrait succeeds portrait, miniature after miniature—each most clever in its drawing, but none with the vital spark in it. The whole book, in fact, is descriptive rather than dramatic; the reader is lectured upon the evolution of a character, rather than left to see the character unfold itself in action.

There is no need to speak of the argument of the story, which is familiar to all lovers of Balzac. The head of a bureau, some time in the reign of Charles X., plans a reform of the civil service in the direction of greater simplicity, effectiveness, and economy, but is foiled by a plot, and retires to comparative poverty and happiness. The translation is in the main well done. It may perhaps be added that the title will seem to some a very liberal expansion of 'Les Employés.'

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amiel, H. F. Journal. Translated, with an Introduction, by Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.

Anderson, Dr. J. W. The Essentials of Physical Diagnosis of the Chest and Abdomen. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.

A Souvenir of the New York Centennial: Instantaneous Scenes. 48 Photo-Gravures. A. Wittemann.

A Vagabond Lover. By "Rita." Frank F. Lovell & Co. 20 cents.

Babelon, E. Manual of Oriental Antiquities. Translated by B. T. A. Evetts. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.

Bacigalupi, E. G. Immunity through Leucomaines. Translated by R. F. Rafael, M.D. J. H. Vail & Co.

Bond, J. J. Handy-Book of Rules and Tables for Verifying Dates with the Christian Era; giving an Account of the Chief Eras and Systems Used by Various Nations. 4th ed. Scribner & Welford. $2.

Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vols. XIII. and XIV. Macmillan & Co. $1.50 each.

Caird, Dr. J. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion. New ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Caird, Mona. The Wing of Azrael. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.

Carey, Rosa Nouchette. Merle's Crusade. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.

Clapp, H. L. Thirty-six Observation Lessons on Common Minerals. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Crocker, G. G. Principles of Procedure in Deliberative Bodies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.

Cummings, A. The Fall of Kilman Kon. G. W. Dillingham.

Day, H. N. Elements of Mental Science. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. $1.

De Vere, A. Essays, Chiefly Literary and Ethical. Macmillan & Co. $2.

Doble, C. E. Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. III. May 25, 1710—December 14, 1712. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Douglas, M. Can Love Sin? Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

Dunlop, R. Life of Henry Grattan. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.

Evans, W. L. Memory Training: A Complete and Practical System. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.

Fiske, Mary H. The Giddy Gusher Papers. New York: *Dramatic Mirror.*

Garibaldi, G. Autobiography. 3 vols. London: Walter Smith & Innes.

Gilmore, J. R. The Last of the Thorndikes. People's Publishing Co. 50 cents.

Gissing, G. The Nether World: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.

Gould, S. B. Mehalah: A Story of the Salt Marshes. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.

Gould, S. B. John Herring. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.

Greaves, J. Statics for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.

Grimes, J. S. Geonomy: Creation of the Continents by the Ocean Currents. And Kosmo-Nomia: the Growth of Worlds and the Cause of Gravitation. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.

Haferkorn—Heise. Handy Lists of Technical Literature. Part I. Milwaukee: National Publishing and Printing Co.

Hayes, P. S. Electricity and the Methods of its Employment in Removing Superfluous Hair and Other Facial Blemishes. Chicago: W. T. Keener.

Heaton, J. L. The Story of Vermont. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.

Holden, W. Spiritual Evolution. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.

Jackson, S. M. Papers of the American Society of Church History. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.

Jamieson, A. Electrical Rules, Tables, Tests, and Formulæ. Illustrated. The Industrial Publication Co.

Johnson, Laura Winthrop. Eight Hundred Miles in an Ambulance. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.

Julian, G. W. Later Speeches on Political Questions, with Select Controversial Papers. Indianapolis: Carlon & Hollenbeck.

Views of American Cities: New York. Brentano.

Warden, Florence. The Fog Princes. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.

Wiggin, Kate Douglas. The Story of Patsy. Boston: Houghton: Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.

Wilson, J. D. English Grammar Made Practical. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.

Wilson, Prof. W. D. Theories of Knowledge, Historically Considered. Syracuse: Wolcott & West. $1.50.

Winsor, J. Narrative and Critical History of America. Vol. I. Aboriginal America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Woerner, J. G. Treatise on the American Law of Administration. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Wood, H. F. The Englishman of the Rue Caïn. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.

Woodman, Abby Johnson. Picturesque Alaska: Journal of a Tour from San Francisco to Sitka. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Woolley, Celia Parker. A Girl Graduate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Wright, C. D. Report on the Custody and Condition of the Public Records of Parishes, Towns, and Counties. Boston: Wright & Potter Co.

Yonge, Charlotte M. Beechcroft at Rockstone. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.

Zit and Xoe: A Novel. By the Author of 'Lady Bluebeard.' Harper & Bros. 25 cents.

Zuchtmann—Kirtland. The Choral Book for Home, School, and Church. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.

FANNY KEMBLE'S NOVEL:

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President's Attorney-General was unfortunate, to say the least, in stating the reasons for the removal of Elliott Sandford, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Utah. Judge Sandford was informed on May 10 by the Attorney-General, that the President would be pleased to receive his resignation, since in the President's opinion the "public interest would be subserved by a change in the office." The Judge replied by asking whether he had been accused of misconduct or malversation in office, and saying that if charges had been preferred against him, it "would be unwise, unbecoming, and improper" for him to resign until they were either proved or disproved. In response to this inquiry, the Judge received from the Attorney-General a letter of which the following is the main portion. We quote from the *Times*, which reproduces the full correspondence:

"I beg to say that there are on file in this department some papers complaining of the manner in which your judicial duties are discharged. Independently of these particular complaints, however, the President has become satisfied that your administration of the office was not *in harmony with the policy he deemed proper to be pursued with reference to Utah affairs*, and for this reason he desired to make a change, and out of courtesy gave you an opportunity to resign."

This is an extraordinary letter to come from such a source. In the first place, it contains a reflection upon the Judge's judicial character which either ought not to have been made at all, or ought to have been stated more specifically. In fact, it is no sooner stated than it is abandoned as not being the real cause for removal, and that cause is then said to be that the Judge's administration was "not in harmony with the policy" which the President wishes to have pursued in Utah. The Judge was quick to see the weak spot in this statement, and used it with telling force, as follows:

"In reply, I have the honor to say that my earnest purpose while on the bench as Chief Justice of this Territory has been to administer justice and the laws honestly and impartially to all men, under the obligations of my oath of office. If the President of the United States has any policy which he desires a Judge of the Supreme Court to carry out in reference to Utah affairs, other than the one I have pursued, you may say to him that he has done very well to remove me."

If the Attorney-General cannot do better than this when he is pressed for an excuse for making a removal without cause, he will be much wiser to attempt no excuse whatever, but say simply, what was obviously the truth in this instance, that the removal was ordered because the President desired the place for somebody else.

"When a vacancy occurred in the office of Commissioner of Indian Affairs," says the statement given out from the White House on Monday, "the President decided to appoint Mr. Thomas J. Morgan of Rhode Island to that place." A vacancy did occur in the office, but how? Simply because John H. Oberly, the incumbent, who "has made an excellent record," by the confession of the New York *Tribune*, was notified that he must resign, or he would be removed. Not much is known about Morgan, but the country may at least rejoice over having escaped the threatened appointment of Roderick Random Butler, the Tennessee Republican who was once convicted of selling a cadetship for cash, but nevertheless secured the endorsement of a majority of the Republican members of the last Congress.

A few days ago it was announced that George P. Fisher of Delaware had been appointed by President Harrison First Auditor of the Treasury. The announcement was made the same day that news came of the Johnstown disaster, and the public mind has since been so much engrossed with the details of the calamity that the Fisher appointment has passed almost unnoticed. It is, however, a case which demands attention. The biography of the appointee given out with the announcement of his selection stated that he is a resident of Dover; that in 1863 he was appointed Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, and that he held that office until 1870, when he became United States Attorney for the District. But this needs to be supplemented by the recital of certain important facts in his career which are not here even alluded to. On the 22d of June, 1876, President Grant nominated George P. Fisher as United States District Attorney for Delaware. On the following morning the New York *Tribune* published a leading editorial article upon this appointment, entitled "The President's Latest," the chief points of which we reprint:

"The District Attorney's office in Washington was for a long while, under Judge Fisher, the chief bulwark of the District Ring. There were hatched the conspiracies to convict innocent citizens of felony, the plots to get rid of witnesses, the schemes to take burglars out of jail. Crimes of the most dastardly character were committed under the sheltering eaves of that scandalous establishment. Theft, and riot, and bribery, and perjury received there encouragement and protection. Two of the Assistant Attorneys have been tried in the Criminal Court for grave offences, and are to be tried again. George P. Fisher, who was chief of the office during the period when it was a disgrace to the whole nation, could not escape the responsibility for the actions of his subordinates. Whether he was only foolish, inefficient, and weak, or was answerable in some more direct way for the doings of his son Charles and his other assistant, Harrington, we need not inquire. . . . At any rate, public opinion would not tolerate Fisher's appearance in the Safe Conspiracy trial, and, after some miserable revelations of the misconduct in his office, the President was obliged to call for his resignation. And now Gen. Grant nominates this same George P. Fisher United States District Attorney for Delaware. The Senate must reject the nomination without an hour's unnecessary delay. . . . If Gen. Grant will not think of Republican interests, we hope Republican Senators will."

The *Tribune's* earnest protest proved effectual. On the 10th of July its Washington correspondent telegraphed that "The President has withdrawn the nomination of George P. Fisher, formerly District Attorney for the District of Columbia, and removed for cause, but lately nominated for the position of United States Attorney for the State of Delaware. This is done at Mr. Fisher's own request. The opposition to his confirmation is so great as to convince him that he will be rejected if he allows a vote to be reached. The Senate is a pretty subservient body, but Mr. Fisher, after the exposures of a few months ago, is more than it can swallow." Of course President Harrison was the victim of ignorance and deceit when he appointed this disreputable politician.

Senator Higgins of Delaware was the guest of the Norfolk Club in Boston on Saturday night, and was received with much favor as the first Republican Senator from that State. He made a speech in which he dwelt with much earnestness upon the wrongs which his State had suffered through Democratic rule and the unscrupulous men whom that rule had put in office. He treated his election as an important step towards breaking Democratic rule in the solid South, saying: "I do not ask the men of the North to settle this Southern problem; I do not ask for their interference, but only that they will not go back upon the Republicans of the South who are in earnest in rectifying the wrongs." This appears to have been a more or less direct appeal to the Republicans present not to "go back upon" ex-Judge George P. Fisher of Delaware, whom Senator Higgins has persuaded the President to appoint First Auditor of the Treasury. Does the Senator think the South can be redeemed from misrule by conferring office upon men of that stamp? He asked anxiously, in his Boston speech, "What is the malaria in your atmosphere, what is the poison that you have bred, that led the author of the 'Biglow Papers' to say that the greatest type of American citizen was Grover Cleveland?" Fisher's appointment is a sample of the "malaria" and the "poison" that have driven out of the Republican party not only Mr. Lowell, but thousands of other men who represented its intelligence and conscience in the days of its glory.

The country is now reaping the fruits of "the loot of the Railway Mail Service," and the appointment to responsible places of such men as Paul Vandervoort of Omaha, Neb., who was dismissed from office by Postmaster-General Gresham for insubordination and for absence from his post 265 days in a year. From all quarters come reports of missent and delayed letters and newspapers. A Republican, who is a member of the Boston Scientific Society, writes to the *Herald* that some of his letters apparently miscarry, as he can get no answers to them, and that it took him three days to hear from an adjacent point in New Hampshire. The New York *Times* prints a communication which shows that a letter that was mailed in New York

May 31, at 6 P. M., was not received in Boston until June 5 at 7 P. M. The St. Louis *Republic* mentions several cases where letters mailed in that city and plainly directed to places in Missouri were sent on circuitous routes, one occupying twelve days in its transit. The New York *Age*, a Republican paper conducted by colored men, has had within a month more than 500 complaints from subscribers in all parts of the country of failure to receive the *Age*.

That was a most scandalous performance which the Civil-Service Commissioners unearthed in the Troy Post-office. A Republican having been appointed Postmaster, the clique who manage the politics of the party got together and parcelled out the patronage of the office, so many places being allotted to this ward, so many to that, and so many to the outlying towns, the subdivision of the last being left to the bosses in the several localities. The places must be filled under the Civil-Service Law, but it was taken for granted that no Democrat would be fool enough to suppose that he stood any chance, and no Republican who was not on the list would apply, for fear of punishment for insubordination by the ward leaders; or, if there was any danger that the programme might miscarry by the presence of any "smart" outsider in the examination-room, no blank application need be sent to such suspect. The Commissioners, however, have annulled the examination thus held, and announce that another, and a fair one, will be held two or three weeks hence. "All who enter the examination," they say, "will have the same chance, whether Democrats or Republicans. It is not only unnecessary, but it is absolutely useless, to get any 'backing' or 'support' of any kind. The marking will be given fairly on the merits of the examination passed." The Commissioners further improve the opportunity to announce that "members of boards of examiners, as well as all other employees in the public service, are liable to indictment for violation of the Civil-Service Law, and the penalties for such violation will be rigorously enforced by the Commissioners. Any attempted evasion of the law by an applicant will insure his name being stricken from the list of eligibles." While the spoilsmen are so generally running riot, it is a great pleasure to have such evidence as this that the Civil-Service Commissioners are thoroughly in earnest.

The Salt Lake *Tribune*, after a burst of indignation over the proposed monument to the late Postmaster Pearson, calls on Mr. George William Curtis "to put in words the reasons why Mr. Pearson's memory should be a matter of such public concernment that the great public of the United States should be called upon to contribute towards supplying a fund to erect a monument to his memory." There is one answer that anybody served by the New York Post-office might make, and as it is the only one that would have any weight with the Salt Lake *Tribune*, we will mention it. It is that Mr. Pearson carried on the work of the New York Post-office efficiently with $250,000 less money per annum than his successor deems absolutely necessary.

Telegrams from the West state that the Senate Committee on our Canadian Relations have found a pretty general expression of friendliness to Canada, and of a desire for closer commercial relations with that country. Senator Hoar is reported as being much impressed with this unanimity of sentiment on the Pacific Coast and in Minnesota. Perhaps his ears have been more open to suggestions of this kind by reason of the action taken recently by the Boston Executive Business Association, which is a general trades assembly of merchants representing the most important business interests in that city. This body has unanimously adopted a resolution directing one of its committees to appear before Senator Cullom's Committee, and oppose any change in our laws intended to restrict the competition afforded to the merchants and consumers of New England by the Canadian railways. Mr. Alden Speare, President of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, said that there were 560 different points in New England that were now beneficially affected by the Canadian Pacific Railway, and that "New England did not desire *and would not submit to* any curtailment of the privileges which she now enjoyed through the Canadian railways." Such language, coming from a responsible quarter, points to the necessity of sending Mr. Joseph Nimmo, jr., to New England immediately to explain to the misguided people how their interests are suffering by reason of Canadian railroad competition.

The legislative year closes without the passage in any State of a law requiring the publication of campaign receipts and expenditures. Mr. Crosby introduced at Albany a very crude bill relating to this subject, but it was never heard of after its first announcement. A really excellent law, requiring full publication by committees and candidates, after election, of all receipts and expenditures, was passed by the lower house of the Massachusetts Legislature and rejected by the Senate, though it was very generally favored by the press of the State. There is nothing surprising in this failure to make progress. The reform sought aims directly at the greatest evil in our politics, and for that reason it will be desperately opposed by the politicians of both parties. Sworn publication of receipts and expenditures would put an end to the use of large sums of money for corrupt purposes, and, of course, would deprive the men who handle those sums in campaigns and at elections of their chief source of income. These will join hands with all the other men who get a living out of politics, and it will require a long and a hard fight to overcome their opposition.

The Republican Gov. Bulkeley of Connecticut vetoed on Friday the excellent Ballot Bill which was passed by very large majorities in both houses of the Legislature. "His reasons" are, from beginning to end, a bald plagiarism from those with which Gov. Hill has made us so familiar, and therefore a very tedious and verbose version of the familiar spoilsmen's doctrine in reference to all reforms—"I am in favor of the principle, but against this application of it." Gov. Bulkeley is as much afraid of sworn election officials as Gov. Hill is, and thinks there is grave peril to free institutions involved in taking the control of elections away from irresponsible political workers and putting them into the hands of sworn agents of the State. The strong public sentiment, however, which fairly compelled the Republican majority to pass the bill in the first instance, is manifesting itself so strongly against the Governor's veto that the politicians of the Legislature are unwilling to let the bill fail now. The friends of the measure are acting wisely in consenting to amendments which satisfy some of its opponents, but do not affect in any way the vital principles of the bill. Thus the amendment removing from the act the application of its provisions to town elections in which minority representation is involved, is a concession which does not affect the principle of the bill, and which it may be wise to make, since it will lessen the possibility for confusion in first putting the new system into operation.

The most important amendment suggested is that allowing the grouping of candidates under party names upon the official ballots. This concession was made in the Saxton bill when it was redrafted last winter, and it is also embodied in the Tennessee, Missouri, and Indiana laws. The Wisconsin, Montana, Minnesota, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island laws follow the order of reception of nominations in arranging candidates' names, and their example was copied by the drafters of the Connecticut bill. There is no valid objection to the grouping by parties. Such arrangement may aid the ignorant voters in marking their ballots, and will certainly diminish the chances of confusion and delay in putting the new system into practice. It might have been wiser for the friends of the bill to have yielded these points when the measure was under discussion in the Legislature, for considerable stress was laid upon them then; but there is slight probability that such yielding would have prevented the Governor's veto. Point after point of that kind has been yielded in New York State to overcome Gov. Hill's objections, but he has found new objections without apparent difficulty. He and Gov. Bulkeley are unalterably opposed, not to minor details of the reform system, but to the great principle of the system itself—which is a secret ballot, absolutely removed from espionage and interference of all kinds.

The State Assessors, Messrs. Ellis, Wood, and Williams, have been making their annual round of investigation into the values of real estate in New York. A telegram from Albany to the *Times* says that they have found a general depreciation of farm lands. "We have," says Assessor Wood, "visited fourteen counties, and in all we find the same condition of affairs. City prop-

erty is increasing in value, while farming property is growing less and less valuable. I cannot see any way for it to improve, and in a few years you will see more tenant farmers than anything else. No one wants to buy farm lands here. They can't get their money out of them. Most of the farms were bought about war times, when big prices were paid." This information tallies with that furnished by the Connecticut Bureau of Labor Statistics. In the last report of this bureau the profit-and-loss accounts of nearly one thousand farms are given, from which it appears that 54 per cent. of the whole number show an annual loss, or a loss for the year in which the examination was made. Farming in New England and New York ought to be a very prosperous employment, according to the prevailing tariff philosophy, for here we have the very conditions which the protectionists tell us the tariff will bring about, namely, a home market for the products of agriculture. We have lots of factories alongside the farmer ready to take his wheat and bacon, but somehow the result is contrary to the prediction. Farming land continues to decline in value, while town and city land increases in value. There are large tracts of land in the New England States which supported farmers' families a quarter of a century ago, that have been abandoned and are now growing up to forest. Yet here, if anywhere, we ought to find agriculture prosperous and remunerative if there is any virtue in a protective tariff. May it not be true that the object of the tariff, which is to secure profits to manufacturers in order that they may make farmers prosperous, fails in the second half of its aim? Would it not be well to change our fiscal policy for a while—turn it around end for end—and tax the manufacturer for the benefit of the farmer, in order that the latter may have abundant means to buy the goods of the former? After trying this plan for a while we should perhaps all be agreed to adopt a third policy, viz., that of letting every man have and enjoy just what he earns.

Few persons except specialists in electrical science are aware how rapid is the march of electric power over the world. Unused and disused water is everywhere going into the yoke of the dynamo. Mountain streams in Switzerland that have never before been used for any purpose except that of gratifying sight-seers are now supplying power to mills five miles distant, and the manufactures of that country are having a great revival. The latest project of this kind in our own country, and one of the most promising, is that of utilizing the power of the "Dalles of the St. Louis," a few miles west of Duluth. These consist of a series of cascades some miles in length, over which the whole volume of the river precipitates itself, with a total fall of more than 500 feet. A local engineer proposes with a single dam on the St. Louis to run all the street-cars in Duluth, to furnish all the electric lights needed, and to supply a large amount of power for other uses. There is room on the river for thirty or forty such dams. It is the common observation of the electrical journals that all the manufactories of dynamos are running night and day, and cannot keep up with their orders.

Prof. Canfield, whose inability to teach political economy in accordance with the views of the majority of voters in Kansas led to his retirement from the University of that State, has been offered and has accepted a professorship in Williams College, Massachusetts, of which institution he is a graduate. Our first information, that Prof. Canfield was driven out of the University of Kansas in consequence of his anti-tariff teaching, was derived from one of the high-tariff organs, the *American Economist*, which expressed much satisfaction over the affair. It appears, however, that that was not the whole of the case. Prof. Canfield's retirement was in large part voluntary. He found the door to promotion in the University shut, as to himself, by reason of his views on protectionism, and he deemed it best to resign, although he had not, at the time, received any offer from Williams College. It is very strange that the University of Kansas has overlooked the claims of Prof. Denslow to the chair of economics vacated by Prof. Canfield, especially at a time when Mr. Andrew Carnegie is distributing Prof. D.'s 'Principles of Economic Philosophy' at his own expense among our higher institutions of learning. We are informed that one college in New England has received one hundred copies of this work as a gratuity from Mr. Carnegie, for free distribution among students.

The contentions of the Windom worsted decision were, that man's inventions in machinery for separating the long from the short hairs of the covering of sheep, have so obliterated the former trade distinction between worsted and woollen yarns, and the trade difference between worsted stuffs and woollen stuffs, that now everywhere in wholesale business "woollen cloth" is recognized as including "worsted cloth," and that the new trade nomenclature of 1889 should be interpreted into the old tariff law of 1883. We showed last week, from New York trade journals, that the distinction between worsteds and woollens is, in our own country, everywhere applied in 1889 as in 1883. So it is in England, as we infer from market reports in the London *Times* of which this is an example:

"LEEDS, May 18.—The turnover of *woollen* cloth this week has rather exceeded the average of the last fortnight, and manufacturers have unexpectedly had fresh orders placed with them by American buyers. Solid *worsteds*, both plain and fancy, sell fully up to the average, and manufacturers' prices for these, as well as for corkscrews, are easily maintained. Some fresh new designs in figured mantlings have been brought out, and the Americans were most on the alert to get first deliveries of them. An average business is doing with the Continent in novelties, both *worsteds and woollens*."

Was it quite creditable in the officers of the National Association of Wool-Manufacturers to permit Mr. Windom to be thus misled?

A new pretender to the throne of France has just made a solemn assertion of his right. This is none other than Don Carlos, Duke of Madrid, head of the House of Bourbon, and known in a somewhat limited private circle as Charles VII., King of Spain. "He carries about with him," the Prince de Valori says, "that immaterial empire which makes his pilgrim's staff a sceptre and his humble traveller's cloak a royal mantle." It was at a great banquet in Paris on the 21st of May that this fine speech was made, and the Prince de Valori was announced as the representative of Charles VII. in France. King Charles does not desire the crown of France for himself; indeed, he would not take it, for all his spare time is now occupied with the cares of empire. He has, therefore, appointed his heir, the Prince of the Asturias, dauphin of France *cum jure successionis*. It is expected that all well-disposed persons will govern themselves accordingly. One might well think that even an excellently disposed person would find some trouble in picking his way through a labyrinth of "rights." There is the right of the Comte de Paris, and the right of Prince Jerome, and the right of Prince Victor, and this new right of Don Carlos; of late, too, it has been hinted that there are rights in the family of Lucien Bonaparte, and nobody is ignorant of the right of Gen. Boulanger. There is also, it is proper to remind one's self, a right of France which is now almost exactly one hundred years old.

The Naples correspondent of the *Indépendance Belge* gives an account of the sad fortunes of an Italian band of emigrants to Central America. They went from Venetia in two parties, last year and the year before, numbering 1,000 persons, their destination being Costa Rica. On April 8, 847 of them disembarked at Marseilles, the survivors of the expedition brought home at the expense of the Italian Government. They had gone to Port Limon under contract with an Italian emigration company; skilled laborers to receive $1.60 a day, and common laborers $1.00. This, of course, seemed wealth to the poor fellows, who naturally knew nothing of the high cost of the necessaries of life in their new home, or of their coming exposure to exhausting labor under a tropical sun and to wasting diseases away from medical care and even from medicine. Once in the midst of such terrible conditions, with many sick and dead, they revolted and refused to work. But the local laws were appealed to; some of them were prosecuted for breaking their contracts, and were condemned to harder labor than that from which they had fled, others were imprisoned, some were even put to the torture. News of their sad plight reached Italy, most fortunately, and the Venetian deputies at once made moving appeals on their behalf in the Italian Parliament. Premier Crispi immediately promised that the unfortunate men should be brought back to their country, and the landing at Marseilles concluded the history of the experiment in which 150 lives were lost in less than two years.

THE NEW SOCIALISM.

WITHIN the past month two journals have been started in Boston, advocating step-by-step national Socialism. The first of these, the *Nationalist*, numbers among its contributors men of all creeds and no creed —including Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Rabbi Solomon Schindler, and the Rev. Edward Everett Hale. The other, the *Dawn*, is avowedly Christian in faith, and is indeed a new religious journal, having for its one doctrine the essential identity of Christianity and Socialism. Its contributors are mainly ministers—members of a society of "Christian Socialists." The best known of those writing for the first issue is, perhaps, the Rev. James O. S. Huntington, who for years has been at work among the poor of this city as a salaried clergyman, and now enters the ranks of manual labor in order completely to identify himself with the class for whom he is working. In the *Dawn* the doctrine of the brotherhood of man is made the correlative of the Fatherhood of God. In the *Nationalist* there is, of course, no such theological formulation, but the religious spirit is quite as intense. Here it is "the religion of humanity" that is preached, and the "better future" which inspires hope and effort is that which awaits "the heirs of time" when the social revolution is accomplished.

The elevation of thought and sentiment which characterizes these two journals forbids their dismissal with a mere word as to the weakness of their political programme. Almost without exception, the writers are Americans, with the best of Puritan blood. Quite without exception, they belong to what they themselves would call "the privileged classes." Theodore Parker once said that the democracy that was wanted was not that which said, "I am as good as you are," but that which said, "You are as good as I am." In this movement we have a socialism which is of the latter type. Instead of an appeal to the poor that "there is no reason why we who do the hardest and most repulsive work should receive the lowest pay," we find the appeal to the rich that "there is no reason why we who do the lightest and most attractive work should receive the highest pay." The duty of the rich to grant takes the place of the right of the poor to seize. But the fact that it is granting and not grasping which is urged does not signify that it is merely the Socialism of a charity sermon that is preached. On the contrary, it is German Socialism of the most radical type. Not content with making absolute altruism the religion of the individual, it is made the religion of the State—a religion which the State shall impose upon every citizen.

This identification of Christianity with State Socialism is, of course, nothing new. A number of years ago, when Prince Bismarck first broached his policy of diverting the German masses by the rattle of Socialistic playthings, he replied to the objection, "This is Socialism," by asserting, "It is Christianity." Conscientious, no doubt, was the assertion; yet the workings of the principle have not been such as to make any one really in sympathy with the masses unlearn the old lesson, taught by Adam Smith, that when the national Government interferes in industrial affairs, it always takes as its counsellors the representatives of the richest and most powerful interests. Compulsory insurance of the workingmen has been introduced. One-third of the amount to be paid them in insurance is deducted directly from their wages; another third is nominally paid by their employers, but in the long run indirectly deducted, with the additional evil of increasing their dependence upon their present masters by practically involving a deferred payment of wages. The remaining third is paid by the Government — the amount being raised by a protective tax on breadstuffs, which also is paid by the working classes, and yields five dollars to the landlords where it yields one to the Government.

The workings of State Socialism in our own country, whenever administered by the national Government, are similar in character. Subsidies have been granted to railroads because of the indirect benefits they conferred upon the farmers, while none have ever been proposed for the farmers because of the indirect benefits they conferred upon the railroads. The taxing of the poorer classes in order to pay the labor-bill of the richer is the guiding principle of our tariff, but no one ever thought of taxing the richer in order to pay the rent-bill of the poorer. These facts have sufficiently demonstrated that the common good as understood by the national Government is the good of those who are rich and powerful enough to make their influence felt at Washington.

Yet it is national Socialism which the Nationalists and the "Christian Socialists" wish to promote in America. It is, perhaps, somewhat to the credit of their judgment, if not of their logic, that they do not at once attempt to make their reform "planetary." Nevertheless, in advocating a national organization for their coöperative commonwealth they ignore the fact that the coöperative principle has rarely been successfully applied, except by the smallest organizations, political or industrial, and there only when the business management has been easily understood and closely watched by the whole body of the coöperators. In such cases we have nothing to urge against the value of the principle. It is already successfully applied in most departments of public works and in the support of our school system. It is being applied to the suppression of trades which injure the community instead of serving it. It will doubtless be applied more and more rigorously to the prevention of extortion on the part of combinations and natural monopolies. Yet this principle of combined resistance to antisocial forces is very different from that which lies at the basis of German Socialism. The American movement against monopolies, natural and unnatural, is merely to enforce the principle that the capital invested therein shall exact as nearly as possible the rates of interest which the presence of free competition would establish. It is "dead rent," and the dividends upon certificates representing merely the capitalization of proposed extortion, which cause the entire outcry against Trusts—an outcry which comes mainly from those who would be the last to maintain that there is any industry in which the capital actually employed in production is not entitled to the competitive rate of interest. This principle of competitive rates as the measure of just payment is the one thing in "*bourgeois* economy" which the Socialists repudiate with the greatest violence. Capital, they say, is entitled to no compensation whatever for its services, and the services rendered by labor are to be compensated according to the needs of the laborers.

The socialistic objection to the democratic doctrine of individual rights is its selfishness. To this it is not enough to reply that the selfishness of seeking one's own good consistently with that of his neighbors is in bright contrast with the reckless egoism which characterizes protectionist Socialism. The democratic doctrine of individual rights is selfish, but it is only half of the democratic programme. Democracy quite as much as Absolutism or Socialism recognizes the promotion of the public good as the basis of individual rights and the measure of individual duties. In democracies, as nowhere else, is the spirit of devotion to the public good present, and in democracies as nowhere else are the contributions which the individual owes to the public measured by the principle of equality of sacrifice. It is true that there is at present no democracy where the principle is consistently carried out. In our own the necessities of the poor are taxed in order to increase the superfluities of the rich. But this is not democratic principle. Wherever democracy is strongest and Socialism weakest, as in the local governments of America and Switzerland, the duties of the individual to the public are sought to be proportioned to his means. The extent of the contribution of the individual to the public is measured by the need of the public just as exactly as in Socialism the extent of the contribution of the public to the individual is measured by the needs of the individual.

Democracy, when logical, recognizes the principle of brotherhood quite as much as Socialism, and with much greater accuracy of analogy. It strives to establish equality of opportunities, not equality of recompense. Napoleon once said that the French Revolution meant "*la carrière ouverte aux talents*" —a clear pathway for talent. This is the meaning of democracy, and also the meaning of brotherhood. It strives continually to make the highest mental and moral training more accessible to all in order that each may find his capacity, and then win a place according to his efforts in the service of the public. This is also the meaning of Christianity. Wherever the Church is thoroughly democratized, there its spiritual and intellectual ministrations are made free. In all this there is no departure from the principle of individual responsibility. The true charity is that which develops the higher needs of the recipient, not that which satisfies

his lower needs. It elevates the manhood of the younger brother, instead of degrading him into a perpetual pensioner. Our democracy does have need to be more large-hearted. It must be moral or Christian enough to keep trying to lessen the contrast between the degrading want of those who have neither the training nor the character for self-support, and the enervating waste of those who, at the other end of society, are equally helpless and useless. Such publications as the *Nationalist* and the *Dawn* give evidence that such will be its spirit. But they do not signify that there will be any abandonment of the lines of development in the past in order to embrace the Socialistic system, which would annihilate individual responsibility and manhood by centring all rights and duties in the State. Democracy will accept the religion of altruism, but it will not enforce it as a State religion.

SENATOR EDMUNDS ON "POLITICAL WORKERS."

In the current number of the *Forum*, Senator Edmunds has written elaborately around the inquiry: "To what extent is it wise and proper to reward political workers by offices?" We say he has written *around* the question, because in the paper before us he does not come to close quarters with a remedy for what he concedes to be a portentous evil in our public life. He testifies that our politics are now "*chiefly* carried on by those whose ends are *purely* personal." These he describes as political workers without political convictions or principles, who are conspicuous at the primaries, on the platforms, and in the processions, and who, when party success has been achieved, instantly demand their reward, in the form of an office, as a right. If they do not get the offices, Mr. Edmunds says, they look on the party victory as their own individual defeat; and when they do get them, they create subordinates who are satellites in organizing a machine for the next campaign. These mercenary partisans do not, he says, include all the "political workers," for there are others, who have formed and who hold party opinions, who are not mercenaries toiling for pay, but who, nevertheless, expect offices more or less adapted to their qualifications. These last-named do not, adds Mr. Edmunds, regard the mercenaries with satisfaction.

Finally, there is the great body of the people, whom he describes as wishing "their public servants to be selected for their character, and for their capacity thoroughly to fulfil the duties imposed upon them; and of course, if those duties involve matters of national policy or discretion, they would wish the officials *to be of the same general political opinions as themselves.* They do not wish to pay the political worker with a public place he is for any cause unsuited to fill, while they are glad to show their recognition of the *unselfish political activity* of upright and capable men by intrusting them with the performance of those public duties which they are best fitted to engage in." He declares that each and all of both varieties of political workers "are displeased in common if any old incumbent, no matter how perfectly he may be discharging the duties of his office, no matter how steadily he may have refrained from 'pernicious activity,' no matter how high his character, no matter how well the public interest is promoted by his service, is not at once dismissed, in order that each one of the claimants may compete for the prize of the vacancy." He condemns both parties as at fault in this relation. He sharply criticises Mr. Cleveland for treating with "ribald and systematic contempt," after his inauguration, the professions made during the canvass, but he visits no condemnation on Harrison by name. He argues, in an interrogative way, for making the "great bulk of the administrative offices of the country" as permanent as the operatives of a railway, but he evidently does not now feel that much will be presently accomplished. He affirms that selfishness and ambition are innate in politicians, and the thirst for office cannot be "*much* diminished." The most that can be done is, he thinks, to repress its gratification by the appointing power.

Here is the disappointing part of what the Chairman of the Senate Judiciary Committee says, for he only proposes a quickening of the moral sense of voters and Presidents. He distinctly declares that the thirst for office and its gratification (as Harrison is now gratifying it) promote the use of money to buy votes, false registration, and false counting. He would have those engaged officially in "the great body of civil employments" protected by a tenure during good and efficient conduct, and yet he protests against "an office-holding class" even of subordinates like village postmasters, tide-waiters, and clerks who are not officers. On Mr. Edmunds's theories, what can be done? He would have "officials of the same general opinions" as the winning party, and would not have an office-holding class. He would have, nevertheless, the *small* administrative employments, involving no policy of government, as permanent in tenure as "station-agents, engineers, linemen, and operatives" on a Vermont railway; but he has no word of censure of Harrison. Nor does he, with all his means of observation, seem to realize that, when taxes are to be increased by executive order, the powers that be will insist that each custom-house sampler, opener of packages, examiner, assistant appraiser, deputy collector, entry clerk, and liquidating clerk has to do with that "policy."

It is not for a Senator of Mr. Edmunds's standing to assume that public opinion is torpid on this question, and that until public opinion bestirs itself, nothing can be done. That is the excuse of all who are spoils-hunters at heart. Mr. Edmunds is no spoils-hunter. He sees as plainly as anybody the cancer in the vitals of the body politic. He has an assured position, and it is for him more than for any other Senator to rise in his place and say, "This thing must be stopped," and to introduce and advocate, as he knows how, a measure to stop it. Then public opinion will have a rallying-point, and if it has the elements of growth, it will grow. If he would put into such a measure of reform half the spirit and assiduity that Mr. Roosevelt put into the reform measures of the New York Legislature a few years ago, or a moiety of the calm courage and conviction of Bishop Potter's centennial sermon, he would not need to repine very long over the laxity of public opinion.

THE TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILWAY SITUATION.

The Transcontinental Association is composed of railroads whose interest lies largely in traffic to and from the Pacific Coast. These railroads have special problems of their own to solve and special circumstances to face; hence the need of an association separate from the others, although all American roads between the Atlantic and the Pacific are carriers, to a greater or less degree, of transcontinental traffic. California occupies a peculiar place in our commerce, for its products compete partly with those from other portions of our country, but principally with tropical fruits from abroad. From this it follows that the centre of this competition, the place where the fight for Californian supremacy must be won if won at all, is the Atlantic seaboard. This is heightened by the further fact that to the competition of Californian oranges or raisins with those from Italy or Spain is added the competition of the water routes from the Pacific with those by rail.

This state of things the seaboard cities regard with complacency; for in any case, whether from abroad or by sail or steamship from the Pacific, these cities will be well supplied with wine, salmon, prunes, fruit, olive oil, and the like. But it is otherwise with the merchants of the Pacific slope and the rail carriers which depend upon their sales for traffic. If trade is not developed, all transcontinental interests suffer. For many years, until lately, these conditions have been recognized in the tariffs which, on these special products from California to the Atlantic Coast, made rates low enough to allow of sales as against the imported articles; while from California to the interior of our country the rates were such as to be reasonable of themselves, and, although higher than to Boston or New York, yet low enough to compete with the foreign products shipped westward from the cities named. To have refused low rates to our seaboard would simply have reduced California sales on this coast, whose people would continue buying the European fruit; while the loss of the revenue to the carriers from the Atlantic traffic would have required still higher interior rates to earn the same net profit as before.

So matters stood up to the time of the Inter-State Commerce Law and the long discussion about the long and short haul. The theory to which we are settling down is this: that where all carriers are under the Inter-State Commission, a rigid enforcement of this long-and-short-haul principle is possible, but where one or more competitors are freed from the law, it is right that the remaining United States carriers should also be ex-

empt. Now, water carriers are not under the Commission; hence we find a rate of 70 cents to New Orleans from New York, while to Atlanta, a little more than half way, the rate is $1.14. A rigid levelling would compel the roads to give up New Orleans traffic (to no one's benefit), or accept 70 cents to Atlanta until bankrupt. The Transcontinental Association attempted to apply this water exemption to their tariffs by making a lower rate from California to the Atlantic seaboard than to the Mississippi or Missouri River. These tariffs the Inter-State Commerce Commission condemned as contrary to the law, notwithstanding the existing violations due to water competition in the South and elsewhere. So tariffs no higher to the interior than to the Atlantic were substituted.

The growers and dealers of California have been waking to the fact that their markets are not wide enough for the disposal of their products, and conventions have been held which seemed to consider the transcontinental roads responsible for the stagnation, because of high freights which forbade sales. The roads did indeed reduce their charges somewhat in answer to these appeals, but the root of the trouble was not reached. This, in brief, is the attempt of the Inter-State Commission, under a wrong sense of duty, to impose upon the land carriers between the Pacific and the Atlantic a strict system of charges, while competing water routes are, from the nature of the case, able to quote whatever they please without reference to the Commission. Under this ruling, demanding equality of charge to all points, the transcontinental roads are placed between two fires: if they make low rates to the Atlantic, the rates to the interior must also be so low as to yield no revenue; while if high rates are made all round, both carriers and California producers lose the Eastern markets. The remedy lies in applying to the California traffic the principle found equitable everywhere else—of low rates when made necessary by competitors not under Government control. To a modified extent, what is here said of water competition between San Francisco and New York applies also to the competition of the Canadian Pacific, for which provision should also be made in the rulings of the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

The Southern Pacific Company has given notice of its withdrawal from the Transcontinental Association because of this unsatisfactory condition of things. The possible disastrous effects of the breaking up of this Association gives emphasis to the statements of the difficulties imposed upon it by the Inter-State Commerce Commission, at whose door the responsibility must be laid.

SMALL AND LARGE WORKSHOPS.

THE great evils which have sprung from the massing of workmen in the large factories made necessary by modern industrial development, have been dwelt upon by many writers on social and economical subjects. So, too, it has been the dream of many an economist that we may yet reach a stage of progress in the application of force when it will be possible to restore the combined house and workshop of other days. Occasional attempts have been made to bring back, on a small scale and as a beginning, those Arcadian times when the smoke of the factory and the crowding of the tenements were unknown, and when every handicraftsman labored, as he lived, under his own vine and fig trees. A writer in the *Century*, a few months ago, gave an account of an experiment in establishing a community of hand-weavers in Westmoreland. The trouble with this, as with other like schemes, is that it stands more upon a benevolent than a business basis, and does not squarely meet the necessary conditions of manufacturing competition. If the thing is ever to be done, it must be with full regard to cost of production.

Something more than a sentimental value, therefore, attaches to the study of the question published in the last *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, by Dr. H. Albrecht, since it proceeds precisely along the line of investigating the comparative cost of production in small and large workshops, in the various trades and manufactures, and with the aid of improved and cheaper motors of small power. He begins by inquiring as to the actual state of the case in Germany—that is, as to the number of small compared with large workshops, and as to the proportions of the total working class engaged in each. All shops with five or less workmen he reckons as "small," the others as "large." On this basis, according to the Trades Census of 1882, there were 2,908,294 small shops as against but 97,163 large ones, and 61 per cent. of all German workingmen were in the small establishments. Dr. Albrecht next inquires what trades run most to large and what most to small establishments. This is done to find out where the small shops now best hold their own, and so where improved methods may be expected to tell most powerfully. His results are as follows: Out of every hundred establishments devoted to mining, smelting, or the manufacture of salt, ninety-nine are "large"; so are 76 per cent. of the manufactories of chemicals, 75 per cent. of the printing-houses, 73 per cent. of the paper mills, 63 per cent. of the shops for working in metals (iron excepted), 64 per cent. of the manufactories of machines and instruments of all sorts, and 52 per cent. of the establishments devoted to the textile industries. First among the trades which favor the small shops, on the other hand, stands clothing and repairing, 90 per cent. of all the establishments in this branch being "small," as are 78 per cent. of the shops for wood-engraving, 75 per cent. of those devoted to the fine arts, 70 of those of workers in iron, 66 of the shops of the various industries in leather, wax, and gum, and 63 of the manufactories of articles of food and luxury.

With the natural advantages of the small shop in certain trades thus indicated, the next question is as to the progress of invention in making more convenient and cheaper motors for use in manufacture on a small scale, and their ability to compete with the enormous engines of the huge factory. Dr. Albrecht takes up and thoroughly discusses four kinds of motors intended for such competition—water motors, hot-air engines, gas motors, and the small steam engine. The results he arrives at are that, on the average, the cost per horse-power per hour is, for water motors, 1.90 marks, for the hot-air engine 0.42, for the small steam engine 0.37, and for the gas motor 0.34. These figures are, of course, but relatively exact, since the price of coal, gas, etc., varies from time to time and in different localities. Taking them as a fair average, however, Dr. Albrecht argues that the least expensive of these motors, of from one to four horse-power, can successfully compete with the large engines of the great plants. We cannot give here all the considerations upon which he dwells, but will only mention some facts which he cites to prove the growing use of such motors. Thus, according to the Trades Census of 1882, gas and hot-air motors constituted but 2½ per cent. of the total number of engines in German shops, yet in printing-houses they numbered 50 per cent. of all, in fine-art establishments 21 per cent., and in shops for working metals 13 per cent.

Very suggestive, also, are the statistics of the manufacture of these motors of small power in Germany. Up to the summer of 1888, the five leading manufacturers of gas and hot-air engines had sold 31,000 of the machines, with a total of 94,000 horse-power, for use in Germany, besides exporting 27,000 more. In perfect keeping with this showing is that part of a late report of the Inspector of Factories which says: "There is a constant increase in the number of small shops which are seeking, by the introduction of such motors, to appropriate as much as possible the advantages of the large establishments."

Thus far Dr. Albrecht goes upon the firm ground of actual conditions and accomplished facts. His conclusion is that, even as things are now, the small shop is more than holding its own in certain lines of manufacture. But it is in the future that he sees the greatest hope, and, through the perfecting of electric motors and the transmission of electrical force, that he expects to see the day of the small shop fully come back again. He imagines that the greatest difficulty will be the establishment of great central stations for the creation and distribution of electrical currents. Private invention, he thinks, may be left to devise convenient and cheap motors. But the Government, he argues in the prevalent German fashion, must furnish the force. Already we have the great municipal electric-lighting plant in Berlin; why not let the dynamos furnish power to the small shops in the daytime? If this were done, and similar methods followed throughout Germany and the world, it would be the surest way to fulfil the prophecy of the great electrical inventor and expert, Werner Siemens: "The goal of the revolution of science will not be a mass of great factories in the hands of rich capitalists, in which the 'slaves of labor' drag out their monotonous existence, but the return to individual labor."

HOW WASHINGTON BECAME COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.

WASHINGTON, June 1, 1889.

IT is well to review occasionally our accepted historical conceptions, gauging them by newly discovered material, and, in the clearness of vision that distance of time permits, altering the perspective, or distribution of light and shade, as the confusion of controversy subsides. The recent celebration in New York proves that the popular enthusiasm for the national hero has by no means diminished, but rather increased, in the course of a century; so that it is only just and proper to recur to the past and revise, where necessary, what have wrongly become popular ideas through carelessness, ignorance, or blind adoration. It is to the last that we are most indebted for our historical fallacies.

Washington came to the Presidency the elect of the nation. The movement that led to his selection was spontaneous, unanimous, and heartfelt—such an unquestioned tribute as has rarely been paid to any man. Without him the Constitution would not have been accepted by the States, and it was with him in their thoughts that the Convention created the office of President, and somewhat fearfully clothed it with great powers—for jealousy of power in any national or (to use the more common phrase of that day) federal body or appointment was the bugbear of those who had been most actively engaged in the contest against royal prerogative, the cruel edicts of a corrupt Parliament, and the armies and machinations of a "wicked and abandoned" ministry. The fear and jealousy that were directed against Great Britain in 1765-82, were turned against the Continental Congress and the advocates of a continental policy in 1783-88. It was the personality of Washington that contributed largely to bear down this jealousy; and when he journeyed to New York to assume his high office, it may be truly said that throughout the land there was not heard a voice disapproving the choice.

To read the generally accepted history of the Revolution, one would suppose that it was with a like unanimity that Washington was appointed to the command of the Continental army in 1775; that he then stepped into a position to which the universal suffrage of the colonies was calling him. Nothing could be further from the truth; and to strip the incident of all the romantic features that hero-worship has thrown around it, it may be described, in the somewhat vulgar parlance of to-day, as the result of a "political deal" got up between Massachusetts and Virginia. The result justified the wisdom of the choice, and led to much self-congratulation on the remarkable sagaciousness of Congress and the really marvellous fitness of the man for the place—ideas handed down to us as remarkable instances of prescience on the part of the Congress. The fact was, and we may write it in all reverence, that Washington had not known military service since 1758; that he was better remembered for his defeat and surrender at Fort Necessity, for his pertinacious and sometimes unreasonable claims for precedence in command, and his obstinate pestering of General Forbes about the proper road to Fort Duquesne, which led Forbes to really dislike him, than for his successful mission to the Ohio in 1753, and his courage and daring under Braddock. For nearly sixteen years he had been without a command, a planter of tobacco and raiser of wheat, a successful manager of a large estate, and an eager and active speculator in Western lands.

This was not the stuff of which a military hero was made, and while in 1774 the formation of so-called independent companies throughout Virginia in a measure renewed his military prestige, it was not as a soldier that he was thought of, even in his own colony. Jonathan Boucher, the Tory preacher and tutor of Jacky Custis, who knew Washington well, did not err far when he said that the "most distinguished" part of his (W.'s) character was that he was an "admirable farmer"; and no one was more surprised than he to see this man, who had always acquitted himself "decently, but never greatly," develop into a great leader of armies, and, later, of the people. Edmund Randolph wrote with much truth that, at the beginning of 1774, "some others were more prominent than Washington. It could not have been then truly foretold that the germs of solid worth which afterwards overspread our land with illustrious fruit, would elevate him very far above many of the friends of the Revolution." While constantly chosen one of the Burgesses from his county, a position that his large estates, serving as a "pocket borough," gave him, he never attained the honor and preeminence of being chosen to the Governor's council—a reward that marked the happy owner as a favored one and one of the "notables." He had a wide acquaintance in Maryland, Philadelphia, and New York, and his diaries show how high these acquaintances were in the social life of their respective colonies; but his cold temperament forbade many intimate friends, and it is very doubtful if he could have been described by many of his acquaintances, or could have been recognized even by name outside of these circles. Had he nominated himself and "run" for an office, his standing would have been slight outside of his own county, and none at all outside of his colony. This is sad reading to the romancer on Washington, but the facts bear out this statement of the case.

The Continental Congress of 1774 was more useful in bringing together delegates from the different colonies, and allowing an interchange of views, than for its acts and paper remonstrances. The Bostonians were much pitied throughout the land as objects of ministerial cruelty, but this sympathy was rather for their present sufferings than for what were regarded as their rash and intemperate aims, interpreted then as a desire to be independent not only of Great Britain, but of the other colonies too. Martyrdom was not considered as a good ground for conferring leadership, and a little resentment was caused by the "inward vanity and self-conceit" of the Bostonians, which led them to "assume big and haughty airs," and to "affect to dictate and take the lead in Continental measures." Wait, wrote the mild General Gage to his master, and see these Bostonians pay the other colonies "the compliment of taking their advice." His words were true. In the Congress of 1774, by their explanations and personal intercourse with the other delegates, the Massachusetts men were able to remove in a measure their reputation for rashness, and came to be "universally applauded as cool and judicious."

Among the Southern members thus influenced was Washington. His letters to Bryan Fairfax prove that he heartily sympathized with the general cause of the colonies before he attended the Congress at Philadelphia. While it was sitting, he saw somewhat of the Massachusetts delegates. On September 28 he records in his diary having dined at Edward Shippen's, and spent the afternoon with the Boston gentlemen, and Adams notes that he spent that evening at home with Colonel Lee and Colonel Washington, "who came in to consult us." On October 7, the two sets of delegates again met at Thomas Smith's. The result of these meetings is reflected in a letter Washington wrote to one of his old military companions, then in Gage's army at Boston. Though you are led to believe, he wrote in effect, that the Bostonians are rebellious, setting up for independence, and what not, I know from their leaders that it is not their wish or interest to set up for independence; they are merely desirous of preserving their rights.

Before the second Congress assembled, the old jealousy was revived. Adams records how the Sons of Liberty of Philadelphia met the Massachusetts delegates on the road, and warned them to be moderate and "to recognize the lead of Virginia." The "fine fellows" from Virginia, who were "very high," and beside whom the Bostonians were "mere milksops," had evidently made an impression. Deane, who was not very apt to be easily impressed, wrote that he had "never met, nor scarcely had an idea of meeting," with such men as the Southern provinces had sent to the Congress. In wealth and social position there could be no contrast, as the Southerners were the "capital men" of their colonies, while, with few exceptions, those from the East were men of "desperate circumstances," risking nothing but their necks in the contest. It was to Virginia that the Presidency of the Congress was given in 1774 and 1775, and when Peyton Randolph left the body, it was on Hancock, the propertied man of the East, that the honor was bestowed. The intimacy between the Adamses and Richard Henry Lee, radicals all, even for that day, in a measure accounts for this division of the honors, and appears to have been the controlling motive for this and subsequent political "deals."

The Massachusetts delegates brought with them the idea of a continental effort, and as early as June 2 the Massachusetts Congress hinted to the General Congress that as the army then collecting from different colonies was for the general defence of the rights of America, the regulation and control of it was a proper subject for continental action. On the next day Artemas Ward was "from expediency" appointed commander-in-chief by the Provincial Congress, but without any idea of forestalling any action that might be taken at Philadelphia. Learning of this appointment, the New York Congress thought proper to consider a like appointment in that colony, as "the supposition that in case a continental army should be established, these officers will be permitted to preserve their respective ranks, appears to us highly probable." In Philadelphia the notion of a continental army continually acquired force, until at length action was precipitated, and the step taken—a natural result from the course of events. The question of command now came up for decision.

Early in May, James Warren had expressed the wish that Washington or Lee were in command before Boston—a wish that had probably been inspired by the reports of Washington that the delegates had brought back from the Congress of 1774. Ward was too old to make an efficient commander, and the army too heterogeneous and independent to be easily kept in control. Gates and Lee had reputation for great military knowledge and experience, and Lee especially was much affected by the Eastern delegates. But they were both foreign-born, and both had served in the British establishment, and this was regarded as an objection that overruled what military features were in their favor. Remembering, perhaps, the warning of the Sons of Liberty, and a letter from Warren that may have reached him just before

the nomination of Washington would remind him of it—"I should heartily rejoice to see this way the beloved Colonel Washington, and do not doubt the New England generals would acquiesce in *showing to our sister colony, Virginia, the respect*, etc."—Adams suggested Washington, but opposition was made. Many of the delegates thought that as the army was nearly all from New England, had a general of its own, and appeared satisfied with him, Ward should receive the appointment. Fear was expressed that the supersession of the New England generals would lead to discontents and break up the army, as the troops were represented as being bound to their own officers. Adams was positive in the matter, and so was Richard Henry Lee, connected by marriage with Washington; but it required several days of effort to remove the opposition, and when the nomination was at length formally proposed by Washington's friend, Thomas Johnson of Maryland, the choice was made "unanimously." As a compensation, and to equalize the terms of the "deal," the first and third major-generals were taken from the Eastern colonies—Ward and Putnam—and of the eight brigadier-generals, all but one were taken from New England. Respect, surely, had been shown to Virginia, but New England did not suffer her claims to be forgotten; and between the two sections all the offices were divided.

The statement of Bancroft that there was only one general officer "who drew to himself the trust and love of his country," is one of those afterthoughts which subsequent events seem to justify. While we find the suggestion of Washington both among the Southern and the Eastern delegates, there was no "general demand" for his election. Indeed, Adams very distinctly states that it was the idea of many "of the staunchest members" of the Congress, and it was the yeast of the activity of a little junto in that body, the Adamses and Lee being its representatives, that leavened the mass. I do not lay much stress on the incident referred to by John Adams, of Washington attending the sessions of Congress in military uniform, thus, as has been suggested, nominating himself for the place. In a few doggerel lines on the Congress of 1774, Drowne says:

> "With manly gait,
> His faithful steel suspended by his side,
> Passed W'-sh-gt-n along, Virginia's hero."

This may be poetic license, but it is quite as probably a statement of fact. Washington may have worn a sword, the House of Burgesses may have worn a uniform when in session, and it may have been this that Adams had in mind. The incident is more curious than important.

No one admitted more frankly the political nature of his election than Washington himself. "The partiality of Congress, joined to a political motive, really left me without a choice," he wrote to his brother, and he uses nearly the same words in letters to Col. Bassett and the Virginia military companies. To his wife he wrote as if he had expected the appointment, and could not decline it if it were made:

> "You might, and I suppose did perceive, from the tenor of my letters, that I was apprehensive I could not avoid this appointment, as I did not pretend to intimate when I should return. This was the case. It was utterly out of my power to refuse this appointment, without exposing my character to such censures as would have reflected dishonor upon myself and given pain to my friends."

Adams was naturally jubilant over the success of his policy. "This appointment will have a great effect in cementing and securing the union of these colonies." An anonymous writer from Philadelphia said that "Washington, a delegate from Virginia, is, at the particular request of the people in New England," appointed; but this is claiming too much, as the "people" were not so much as consulted, and it is doubtful if the people would have ratified the choice, had it been submitted to them. Gage, with a truer insight in the matter, wrote to Dartmouth of "much division in Congress, jealousy of the Eastern delegates, owing to which Washington was appointed to the chief command of the rebel army." The act was, in fact, due to the efforts of a few of the more far-sighted leaders of the Revolution, and was made successful by colonial pride and jealousy.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

PREHISTORIC CHRONOLOGY.

ATHENS, May 12, 1889.

THE recent excavations at Mycenæ, taken in connection with the earlier and better-known facts relating to that most important of all ancient cities to the archæologist, throw a curious little side-light on some points of what, for want of a better term, I must call prehistoric chronology. Very little, it is true; and such as might be aptly compared to a glow-worm in a tomb, scarcely serving for more than direction, not for distance. So long as we are in the range of epigraphy or of sculpture of known schools, we have tolerably fair indications of time within the century, and ceramics and numismatics afford a general and in many cases an accurate guide to their epoch of production; but beyond these there is no datum which archæologists agree in admitting to the witness-box. Philologists rarely bring themselves to a profound interest in prehistoric questions, because the moment they step out of the range of the light which comes from literature, all evidence is to them too vague to be trusted as real; coinage hardly runs into the prehistoric, and pottery is too provincial to be a guide to epoch.

The introduction of letters, as might be understood, furnishes the indispensable condition to the permanence of tradition; and as a matter of fact, I believe the distinction between the purely mythical and the personal, *i. e.*, historical, must be drawn at that epoch. If we examine the traditions of the classical world with reference to this distinction, we shall find that from a date not long subsequent to the Trojan war (or that ethnical movement which is so symbolized)* genealogy and chronology become consistent and normal, while prior to that they are so mingled with myth that it is impossible to distinguish any individuality—persons representing dynasties, nations, or even epochs.† Thus Zeus, type of the entire Pelasgic civilization and religion, is represented as born in Arcadia (Pausanias VIII. 38, 41) and in Crete, as well as in Italy, where was situated the kingdom of his father, the realm of the seven Saturnian cities; while the earliest tradition of his worship is in Dodona—the interpretation being, that the Pelasgi, originating in Thessaly, formed empires in Italy, the Peloponnesus, and Crete, being the first civilizers in those regions ("La légende et l'histoire en Thessalie," Paul Monceaux, *Revue des Études Grecques*, April–June, 1888). It is, however, only after the return of the Greeks from Troy that we begin to get legitimate genealogies of the kings even of Greece; before that, the gods were always responsible for the birth of all greatness; Hercules in the Peloponnesus and Minos in Crete being the sons of Zeus, and both being really types of epochs of civilization, of organization of labor and public works; Dædalus being the arts developed in Crete through the union of the Pelasgic and Asiatic elements (symbolized in the rape of Europa by Zeus) and their joint establishment in that island (Schubring, 'History of Agrigentum,' "Dædalus, representative of the Pelasgic arts").

First of all, and long anterior to the Dædalian stage, was the Herculean, *i. e.*, the Pelasgic civilization in the Peloponnesus; Hercules being fabled as born at Tiryns, which, so far as can be determined by the structure, was the first Pelasgic city in the peninsula. Mycenæ could not have been much later, and in the remains there, still to be seen, are the technical evidences of an antiquity of which we can have but a very vague conception. The great tomb known as the Treasury of Atreus is familiar to all who have visited Greece, and has been to me for more than twenty years, but it was only after a long study, the result of repeated visits, that I began to realize the importance of it; and only now that I have been able to examine the ruins most recently uncovered by the excavations of the Archæological Society have I begun to form an idea of the comparative chronology of the city. This tomb (if it is a tomb) is a structure of the flourishing period of the Pelasgic rule, and, except the walls, is the only remains of that time. It is built of a hard conglomerate found in the vicinity, and the lintel of the door is composed of two stones, of which the inner one (which carries the weight of the stone above itself) weighs about 150 tons, and has been worked without the aid of cutting tools. So have all the minor stones in the structure, which have been split, hammered into shape, and then polished by trituration. Inside are to be seen numerous drill-holes, in some of which are the remnants of bronze nails employed to fasten on the bronze plates which formed a lining to a part of it at least. In the conglomerate occur occasional fragments of the opaque cornelian used by the archaic Italian gem-cutters for their scarabæi, and which after them were the favorite material of the Etruscans for the same purpose. These still retain a brilliant polish and project from the surrounding surface nearly a line. The other material has been corroded away by the action of the elements so equally that, wherever the cornelian appears, it has about the same relief. The original surface of the limestone has entirely disappeared, leaving the harder stone only to tell the manner in which it was worked, with a secondary indication in the depressions left in the splitting of the stone; and the ensemble shows clearly that no chisel could have been employed. For the rest, we have ample proof in later work that the cutting of stone was not practised till long after. I am speaking now of the interior of the building, which must have had the minimum of exposure to the elements. The entrance of the tomb, which was never intended to be covered in, was ornamented with an architectural façade of some sort, apparently. Two pilasters at the sides of the doorway are indicated, and the base of one of these pilasters, in a ruined condition, is still lying at one side of the entrance, the condition of its surface corresponding to the general condition of the front of the tomb. But this façade has been restored in later times, and the bases of the new pilasters are in their places. They seem to me to indicate that the work was possibly never finished; but, if finished, it must also have been done before the builders had learned to cut stone, for though of a gray marble not nearly so hard as the harder nodules in the conglomerate, they

* I offer no views on any question connected with this subject, it being entirely immaterial to my study what the Trojan war was, or who Homer or his authority.

† Pausanias VIII. 6, "And as to the nation [Arcadians] generally, their most ancient event is the war against Ilium."

are only roughed out with the stone-saw. The faces of the door-jambs, which are slightly recessed, are also redressed with the saw, but it is clear that it has been done on an old surface, and the demarcation between the two is perfectly recognizable to the slightest scrutiny.

Now, what I want to call attention to particularly is the fact that, though the original surface of the stone, inside and out, of the tomb is entirely corroded away by the elements, the saw-marks of the restoration are as fresh as if they had been made only a few months or days, not a line or scratch being effaced. The workmen sawed in at right angles till the cuts nearly met, when they broke out the resulting prism, and the fracture is sharp and crystalline still! But the stone saw was not introduced into Greece till the seventh (or possibly the eighth) century B. C., so that this restoration of the ancient tomb could not have been earlier than the Achaian dominion. There are no chisel-marks, so it could not have been later than the sixth century B. C., for we have abundant proof that at that time the Greeks were fully in possession of the stone-cutter's art. It was in all probability, then, of the interval between the sixth and the eighth. The absence of chisel-marks might be accounted for by an unfinished state of the work; but the second tomb, between this and the city, is largely of the same workmanship, and, so far as I could see, has no chisel-work on it; and the same is true in a more unmistakable manner of the relief over the Lion gate, which was done, no doubt, with the best art of its day. The stone has been sawn out, and the relief has been done with a drill, and with trituration for the finishing, and the drill-marks are clearly visible still. The right-hand jamb of the gate shows slight marks of what may have been a saw; but I am inclined to think that the gate itself, substantially as it stands, is of early work, as the sally-port certainly is, the lintel being fitted on with a mortice and tenon, rudely broken out—a difficult job, which, at least so far as the tenon is concerned, would have been very easy with the saw. Moreover, the jambs and lintel are clearly enough old work. There are also some fragments of half-worked stone of the same kind in the outer court of the city, thrown aside when the interment was made which Schliemann discovered (or, rather, which Stamatakis discovered, for, in the actual finding of the remains and treasure, Schliemann had no responsibility), which have the saw-marks and fracture quite fresh. The same holds true at Tiryns, where the jamb of the great gate is still standing of old work, and the fragments of the sawed stone from the later city which were employed in the reconstruction which Schliemann mistook for the archaic palace, the residence of Proetus, are to be seen in various parts, being stones extracted from the ruins and utilized long after.

Between the construction of the old tomb and the restoration there must have been a lapse of many centuries. The former belongs to the archaic city, the Pelasgic Mycenæ; and we know that between the Pelasgic dynasty and the Achaian there was the Danaid and the Pelopid. The Achaian, being at its prime at the epoch of the Trojan war, coincides with the period to which I pointed above as the demarcation between mythology and history, and the earliest documents in regard to which are the Homeric poems. Beyond that we have absolutely no other criterion of the lapse of time than the contrast between the corroded surface of the earliest work on this tomb and the fresh and crystalline surface of the Achaian restoration. But if we might make a rule of three of it, and ask if the lapse of twenty-five centuries (or, if we suppose that the later stone was worked the day before Mycenæ was destroyed by the Argives, more than twenty-three) has produced so slight an effect on the surface of cut stone, how long would it take to produce the utter obliteration of the worked surface which we find in the older work? The only answer we can make is, that the calculation defies arithmetic, even beggars guess-work.

In the recent excavations, conducted by the most intelligent and experienced of the official Greek working archæologists, Tsountas, there has been discovered on the summit of the acropolis of Mycenæ the ruins of a palace which I am fully persuaded belongs to the period of the great Mycenæan rule, built of beautifully polished blocks of stone with marble floors and what was once a grand stone staircase. It is so far only a vestige, but enough to judge of what it must have been. I am not bold enough or easy enough in my beliefs to call it Agamemnon's palace, nor should I carry it so far into the debatable times; but I am ready to attribute it, on the present evidence, to the time when the lions were put over the gateway—probably to the height of the prosperity of the city. It is only incompletely excavated as yet, and, when entirely disengaged from the débris of later constructions over it, may be far more significant than it seems now. As it is, however, I consider it the most important relic of the heroic age for technical study we have yet found in all Greece—not Agamemnonian, but perhaps Homeric, and probably standing when Mycenæ was overthrown after Platæa, for, so far as we know, Mycenæ had never before been taken, its walls being considered impregnable, so that it was finally starved out. That it was utterly ruined we are told by Strabo and Pausanias both, and this has been long admitted as the historical end of the city; but the excavations have shown that it was inhabited again, for this ruin has been reconstructed after a rude fashion, and fitted for human residence, and then again ruined and reconstructed—perhaps more than once. On the very summit, too, is the trace of a wall indicating that a building stood there, which Dr. Dörpfeld has set down in his plan of the excavations as an Hellenic temple. But besides the parallelogram of the foundations, there is nothing to indicate that it was a temple, or the epoch to which it belonged. That it was not a Christian church is clear from its plan, but not a trace of column or capital remains to show that it was a temple, or of what epoch, if a temple. Round the foundation walls, however, were found tiles stamped with the town mark, showing that it was probably a public building, and the characters are those of the first or second century A. D. Among this débris was an inscription, apparently of the second century B. C., acknowledging a gift of 500 drachmas to the town, and one of the time of Nabis, tyrant of Sparta, rendering him thanks for the liberation of a number of citizens of Mycenæ, which is thus shown to have been reoccupied and inhabited possibly for four centuries subsequent to its supposed abandonment. That the structure supposed to be a temple could have been left standing by the Argives is impossible, for it is constructed partly over the palace I have spoken of, which was clearly burned; and that it was occupied in the second century A. D. is shown by the roof-tiles round it. By the inscription found near it, it is indicated as the locality used for the publication of decrees down to the Roman conquest. It must therefore have been a construction of the reoccupation, as its poor and unsubstantial foundations suggest.

On the hypothesis that it was of a temple of the fifth or sixth century B. C., this foundation wall was used as an argument in the discussion between Schliemann and myself, on the antiquity of the ruin on Tiryns, to show that the rubble walls under it must be archaic, and that therefore the rubble walls of Tiryns were equally so. But not only does not the argument hold, through the demonstration of the late period of the supposed temple, but the similarity between the walls in question does not obtain. Those of Mycenæ in question are of rubble and mortar, and are probably of the last centuries B. C., but those of Tiryns contain brick as well as mortar and the ruins of a Byzantine chapel, and the site was covered over with fragments of Byzantine pottery.

The general conclusion is the same for both cities. Mycenæ was reoccupied by a poverty-stricken population returned to their ancestral homes and profiting by the still strong walls, which it is easy to see have been repaired, and the ruins of the ancient houses. Tiryns was only reoccupied by the Byzantine colony who were its last inhabitants; in both cases the colonists utilized the stones of the ancient constructions so far as they would work in, but in Mycenæ there is a trace of the ancient house-wall to give an idea of the architecture, while in Tiryns there are only some door-sills and fragments of sawn stone of the Achaian epoch; of the ancient walls not a trace. The presence of well-burned brick laid in mortar is conclusive on this point, and of this I was able at this visit to satisfy Mr. Tsountas, who accompanied me in the review. The Byzantine character of the ruin has always been admitted by the principal Greek archæological authorities.

But what we may yet learn from the excavations in Mycenæ is hardly to be conjectured, for thus far only a small portion of the acropolis has been cleared out. Another gate connected with a gallery resembling those of Tiryns has been opened, and a series of tombs excavated in the solid rock, but resembling in plan the great tomb, have been discovered. In them occur many of those curious engraved gems known as "island stones," resembling in the character of design the relief on the lion gate and practically establishing the conclusion that they are the work of the same art.* They are not Phœnician, and so far they are mainly found in the isles of the Greek archipelago, and especially in those to which we know that the Cretan civilization extended. No inscribed articles have been found in them, but some ivory carvings have a decided Assyrian character. Tsountas believes that there are many more to be opened, and as a fair proportion of

*These gems furnish one of the most interesting technical problems of prehistoric archæology. They are of archaic workmanship and of the leatoid or scaraboid shape, with a perforation showing that they were intended to be used as seals. The cutting, though of widely varying character of archaism, is always masterly, and those found in the tombs at Mycenæ are of great range of workmanship, and mostly of the monumental design of which the lion relief is an example universally known. Two or three of these, indeed, closely resemble that monument, and the lion is a favorite element in the design. Two lions reared with the fore feet on an altar occur twice in the collection made by Tsountas, with others of other animals in the same relation. The lion tomb in Phrygia is another well-known case, and it has been adduced as a proof that the art came from Phrygia; but Prof. Ramsay, who discovered it, is of the opinion that it is later than the relief of Mycenæ, and that the art of which it is one of the examples came from the west in a developed state. See the interesting article by Prof. Ramsay in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for October, 1888, which has just reached me, and some of the conclusions in which are curiously near to some of my own formed on other grounds and prior to having read his paper. He says: "If the date which I assign to the Phrygian monuments, viz., the two centuries preceding 675 B. C., is accepted, I do not think it is allowable to place the Mycenæan gateway earlier than the ninth and it is more likely to belong to the eighth century." In conversation with him I had learned the opinion he had formed, but knew nothing of the grounds for it, and the article to which I call attention I have only read since the above letter was written. I am, however, disposed to differ with him in one point, and that a most important one: I should refer the art to which we owe both the monuments in question to Crete for its beginnings, and consider it an offshoot of the Dædalian.

them are found to be virgin, there is a good chance still of finding something to throw light on their provenance, which I am confident is at least not Phœnician. Tsountas is now at work on a large tomb of the same character near Sparta which has the appearance, so far as explored, of never having been plundered. I hope to be present at the final clearing.

W. J. Stillman.

HARRIET SHELLEY AND CATHERINE NUGENT.—II.

Dublin, May 11, 1889.

XI.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Tan-y-rallt, Jany. 16th [1813].

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

The sight of your well known hand was like intelligence from the dead to the living. Shall I say that it gave me only pleasure? no, that is too cold a word to convey the feelings of happiness, in which we all alike participated. I am sorry to hear you have been so much engaged, as I cannot bear the idea of a woman like yourself being obliged to do that which so many are better qualified to perform. I saw with very great sorrow the ruin of so many of your valuable manufactories. I knew how many of your unfortunate countrymen suffered all the miseries of famine before, and now there must be many more. That the wounds of thy beloved country may soon be healed for ever, is the first wish of an Englishwoman who only regrets her being born among those inhuman beings who have already caused so much misery wherever they turn their steps. All the good I wrote of Mr. Madoco I recant. I find I have been dreadfully deceived respecting that man. We are now living in his house, where formerly nothing but folly and extravagance reigned. Here they held their midnight revels, insulting the spirit of natures sublime scenery. The sea which used to dash against the most beautiful grand rocks, for grand indeed they are, and the mind is lost in contemplation of them towering above one another, and on the opposite side the most jagged mountains, whose peaks are generally covered in clouds, was to please his stupid vanity and to celebrate his name, turned from its course, and now we have for a fine bold sea which there used to be, nothing but a sandy marsh uncultivated and ugly to the view. How poor does this work of man seem when standing on one of the mountains we see them all rising one behind the other looking as tho they had stood the iron grasp of time many centuries. Then to look down on this embankment which viewed from the height looks as if a puff of wind from the mountains would send it to oblivion like its founder's name. The harm that man has done through his extravagance is incalculable. Here he built the town of Tremadoc and then almost ruined its shopkeepers by never paying their just debts. We have been the means of saving the bank from utter destruction, for which I am extremely glad, as that person who purchases it will reap very great benefit from it. I admire your song much, and am determined to set it to some very plantiff tune. I have seen Miss Curran: she resides in England. What I saw of her I did not like. She said begging was a trade in Dublin. To tell you the truth she is not half such an Irishwoman as myself, and that is why I did not feel disposed to like her. Besides she is a coquette the most abominable thing in the world. I met her at Godwin's house alas [paper torn] Godwin he too is changed, and filled with prejudices, and besides too he expects such universal homage from all persons younger than himself, that it is very disagreeable to be in company with him on that account, and he wanted Mr. Shelley to join the Tory party and do just as they pleased, which made me very angry, as we know what men the Tories are, now. He is grown old and unimpassioned, therefore is not in the least calculated for such enthusiasts as we are. He has suffered a great deal for his principles, but that ought to make him more staunch in them, at least it would me. Eliza and Percy desire their kind regards to you with many thanks for your embassy to Stockdale, who will hear from Mr. S. soon. Adieu, dearest friend to liberty and truth, and that you may ever be happy is the first prayer of your affectionate friends

H. Shelley.

XII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

May 21st [1813] Cooke's Hotel, Albermarle-Street, London

My dear Mrs. Nugent

I find the longer a time elapses before I make my apology for not having written before, the more awkward I feel at the idea of addressing you. My greatest consolation, however, is derived from this—that you will not attribute my silence to neglect, but to the hurry and bustie of a city. I am ashamed to say I have written to no one since I arrived here, if that can extenuate my crime. You would pardon me if you knew in what a scene of confusion I live. To give a description of it is impossible. Even now there are two waiters in the room to lay our cloth for dinner, and you well know the movements of a waiter are far from silent. I have been in London a long time, though it seems to me that I have only been here a few days. Mr. Shelleys family are very eager to be reconciled to him, and I should not in the least wonder if my next letter was not sent from his paternal roof, as we expect to be there in a week or two. His father has been in town, when, at the earnest solicitation of his cousin, Bysshe wrote to him. He has not yet answered the letter; but we expect it daily. Their conduct is most surprising, after treating us like dogs they wish for our Society. I hope it will turn out well, tho' I hardly dare suppose so. My sister has joined me some time. You may suppose I was not a little pleased to see her again. We have not got our boxes yet, that were sent from Cork to Bristol, and when we shall see them again is uncertain. Mr. Ryan dines with us to-day. I give him meat, but we have all taken to the vegetable regimen again, which I shall not leave off, for I find myself so much better for it, that it would be very great injustice to eat flesh again. Have you seen Mr. Lawless? He wrote to us from prison a few weeks ago, but I do not suppose he was there, because Ryan knew nothing about it, and he is only just arrived from there. This is franked by La Touche, for I feel it is not worth postage, I hope to hear from you soon, tho' I feel I do not deserve it; but you are too kind to take any advantage over me. Mr. Shelley continues perfectly well, and his poem of Queen Mab is begun, tho it must not be published under pain of death, because it is too much against every existing establishment. It is to be privately distributed to his friends, and some copies sent over to America. Do you [*sic*] any one that would wish for so dangerous a gift? If you do, tell me of them, and they shall not be forgotten. Adieu! All unite in kind regards to you, and I remain your sincerely attached friend

H Shelley.

Direct to this hotel

XIII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

June 22d [1813] Cookes Hotel, Dover Street, Piccadilly

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

The kind expressions contained in your last letter gave me sincere pleasure, feeling as I did that I had not acted according to my ideas of right and wrong in delaying writing to you. I am sorry to hear that poor Lawless is confined. If he had taken his friends advice all his debts would have been settled long ago; but pride, that bane of all human happiness, unfortunately stopped, and marred all his good prospects, Mr. Ryan is still in London; but I expect to hear daily of his leaving us Have you had any good weather, for ours is miserable? our summer has not yet commenced, The fruit is still sour for want of sun, and will continue so from the present appearance of the weather. Our Irish servant is going to leave. Poor fellow, he pines after his dear Ireland, and is at the same time very ill. He was never of any use to us; but so great was his attachment that we could not bear to send him away. Mr. Shelley has broken off the negociation, and will have no more to say to his son, because that son will not write to the people of Oxford, and declare his return to Christianity. Did you ever hear of such an old dotard? It seems that so long as he lives, Bysshe must never hope to see or hear anything of his family. This is certainly an unpleasant circumstance, particularly as his mother wishes to see him, and has a great affection for him. What think you of Bonaparte? To most of the Irish he is a great favorite; I only wish we had peace. So long a war as this has been is indeed too dreadful to continue much longer. How is your health? I am afraid you sit too close to your business, to enjoy good health, yet, as the winter is gone, surely you need not make any more warm tippets! That will be time enough next November. We have not seen much of Godwin, for his wife is so dreadfully disagreeable that I could not bear the idea of seeing her, Mr. S. has done that away, tho' by telling G. that I could not bear the society of his darling wife. Poor man, we are not the only people who find her troublesome. Mr. S. joins me and Eliza in kind regards to you, and believe me yours with esteem

H. S.

XIV.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

August 8th [1813] High Elms House, Bracknell, Berkshire

My dear Mrs. Nugent

I confess I have been guilty of seeming unkindness in not writing before; but such a multiplicity of business has occupied me ever since the receipt of your last that I have not had a moment to spare, even to you, my kind friend. The babe is quite well, and very much grown. She is indebted to you for many kind enquiries, which one day she will thank you for in person. Mr. S. is of age; but no longer heir to the immense property of his sires. They are trying to take it away, and will I am afraid succeed, as it appears that there is a flaw in the drawing up of the settlement, by which they can deprive him of everything. This is a beautiful idea, and well worthy the noble men who have formed it, among whom I suspect a certain *great personage*. They have put it into Chancery, tho' I fancy it can and will be kept an entire secret, you may suppose that he will do everything to prevent this shameful abuse of property, as we are convinced that more good would be effected if we have it, than if they regain it. We are now in a house 30 miles from London, merely for convenience. How long we remain is uncertain, as I fear our necessities will oblige us to remove to a greater distance. our friends the Newtons are trying to do everything in their power to serve us; but our doom is decided. you who know us well may judge of our feelings. To have all our plans set aside in this manner is a miserable thing. Not that I regret the loss, but for the sake of those I intended to benefit. Mr. S. unites with me and Eliza in kind regards, whilst believe me your firmly attached friend,

H. S.

XV.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Sept. 10 [1813], High Elms House, Bracknell, Berks.

My dear Mrs. Nugent

I hasten to answer your last letter and to give you the same hopes which we entertain about the subject of my last. Mr. Shelley has seen his Father and told him of what he heard, which he denied, and received him very kindly. Since then his lawyer has employed a council [*sic*] His opinion is at present pending. I have no doubt now, tho' I had at first, that they can take it away. I have a very bad opinion of all lawyers in general, and I rather think Mr. S's lawyer was either told so by some one, or he thought it necessary to employ a council. They are for ever playing a losing game into each others hands. I am very sorry to hear you have been so ill. I hope sincerely you will soon recover, and do not, I pray you, sit so close to your business, for it is not one that contributes to the happiness of the many, only the few, who ought not in my opinion, to indulge in such useless luxuries at the expense of so many who are even now at a loss for food. Of late we have had many arguments concerning the re-

spect that all men pay to property. Now what do you think of this affair? I wish much to know if your ideas on this subject correspond with ours? I will not tell you what they are yet as I have an excellent reason which you will acknowledge when you hear it. The post has just brought me a letter from Mr. Shelley's sister, who says that her father is doing all in his power to prevent his being arrested. I think even his family pride must long to give way on the present occasion. [Paper torn] keeps everything a secret, but Mrs. Shelley tells her son everything she hears. I will write again soon and tell you everything that takes place. With every good wish for your happiness, in which we all unite, believe me most affectionately your friend, H. SHELLEY.

We think of going to our favourite Nantgwilt but not yet. you will certainly hear from me again at this house before we can go. Let me hear from you soon.

XVI.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

SUNDAY, October 11th [1813].

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

We are again among our dear mountains. One week has sufficed to perform a journey of more than 300 miles, with my sweet babe, who I am most happy to say has received no injury from the journey. I am now staying at Lowwood Inn, which is close to the Lake of Windermere in Westmoreland. We do not wish any one to know where we are. Therefore if any one should ask you I rely upon friendship for not satisfying their curiosity. Have you seen Daniel? We were obliged to discharge him, for his conduct was so unprincipled that it was impossible to have him in our service any longer. Is Mr. Lawless out of prison yet? Had he not taken us in as he did, Bysshe would have done something for him; but his behaviour was altogether so dishonest that Mr Shelley will not do anything for him at present. If he wished it he could not, for he is obliged to pay 3 for 1 which is so ruinous that he will only raise a sufficient to pay his debts. In November he is to see his father; but I do not expect they will settle anything, for Mr. S. will never give way to his son in the least. How has your health been since I heard from you last? I sincerely hope you are better, and that you will take care of yourself. I wish you could see my sweet babe. She is so fair, with such sweet blue eyes, that the more I see her the more beautiful she looks. Some day, my dear friend, I hope you will come to England, and pay us a visit. When we get our dear Nantgwilt; then I may make sure of you. Mr. S. joins me and Eliza in kind regards to you, and may you ever be happy is the best and first wish of your sincere friend.

H. SHELLEY.

Direct your letter to me at Mrs. Calverts, Greta Bank, Keswick, Cumberland.

XVII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

EDINBURGH, October 20th [1813].

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

My last letter was written from the lakes of Cumberland, where we intended to stay still next; but not finding any house that would suit us we came on to this far-famed city. A little more than two years has passed since I made my first visit here to be united to Mr. Shelley. To me they have been the happiest and the longest years of my life. The rapid succession of events since that time make the two years appear immeasurably long. I think the regular method of measuring time is by the number of different ideas which a rapid succession of events naturally give rise to. When I look back to the time before I was married I seem to feel I have lived a long time. Tho' my age is but eighteen, yet I feel as if I was much older. Why are you so silent, my dear friend? I earnestly hope you are not ill I am afraid it is nearly a month since I heard from you. I know well you would write oftener if you could. What is your employment on a Sunday? I think on those days you might snatch a few minutes to gratify my wishes. Do not direct your letter to me at Mrs. Calverts; but to the post office in this city. We think of remaining here all this winter. Tho' by no means fond of cities, yet I wished to come here, for when we went to the lakes we found such a set of human beings living there that it took off all our desire of remaining among the mountains. This City is, I think, much the best. The people here are not so intolerant, as they are in London. Literature stands on a higher footing here than anywhere else. My darling babe is quite well, and very much improved. Pray let me hear from you soon. Tell me if I can do anything for you. Mr. Shelley joins me and Eliza in kind regards to you, whilst I remain your affectionate friend H. S.

Do not tell anyone where we are.

XVIII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

No 36 FREDERICK-STREET EDINBURGH
[Postmark 23 Nov. 1813.]

My dear Mrs. Nugent

Your letter called forth the most lively feelings of regret. It is so long since I received a letter from you that I began to feel the greatest anxiety on your account. How much do I feel for your ill state of health. Tell me if I can be of any service to you. How are you situated with respect to personal comfort and attendance? Have you anyone by you who can sympathize with you? If you have not let me come and attend you. It is the office of a friend to soothe the languid moments of illness. The mind looks for sympathy more at such a time than when in perfect health. I am afraid Lawless has practised upon you, as he did upon us. Some time back he wrote to Mr S. about Daniel, who lived with us, saying we had not treated him well. Now the truth is this—we were very fond of this man. He appeared so much attached to us, with so much honesty and simplicity, that we kept him tho' of no use whatever. For the whole time he stayed with us he never did anything. Afterwards he turned out very ungrateful and behaved so insolently that we were obliged to turn him away. This is the man Lawless wrote about; but do not think I am offended at what you say of him, as I know it proceeds from the goodness of your heart. I only wish the object was more deserving of your kindness. There has been no conciliation between Mr. [paper torn] his father. Their opinions are so contrary that I do not think there is the least chance of their being reconciled. His father is now ill with the gout; but there is no danger I suppose. If there was he would send for his son, and be reconciled to him. I sincerely hope this will find you better. You know what pleasure it would give me to render you any service. Therefore do not let a false opinion of justice keep you from applying to me in anything in which I can serve you. Mr. Shelley and Eliza join me in all good wishes for the recovery of your health, and believe me the most firmly, your attached friend,

H SHELLEY.

XIX.—Harriet Shelley to Mrs. Newman.

Madam,

It is so long since I have heard from my amiable friend Mrs Nugent, that I begin to fear she has quitted this world of sorrow and pain. If she has, no human being will regret her loss more than myself. I must beg you to write by return of post and tell me all the particulars. If I am wrong in my conjectures tell her to write if only one line to her most attached and faithful friend,

H. SHELLEY.

23 CHAPEL STREET GROSVENOR SQUARE
August 8th [1814]

XX.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

August 25th [1814]
23 CHAPEL STREET

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

I am afraid you will think I am not sincere, when I tell you what pleasure the sight of your handwriting caused me. I think as you do with the greatest horror on the present state of things—giving the slave trade to France for seven years. Can anything be more horrible? Peace has been hardly purchased at this price. I am dreadfully afraid America will never hold out against the numbers sent to invade her. How senseless all those rejoicings are! Deluded beings, they little know the many injuries that are to ensue. I expect France will soon have another revolution. The present King is not at all fitted to govern such a nation. Mr. Shelley is in France.* You will be surprised to find I am not with him; but times are altered, my dear friend, and tho' I will not tell you what has passed, still do not think that you cloud my mind with your sorrows. Every age has its cares. God knows, I have mine. Dear Ianthe is quite well. She is fourteen months old, and has six teeth. What I should have done without this dear babe and my sister I know not. This world is a scene of heavy trials to us all. I little expected ever to go through what I have. But time heals the deepest wounds, and for the sake of that sweet infant. I hope to live many years. Write to me often my dear friend you know not what pleasure your letters give me. I wish you lived in England that I might be near you. Tell me how you are in health. Do not despond. Tho' I see nothing to hope for when all that was virtuous becomes vicious and depraved. So it is—nothing is certain in this world. I suppose there is another where those that have suffered heavily here will be happy. Tell me what you think of this. My sister is with me. I wish you knew her as well as I do. She is worthy of your love. Now, dear friend, may you still be happy is the first wish of your ever faithful friend,

H. SHELLEY,

Ianthe is well and very engaging

XXI.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

My dearest Mrs. Nugent,

Your fears are verified. Mr Shelley has become profligate and sensual, owing entirely to Godwin's "Political Justice." The very great evil that book has done is not to be told. The false doctrines therein contained have poisoned many a young and virtuous mind. Mr. Shelley is living with Godwins two daughters—one by Mary Wolstonecraft, the other the daughter of his present wife, called Clairmont. I told you some time back Mr. S. was to give Godwin three thousand pounds. It was in effecting the accomplishment of this scheme that he was obliged to to be at Godwins house, and Mary was determined to secure him. She is to blame. She heated his imagination by talking of her mother, and going to her grave with him every day, till at last she told him she was dying in love for him, accompanied with the most violent gestures and vehement expostulations. He thought of me and my sufferings, and begged her to get the better of a passion as degrading to him as herself. She then told him she would die—he had rejected her, and what appeared to her as the sublimest virtue was to him a crime. Why could we not all live together? I as his sister, She as his wife? He had the folly to believe this possible and sent for me, then residing at Bath. You may suppose how I felt at the disclosure. I was laid up for a fortnight after. I could do nothing for myself. He begged me to live. The doctors gave me over. They said 'twas impossible. I saw his despair. The agony of my beloved sister; and owing to the great strength of my constitution I lived, and here I am, my dear friend, waiting to bring another infant into this woful world. Next month I shall be confined. He will not be near me. No, he cares not for me now. He never asks after me or sends me word how he is going on. In short the man I once loved is dead. This is a vampire. His character is blasted for ever. Nothing can save him now. Oh! if you knew what I have suffered, your heart would drop blood for my miseries. When may I expect to see you? Do tell me, my dear friend, and write soon. Eliza is at Southampton with my darling babe. London does not agree with her. Will you enquire for a family of the name of Colthurst in Dublin? There is one son and daughter growing (?) up living with the mother. I want the direction, as I know them very well. Adieu, my dear friend, may you be happy is the best wish of her who sincerely loves you H. SHELLEY

23 CHAPEL STREET GROSVENOR SQUARE
November 20th [1814].

* Shelley eloped with Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin the previous month.

XXII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

Write very soon and tell me if you have received my last letter

My dearest Mrs. Nugent,

I have been confined a fortnight on Wednesday. Ianthe has a brother. He is an eight month's child and very like his unfortunate father, who is more depraved than ever. Oh my dear friend what a dreadful trial it is to bring children into the world so utterly helpless as he is, with no kind father's care to heal the wounded frame. After so much suffering my labour was a very good one, from nine in the morning till nine at night. He is a very healthy fine child for the time. I have seen his father: he came to see me as soon as he knew of the event; but as to his tenderness for me, none remains. He said he was glad it was a boy, because he would make money cheaper. You see how that noble soul is debased. Money now, and not philosophy is the grand spring of his actions. Indeed the pure and enlightened philosophy he once delighted in has flown. He is no longer that pure and good being he once was, nor can he ever retrieve himself. You will see us all in the Spring; I am about to come to Ireland, to get my boxes which are detained there. You shall then return with me to England, my dear friend, which you have often promised, and I will promise Mrs. Newman not to keep you any longer than you like to stay. God bless you, my dearest friend till we meet. Let me hear from you soon. Eliza sends her love to you, and Ianthe too. May you be happy is the first wish of her who loves you sincerely. H. SHELLEY.

23 CHAPEL STREET, GROSVENOR SQUARE
Decr. 11th [1814].

XXIII.—Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent.

January 24th [1815].

My dear Mrs. Nugent,

I am sorry to tell you my poor little boy has been very ill. He is better now, and the first spare time I devote to you. Why will you not come to England, my dear friend, and stay with me? I should be so happy to have you with me. I am truly miserable, my dear friend. I really see no termination to my sorrows. As to Mr. Shelley, I know nothing of him. He neither sends or comes to see me. I am still at my father's which is very wretched. When I shall quit this house I know not. Everything goes against me. I am weary of life. I am so restrained here. That life is scarcely worth having. How I wish you were here. What will you do, my dear Catherine? Now those Newmans retire you will not like to go to another house of business. The few years you have to live may surely be passed more pleasantly. Do now make up your mind at once to come and stay with me. I will do everything to make you happy. For myself happiness is fled. I live for others. At nineteen I could descend a willing victim to the tomb. How I wish those dear children had never been born. They stay my fleeting spirit, when it would be in another state. How many there are who shudder at death. I have been so near it that I feel no terrors. Mr. Shelley has much to answer for. He has been the cause of great misery to me and mine. I shall never live with him again. Tis impossible. I have been so deceived, so cruelly treated, that I can never forget it. Oh no, with all the affections warm, a heart devoted to him, and then to be so cruelly blighted. Oh! Catherine, you do not know what it is to be left as I am, a prey to anguish, corroding sorrow, with a mind too sensitive to other's pain. But I will think no more. There is madness in thought. Could I look into futurity for a short time how gladly would I pierce the veil of mystery that wraps my fate. Is it wrong do you think, to put an end to ones sorrows? I often think of it—all is so gloomy and desolate. Shall I find repose in another world? oh grave, why do you not tell us what is beyond thee? Let me hear from you soon my dear friend. Your letters make me more happy. Tell me about Ireland. You know I love the green Isle and all its natives. Eliza joins in kind love to you. I remain your sincere but unhappy friend H. SHELLEY

CHAPEL-STREET.

This is the last we have. It is impossible for any one, above all for an Irishman, to rise from a perusal of the foregoing letters without feeling overwhelming, if not indignant, sympathy with Harriet Shelley. They are the effusions of a sweet, true, confiding, noble nature. She committed suicide in November, 1816.

Catherine Nugent continued to live a member of the Newman household after Mr. Newman retired from business. My father, Richard Davis Webb, was admitted to her friendship while he was yet an apprentice to the printing business. She became one of his most intimate friends. He thus refers to her in two letters :

[November, 1826.] "William Allen [a distinguished member of the Society of Friends] is expected in town to-day, and Catherine Nugent is coming to meeting to see him. . . . She is a wonderful woman—altho' very plain, little, and republican-looking."

[21st October, 1833.] "Catherine Nugent has amazing spring and elasticity of mind, as if her mind made her forget that she had a very weak body. When I remarked her great intellect, her uncommon quickness—her depth of charity and love of mankind—her utter absence of all personal selfishness—her quiet, unostentatious benevolence—her rapid glance at the true motives of people, and at the real bearing of any matters that come before her—I cannot help feeling a great degree of reverence for her and of attachment to her. Her greatest fault appears to be an unguardedness of language which makes her unscrupulous in her choice of words, so that she says unkind things now and then; but I look on this as a very small fault in estimating her character—though with many she would get off better with many an unamiable flaw in her manners and disposition. . . . [Others] . . . sink below contempt when compared with Catherine Nugent for natural abilities, wisdom in council, or powers of useful and improving conversation, or with Mary Newman in extent of accomplishment and information."

My recollections of Catherine Nugent are shadowy. I felt somewhat in awe of her. She died December 11, 1847, aged 76, and was buried with Mr. and Mrs. Newman in St. Anne's churchyard in this city, where Mrs. Hemans, the poetess, also lies. The grave is directly inside the door leading from Molesworth Street.

The Newmans' only child Mary was devotedly attached to Catherine Nugent. She adopted her niece Catherine L. Nugent. Possessed of ample means, they lived a most retired, reserved life, dreading publicity and availing themselves of few of the wider possibilities and advantages now afforded by money. I felt grieved many years ago when they told me they had destroyed most of Catherine Nugent's correspondence. Mary Newman, a sweet, amiable woman, passed away and was buried in Mount Jerome Cemetery. Catherine L. Nugent continued on in the old house whither the Newmans had retired, and in the midst of the old surroundings all unchanged.

The reference to Catherine Nugent in Mr. McCarthy's book surprised me. He evidently had not identified her. I had never heard of the Shelleys in connection with Catherine Nugent. I applied to her niece. Yes, her aunt had been intimate with them, but her aunt believed Shelley to have acted in such a way to his first wife that she could scarcely bear to think, much less to speak, of him. She could scarcely bear to hear his name mentioned. Miss Newman and she had found letters of Mrs. Shelley to her aunt which she meant to destroy. I persuaded her to let me see them and I carefully made copies.

Catherine L. Nugent now rests with her well-beloved friend, Mary Newman. No members of either family are known to be in existence. There is no reason why the letters should not be given to the public—it is due to the memory of one whom most will believe to have been sorely wronged. It is probable the originals have been destroyed. If in existence, it may be some time before they are available.

ALFRED WEBB.

Correspondence.

JUDGE MATTHEWS'S SUCCESSOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: I wish, through the columns of the *Nation*, to contribute one suggestion to the discussion of the vacancy in the Supreme Court of the United States, the filling of which is of such vital importance to the proper organization of that tribunal. It seems to have become the settled policy of the national Executive to have a certain regard, within broad landmarks, for the geographical or sectional location of the various appointees. In so far as this idea rests upon the fact that the tone of men's thoughts is more or less affected by their surroundings, it seems to have met the approval of the great common sense of the people. It is a tradition, and, *me judice*, a correct one, that the Supreme Court of the United States should in a general way embody the prevailing intellectual spirit or temper or mode of thought of the four great sections of our country. But the South differs from the other three. There we find two different modes of thought. These two are widely divergent, not to say antagonistic. But one is in almost exclusive possession of the field, while the other is circumscribed within narrow limits. To obviate possible misunderstanding, and also to avoid going too much into details, I will say that the difference referred to does not involve any long-since exploded dogma of secession, but the various limitations of Federal and State jurisdiction in matters of municipal taxation, the powers of corporations under the inter-State-commerce clause, the enforcement of contracts with quasi-corporations, questions of inland navigation and bridge-building, the operation of the rights of citizenship and the delicate jurisdictional points that inevitably arise in this connection, the election laws in so far as they affect the election of Congressmen, etc. Of these two modes of thought (I can find no more accurately descriptive term than this), the South has a representative of one in Judge Lamar, but none of the other.

The President is credited with a desire to make Republicanism respectable in the South. In pursuance of this policy he has so far appointed only decent and competent men to office in the South. This is certainly true of Tennessee, not excepting his brother, who stands well. He is also credited with a desire to appoint only native Southerners to important offices. This he will not find an easy task in many parts of the South, if he confines himself to Republicans. But his policy itself is unquestionably correct, and it has already caused thoughtful men in the South to put on their thinking-caps. What strange and wonderful thing is this, that the old Federal carpet-bag rings who try to make as few as possible the number of stockholders in the Federal Patronage Company (limited) should be set aside for men without leprosy or spots!

The time seems ripe for the President to make a *coup!* There is one office which has, in only one instance, been considered the reward of partisan service. The successor to that exception is now to be appointed. The South is a fallow field for Republican proselytism. The prevailing tone in the South has its representa-

tive on the Supreme Bench in Judge Lamar. Why not make the other or Republican tone respectable by giving the South a permanent pledge that it is considered respectable by Northern and Western Republicans? Why not prove to ambitious young Southerners that Southern Republicanism opens the doors even to the highest preferment? Why not strengthen the Supreme Court itself and the Republican party in the South by taking a native Southerner, one identified with the South by blood and by education, an undeviating Republican, a man of strong and pure character, a judge of broad legal grasp and of approved experience, still in the very forenoon of his powers, and shake the South to the core by elevating him to the Supreme Bench?

In suggesting the name of Judge Eli Shelby Hammond, now Judge of the Western District of Tennessee, as such a man, I do not wish to be summarily dismissed and consigned to the limbo of the eager enthusiasts who are constantly writing letters and getting up petitions, soliciting the appointment of some local magnate to some monstrously big position, because said magnate is a fish of such uncommon size in the waters of Sixville or Seventown. Few of our Supreme judges have been famous outside of a circumscribed locality before their appointment, but all of them have won the approbation of the lawyers they met at the bar and of the judges before whom they practised. This is the enduring basis; and so much of fame, even in its highest degree, has been won by Judge Hammond. He is the only Southern Republican who, in my eyes, could be seriously mentioned for a place on the Supreme Bench; and apart from any idea he may represent, he is essentially fitted for the place.

He was born in 1838, in Mississippi, of Tennessee parents. He came to Tennessee when a boy. He received a careful classical education, and studied law at the then noted Lebanon (Tenn.) Law School. In 1859 he began the practice of law at Memphis. He supported Douglas in 1860. When the war began, he entered the Confederate Army, in which his record was that of a brave soldier and an efficient officer. For the last two years of the war he was one of Forrest's adjutants; the war over, he resumed the practice of law. He opposed Johnson and his "policy," became a member of the Republican party, and voted for Grant. He held then (and probably still holds) that the true solution of the so-called Southern question lies open to the South through affiliation with the Republican party. In 1878 he was appointed by Mr. Hayes to his present position. His character, his social standing, his ability, and his Republicanism have made him practically the centre of Southern judicial figures. On the bench he has remained the scholar, and the student both of law and of letters. He is probably the best equipped member of the Federal bench for the decision of all questions of Federal jurisprudence, that dark field of Eleusinian mysteries. For this he has received the recognition, not only of those with whom he has sat upon the bench, but particularly of Chief-Justice Waite. Nearly every copy of the *Federal Reporter* contains some one of his opinions. He has also had wide experience in matters of commercial law. Memphis, the largest town in his district, has the third largest purely commercial trade in the United States, the bulk of which is in four different States. Judge Hammond first rendered the opinion which decided the State Railroad Commissions unconstitutional, on the ground that they conflicted with the jurisdiction of Congress in matters of inter-State commerce. This position was afterwards sustained by the Supreme Court. Judge Hammond handed down his opinion in the case of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad Company vs. Railroad Commission of Tennessee, reported in one of the *Federal Reporters*. I have not the reference by me.

In addition to his other qualifications, Judge Hammond is vigorous, young, being only fifty-one years old, and is not only a profound jurist, but also a man of broad views and ripe scholarship. He possesses also that calm equipoise and mental equilibrium which is the foundation-stone of the judicial temperament. From all standpoints, this is the proper, even the ideal, appointment. Perhaps the good judgment of the President may again exemplify the astonishment of the Frenchman at our good luck by putting Judge Hammond upon the Supreme Bench of the United States. Since this seems to be the day of pedigrees, I might add that Judge Eli Shelby Hammond has the best blood of Tennessee in his veins, including that of Eli Hammond, the famous old pioneer, the Harts of Transylvania fame, and Isaac Shelby, the Governor of Kentucky, and one of the heroes of King's Mountain. TENNESSEE.

MEMPHIS, TENN.

TARIFF REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It frequently happens that an inmate of a lunatic asylum imagines himself to be the only sane person, and that all the rest of the world has lost its senses. It is perfectly inconceivable to me that people cannot see that tariff reform is not a question of finance, but of politics. You never said anything truer than that "it is no easy task to make an interesting subject for popular instruction out of the Treasury decision on worsteds and woollens." In fact, it is quite impossible to make the public understand or care for tariff reform, in itself, at all. The only thing they ever can or will care for is the one man or the half-dozen men who, in their eyes, represent tariff reform.

Consider how the whole matter stands. It is entirely in the hands of a Committee of Ways and Means in the House and another in the Senate. It would be too much to say that these can carry anything they want, but they can certainly prevent anything from being carried that they don't want. Consider again—and such "damnable iteration" must be excused for its importance—what these committees are. They are, at least as regards the House, appointed by the absolute will of the Speaker, and anybody who can make a Speaker can make a committee. In the Senate they differ only in being elected directly instead of through the intermediate agency of the Speaker. Again, the members come from local districts, say five per cent. of the whole country. They care nothing for the rest of the country, and the rest of the country cares nothing for them. Their single object is to satisfy the most powerful of their own constituents, with a reserve in favor of a similar class in other districts who can give full consideration in return. Add to this that their proceedings are perfectly hidden from public scrutiny.

Awaiting these committees, as soon as they are formed, is a perfectly organized and ever present lobby. Jay Gould is reported to have once said that he did not care to trouble himself about the election of members of the Legislature as it was so much easier to buy them afterwards. The protected interests know perfectly well where to apply their efforts, though they by no means despise the use of money in elections. It is not necessary to charge direct bribery. There are hundreds of other ways in which human nature can be influenced, and it is safe to say that not one of them is unknown to the lobby. And now they have got a new weapon in the Treasury rulings. Thanks to the popular fetish of the separation of the executive and the legislature, the Treasury officials are just as irresponsible as the committees, and both are sinking deeper and deeper into the meshes of the lobby. The proceedings of Naval-Officer Burt, which you set forth a while ago, show what may be looked for in this direction. Impunity is the most perfect manure for such a noxious plant. It is not what exists, so much as what we are coming to, which is the serious matter. Under these circumstances, what is the use of explaining to the public the wrongs of the tariff? Mr. Cleveland's message was probably as powerful an appeal to the country as, under the present system, can ever be made, yet it exploded as harmlessly as a simple charge of gunpowder. The case might be compared to a fortified castle filled with armed men, against which one should bring a vast undisciplined multitude and ask them to storm it without artillery. Till some means can be devised of overcoming the power of the lobby, all agitation for tariff reform is like the crackling of thorns under a pot.

What is this means? It is daylight instead of darkness, publicity instead of secrecy, personal responsibility in place of that diffusion of power which is only a cloak for intrigue, the putting forward the national interest in place of those of localities, the giving to the public interest at least an equal chance with that of private combinations. The Secretary of the Treasury is the only financial official who represents the whole country. It should be his right and his duty to expound on the floor of Congress what the country needs. In his position his little finger would be thicker than the loins of his opponents. He need not resign if defeated, he need not even at first make any definite proposition. A general statement would suffice to rally public opinion and lead gradually to more definite action. And with the demand the man would come who could put public opinion into shape. Sharp Treasury rulings would be impracticable, because they would be pounced upon by hostile critics, and officials would soon learn the danger.

Of course, the lobby and the committees would oppose this and see at once the danger to their schemes. For this reason, it cannot be done in or through Congress; it must be by outside agitation. If only some public man, tired and disgusted with the machinery at Washington, and eager for honorable distinction, would take the stump on this issue and throw himself upon the country, I believe he and everybody would be astonished at the reception he would encounter. G. B.

BOSTON, June 8, 1889.

THE CIVIL-SERVICE LAW NOT A FAILURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, "G. B.," under date of June 1, in a letter published in the *Nation* for June 6, suggests that as "civil-service reform in this country has proved a failure," in his opinion, "notwithstanding the elaborate organization of the Civil-Service Commission," the only remedy is to have members of the Cabinet occupy seats in Congress, and be subject to questions from members.

It is well for civil-service reformers to know the advantages of having the power to compel appointing officers to answer questions regard-

ing their appointments, in public, and that power has been a great help to the reform in England—but it is also well to remember two points:

First. The elaborate organization of the Civil-Service Commission has not been a failure. The Commission's organization embraces only about one-fifth of all the Federal offices. The other four-fifths are wholly outside their rules, and all the pressure for office, all the rapid changes, and all the bad appointments occur among these four-fifths outside the pale of the Civil-Service Law. That this is so, see the Railway Mail Service. Up to May 1, when the system was at last put under the rules, the changes made for political purposes went on at a scandalously rapid rate. Since May 1, all has been tranquil, and there is no sign of pressure or politics whatever in that bureau. The testimony of officials whose offices have been included within the organization of the Civil-Service Commission is unanimous that as soon as the change was made, immediately they were relieved from pressure. A very striking illustration of the difference between that part of the service not under the rules and that which is included under them can be drawn from President Cleveland's Administration. In a little less than four years from the 4th of March, 1885, eighty per cent. of the offices *not* under civil-service rules had been changed, and during the same period the changes among those put in under civil-service examinations in the departments were only ten per cent., including deaths, resignations, and all. A close study of the facts makes it clear that the civil-service examinations have been a remarkable success, as far as they have been extended. *The only failure to accomplish the reform has been in those offices to which the civil-service rules have not been extended*—which seems to be an argument for extending those rules, not for abandoning them.

The *second* point is, that, in the English Parliament, though the power to question members of the Cabinet regarding appointments had existed for a long time, it was not till the examination system was established in its full force that the patronage system was abandoned. We have in the history of England the strongest evidence that the power to question the Cabinet is not alone sufficient to accomplish the reform of the civil service.

As in England, so with us, the examination system and the system of calling appointing officers to account publicly and easily would each aid the other. The examination system we have just begun with, and it should be extended and fortified. Just how to accomplish the other is a very grave question.—Yours, etc.

R. H. Dana.

Boston, June 10, 1889.

THE CENTURY DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your recent review of the 'Century Dictionary' ought to be supplemented by some remarks upon its definitions of terms in physical science, while there is still time to make corrections. The definitions in question are, in many cases, insufficient, inaccurate, and confused in a degree which is really remarkable. Take, for example, the description of Ptolemy's 'Almagest,' "a book or collection of problems in astronomy and geometry, . . . so named by the Arabs because it was reckoned the greatest work on these subjects." Far from being a collection of problems, I doubt if there is a single problem in geometry or astronomy in the entire work. In no sense of the word is it a book of geometry, nor could it ever have been considered as such. While thus giving an erroneous description, what the work really is —a system of astronomy based upon the doctrine that the earth remains immovable in the centre of the heavens—is entirely omitted. In a rapid glance through a portion of the published pages (A–Appet), I have noticed a number of other cases of insufficient, erroneous, or misleading definitions or statements. The definition of *albedo* is confused and misleading. That of *eccentric anomaly* is entirely wrong. *Absorption lines* are described as occurring just under the conditions when they are impossible. *Law of action and reaction* is accurate, with the exception of a sentence which is so far wrong that I suspect it to have been interpolated after the original article left the writer's hands. *Apochromatic* is insufficiently defined, and is illustrated by a quotation as unintelligible as could readily be found. *Alidade* and *achromatic lens* contain misstatements less remarkable for their seriousness than for their existence.

So many defects in a single subject and in so small a fraction of the book would seem to indicate that the details of the work are not such as we should expect from the attention and care with which the editor and publishers have devised and executed their part of the plan. It ought to be added that, so far as I have noticed, the definitions in mathematics and mathematical physics are not subject to this criticism.

S. Newcomb.

Washington, June 8.

MORE HARD CASES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "hard case" mentioned by "C. H. W." in the *Nation* of May 9 is not the only one of its kind. The failure of the Boston magazine, *Old and New*, left many of its contributors in the same wretched plight. At the time of the "failure" of *Old and New* the editor owed the writer of this letter $150, and has utterly ignored all requests for payment as well as for the return of unpublished MSS. in his possession. He has never deigned to reply to a single letter on this subject, and does not seem to trouble himself about "the contempt of all honorable men."

E.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the communication of "A Wretched Contributor," in No. 1248 of the *Nation*, I would like to state that I contributed to the *Manhattan* a negro character-sketch, which was published in the final issue of that magazine, but for which I never received one cent in payment, nor was it ever possible to obtain a word in reply to any letter I wrote.

Very respectfully,

Another Wretched Contributor.

Mobile, Ala., June 3, 1889.

"TRY *AND*" ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though my form of expression perhaps warrants Prof. R. L. Preston's objection, I think he will see that, to me at least, his example is only an apparent exception to the principle.

When I say that "with past tenses, *and* cannot take the place of *to*," I speak of tense-*forms* and not of tense-*phrases*. If "try *and* do" is thrown into past-tense *forms*, when *try* becomes *tried*, either *do* must become *did* or *and* must become *to*, with the differences of value I have set forth. *And*=*to* occurs only between root-forms.

In "Nor did Dobbin try *and* convince," "try," "convince," being infinitives, keep the root-form. It is true the complex is past, and it is perhaps adequate explanation to say that this is only an unconscious extension of a fixed formula; but, speaking more philosophically, "did try *and* convince" is a survival from a time when "did" was felt, not as a mere auxiliary, but as a distinct and separate act—a means towards an end—and "try," "convince," are thus "equally contingent" as regards "did," to which they are as truly future as they are to the leading verb in "he proceeded to try *and* convince."

Caskie Harrison.

The Brooklyn Latin School, June 7, 1889.

WAS WASHINGTON "AN EDUCATED MAN"?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the review of Justice Landon's 'Constitutional History and Government of the United States,' in last week's *Nation*, exception is taken to the author's statement that Washington was "not an educated man." The reviewer assumes that the statement is not only untrue, but ridiculously so. Justice Landon is nevertheless right and the reviewer wrong, if we accept the testimony of Jefferson, Marshall, Adams (J.), and Bancroft.

Jefferson ('Works,' vol. vi, 287) says: "His education was merely reading, writing, and common arithmetic, to which he added surveying at a later date. His time was employed in action chiefly, reading little, and that only in agriculture and English history." Chief-Justice Marshall ('Life of Washington,' page 1) says his education "was confined to acquisitions strictly useful, not even extending to foreign languages." Bancroft ('History of the U. S.,' vol. vii, p. 394) says: "He grew up without learning. Of arithmetic and geometry he acquired just knowledge enough to be able to practise measuring land, but his instruction at school taught him not so much as the orthography or rules of grammar of his own tongue." See also 'Works of John Adams,' vol. ix, p. 639.

Justice Landon's characterization of Washington, from which this one clause is selected for animadversion, is a fair example of much of his work. Permit me to give it:

"He [Washington] was a lucid writer, though not a debater, not an educated man, scarcely a general reader, not quick in perception; but in solidity of judgment, fairness of mind, dignity of character, and firmness of purpose, he was the ideal American. Take him all in all, alike what he was and was not, what he did and forebore to do, he is the greatest man in all our history."

The condensation is remarkable. Short as the whole is, I venture to think that careful criticism will discover it to be a very complete and just estimate of Washington.

Maurice Perkins.

Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., June 3, 1889.

Notes.

We are glad to learn from the *Academy* that the Cambridge University Press has now nearly ready for publication 'The Collected Papers of Henry Bradshaw,' the late University librarian, and a wonderful scholar. The book will be eagerly looked for, not only by those who knew the author of it, but by hundreds who only came to know about him after his lamented death.

The 'Reliques Scientifiques' of the late Prof. Arsène Darmesteter, of the Sorbonne, will be collected and arranged by his brother, Prof.

James Darmesteter of the Collège de France, and published by subscription in a limited edition by M. Charles Delagrave of Paris. These relics of a literary life too soon cut short will be arranged under three heads, namely, Jewish Studies, Franco-Jewish Studies, and French Studies. They are sure to contain very much which will be of the greatest interest to all students of the Hebrew language and literature, as well as of the French, and also to students of history and of language in general.

Other works of M. Arsène Darmesteter were left nearly ready for the press. Among them we note especially the French Dictionary upon which he spent many years of work, in collaboration with M. Adolph Hatzfeld. This will be published soon, we may hope. The 'Reliques' will make two volumes of about 700 pages in all, and will be accompanied by a portrait and a memoir.

Harper & Bros. will shortly issue 'Between the Lines, a Story of the War,' by Capt. Charles King, U. S. A.; and 'Uncle Peter's Trust,' a story for young people, by George B. Perry.

D. C. Heath & Co. will publish in September 'A German Reader for Beginners in School or College,' by Edward S. Joynes, editor of the 'Joynes-Meissner German Grammar.'

A third volume of the 'Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne,' edited by C. E. Doble, has just been issued from the Clarendon Press on behalf of the Oxford Historical Society—the diary having the greatest interest for graduates of that university, though its general literary curiosity and importance are far from inconsiderable. The present instalment is embraced by the two dates May 25, 1710, and December 14, 1712. Like its predecessors, it is separately indexed. There are three references to the late Samuel Pepys, all in his bookish capacity, as, for example, the entry of April 9, 1712: "He [Mr. Urry] hath got a Chaucer MS. from Mr. Pepys in which are some Fragments not printed. He hath another MSSt. (which was borrow'd for him)," etc. There is a single mention of Milton: "Mich. Bolde translated Milton's Paradise Lost into Latin. 'Tis printed. I saw it at Mr. Urry's of Christ-Church, who hath also the first Specimen of it written by Bolde's own Hand.—Dr. Sloane," the entry (for June 9, 1712) continues, "hath an imperfect Copy of William Caxton's Ed. of Chaucer's Canterbury Tales. . . . Caxton's Name does not appear. But, I think, there is no doubt of his being the Printer, the Letter agreeing with the other Pieces I have seen printed by Caxton." The references to Chaucer are numerous, but there is none to Shakspere. There is hardly a page of this volume that does not afford entertaining reading.

Prof. F. G. Selby's edition of Bacon's Essays, published by Macmillan & Co., has been annotated for the use of Indian students, the author being one of the Faculty of Deccan College, Poona. It follows the last one that appeared in Bacon's lifetime (1625), and has the spelling modernized. The notes, for whose fulness apology is offered, should help make this attractive little volume a valuable adjunct in schools of different grades, for the teaching of rhetoric as well as for the forming of ideals.

From Mr. J. O. Austin, Providence, R. I., we receive a broadside of additions and corrections to that admirable work of his, the 'Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island.' It is of a proper size to be inserted in the volume. We hope to speak shortly of his no less admirable sequel to the Dictionary, viz., 'Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode-Islanders.' As examples, in both conception and execution, these publications outrank any of recent years.

We lately made mention of the forthcoming German Dictionary on the pattern of Webster announced by S. Hirzel, Leipzig (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). The first half-volume is now before us (*A-Ehe*), bearing the name of Moriz Heyne as editor. It fills 656 columns, of which there are two to a page (large octavo). The typography is well devised and clear, and the examples of literary usage cited are printed in the Roman character, thus affording a very agreeable rest to the eye in the search for definitions in the ordinary character. These quotations are a marked feature of the new 'Deutsches Wörterbuch,' and their source is precisely indicated. The etymologies, contrary to the American and English practice, do not precede but follow the main definition, and the eye misses the parentheses by which, with us, they are cut off from the rest of the article. Space is economized by omitting compounds *ad libitum*—as, for example, under *Anklage*, we find only *Anklagestand*, against this word and four others given in Thieme-Preusser; and also by making sub-titles of leading words—as (to take the same instance), the paragraph beginning with *Anklage* contains *anklagen*, *Angeklagte*, *Ankläger*, *Anklagestand*, *anklammern*, *Anklang*. That is to say, all the forms *Ankla-* are grouped together; but in the next paragraph the *Ankle-*, *Ankli-*, *Anklo-*, and *Ankn-* are united, so that the practice seems somewhat arbitrary. The total number of words must be very much reduced, but in a manner which will not be objectionable to the Germans, for whom the Dictionary is intended, though foreigners will profit by it as well.

The 'Panorama of the Hudson,' published by the Bryant Literary Union of New York, is a remarkable attempt to show a continuous view of both shores of the river from New York to Albany, with the aid of photography and a mechanical process of engraving. The result is so great a success as to sound the knell of the ordinary panorama sold on the Hudson River boats. One plate is made to answer for both sides of the river, by giving the upper half to the west, and the lower (reversed like a reflection in the water) to the east, so that the album is by no means bulky. A white-letter inscription denotes the several places and points of interest on the way. The historical value of this Panorama will grow with time and the increase of settlements along the river.

Another historical souvenir is the May issue of *Sun and Shade* (Photogravure Co.), which records the scenes and incidents, by land and river, of the late Centennial celebration, with a particularly large group of portraits of the Governors of States, managers, etc., associated with the occasion, and a full selection from the trades tableaux. Mr. A. Wittemann also sends us an enlarged edition of his 'Instantaneous Scenes in the Centennial,' of which we have already spoken.

J. W. Bouton sends us three records of the current Paris Salon—one the regular octavo memorandum 'Catalogue Illustré,' with its cheap process cuts; a second the 'Salon de 1879,' first of twelve parts in quarto shape, with fine photogravures, and a text which opens with some curious details about the Salon of 1789, famous for David's exhibition of his "Brutus"; and the third, Albert Wolff's 'Figaro-Salon,' folio, in which the plates are photolithographic (typogravure), and the parts issued in May and June are to be five. One may take his choice from this series, and easily get an idea of the physiognomy of the exhibition.

Mr. Archibald Grove is to edit for Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co. the *New Review*, beginning on June 1. Lord Randolph Churchill, Senator Naquet ("boulangiste"), and Henry James are among the writers for the first number, which is full of burning questions.

The second and last part of the Scientific Results of Dr. Wilhelm Junker's Travels in Equatorial Africa in 1880-85, containing the barometrical and meteorological observations, is published as a supplement to *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. It closes with an interesting account, by Dr. Bruno Hassenstein, of the methods of construction of his accompanying map, the two northern sections of which are given in this number. This veteran cartographer says that since the time of Barth no traveller has sent to the Perthes establishment geographical material so carefully prepared and so complete as Dr. Junker's. When on the march, he wears a coat of his own designing, with numerous pockets for his note-books, his watch and compass. From a button hang pencils of different colors—red for his route line, blue for the streams, and black for noting the time, direction of his course, and incidents. Throughout a journey of nearly four thousand miles he travelled entirely on foot, thus making his notes both more exact and more legible. On starting in the morning he would enter in a book, ruled especially for the purpose, the exact time of departure; and thereafter, at the end of every five minutes of actual marching, the direction by the compass in which he was going. He would also indicate by various signs the breadth and depth of streams and the direction of their currents, the character of the country, the apparent distance and height of any prominent object, the names of places, tribes, etc., as well as the readings of the aneroid and thermometer. At night these notes were carefully copied with pen and ink into a larger book; one page generally, sometimes two, being devoted to a day's march. So numerous were these various details that Dr. Hassenstein found it impossible to reproduce them all upon his map, although on a scale of 1:750,000.

The April and May numbers of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* contain little of general interest. The regulations for the reading-room of the Halle University library, given in the April number, read strangely to American librarians. In the May number W. Schultze begins what promises to be an interesting series of articles on the important part taken by the early Irish and Scottish monks in the preservation and propagation of mediæval science.

In the *Library* for May, F. Madan describes some curiosities of the Oxford Press, while the practical paper of the number is by Mr. Wright, the Plymouth librarian, telling how the board schools of that town were made to act as branches of the public library.

The Boston Public Library now puts forth its completed 'Index of Articles upon American Local History' in its historical collections, by A. P. C. Griffin. This very valuable work has been in progress for six years, and, as its title speaks for itself, we need only give one example, omitting the references:—Jamaica, L. I.: Annals, armed occupation, British occupations of the Presbyterian church, church matters, copies of town orders and resolutions from 1656 to 1660, history, inscriptions in the parish churchyard, letter from the Governor to the inhabitants; marriages, christenings, and burials; petition for land on Long Island, the Presbyterian church, proceedings against Quakers, rate list.

Garden and Forest for June 5 opens with a searching paper on the present condition of Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, as an illustration of the need of study of the ground by a competent landscape gardener before parks are laid out, and of the disaster that comes

from letting politics enter into the management afterwards.

The twenty-first annual meeting of the American Philological Association will be held at Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., beginning Tuesday afternoon, July 9, 1889. The address of the President of the Association, Professor Thomas D. Seymour of Yale University, will be delivered on Tuesday evening. Members intending to be present are requested to send their names to Professor W. B. Owen (Easton, Pa.), Chairman of the Local Committee, as soon as possible. Those who propose to read papers are requested to notify the Secretary of the Association, Professor John H. Wright, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., not later than Wednesday, June 26.

The establishment at Harvard of three new fellowships of an annual value of $450 each supplies much-needed sinews to the graduate department of that University. Including the Robert Treat Paine Fellowship of Social Science founded last year, there are now twenty fellowships and twenty-eight scholarships at the disposal of the department. The total annual value of these foundations is $16,500. If it were $50,000, it could be judiciously disposed of among candidates of a high order. Appointments to two of the new fellowships—the Henry Lee Memorial of Political Science and the Ozias Goodwin Memorial of Constitutional and International Law—are still to be made for the coming year.

—We have the first official announcement of Clark University, Worcester, Mass. It tells us of the founder, Mr. Jonas G. Clark, and his desire "that the highest possible academic standards be here for ever maintained"; that special opportunities be offered for research, and that the instructors be left time for it. The Board of Trustees embraces many well-known names, and graduates from several New England colleges, whose work the new-comer is designed to supplement rather than duplicate. Dr. G. Stanley Hall has been chosen President. The University will open on October 2 with courses in Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Psychology, Dr. Hall himself taking the last-named professorship. His colleagues are as follows: Henry H. Donaldson (Yale, 1879), Assistant Professor of Neurology; Edmund Clark Sanford (California, 1883), Instructor in Psychology; Warren P. Lombard (Harvard, 1878), Assistant Professor of Physiology; F. Mall (Michigan, 1883), Adjunct Professor of Anatomy; Albert A. Michelson (U. S. Naval Academy, 1873), Acting Professor of Physics. Students are classed as "independent," candidates for the degree of Ph.D., special students not candidates for a degree, medical students, and preliminary students or undergraduates, which last must have spent at least two years in a college of good standing. Scholarships and fellowships have been provided by Mr. and Mrs. Clark, but more are desired. A central building and a chemical laboratory are already completed. Tuition fees will be $200 per annum.

—The late meeting of the American Library Association was and was not a success. The Association was entertained by citizens of St. Louis with the most lavish hospitality. Every moment outside of the sessions was occupied in sight-seeing or receptions. The post-conference trip, too, was thoroughly enjoyed—the restful glide down the Mississippi, the prowls through the quaint streets of New Orleans, the home run through the picturesque mountainous region of Kentucky and Tennessee, and the stay at those booming cities of the new South, Nashville and Chattanooga, with a short emulation of St. Louis hospitality at Cincinnati. So much for the pleasure; but the work of the Society was not so well done, for which the heat and still more the choice of the place of meeting were the cause. Half of the audience could hear with difficulty when the windows were closed, and could not hear at all when they were opened; and if they were kept closed, the heat made every one drowsy. In such conditions few felt in the mood for discussion. There were, as usual, too many reports and papers, but as there was no fixed programme, no discussion was cut off because the time for the next paper had arrived; the sparsity of talk was due simply to the hebetude of ideas. A more serious evil than the number of papers was their length. To prevent both evils in future, the suggestions have been made that hereafter an entire session be set apart for discussion alone, and that a twenty minutes' limit for papers be adopted and rigidly adhered to, speakers to be stopped in the middle of a sentence, if necessary. If to this be added the selection of a hall in which speakers can be heard, the Association might again have such a satisfactory meeting as it had at the Catskills. This will be assisted by the growing tendency to break up into sections. The State Librarians' Section was added this year to the Publishing Section. Next year a section for educational (*i. e.*, college and school) libraries will be instituted; after that, perhaps either the small town libraries will gain a chance to talk over their own wants and plans by themselves, unawed by the presence of librarians of a more extended experience, or the great libraries will retire to discuss their somewhat technical papers, leaving the more numerous little libraries to be the Association. One expects the great British Association to work in sections, but it is strange and it is interesting to an evolutionary student that even so small a society as this, whose membership has never exceeded two hundred, should be driven to differentiation.

—The first day was devoted to library architecture. The President, referring to his declaration at the Catskills that the architect is the natural enemy of the librarian, emphasized the distinction between use and beauty, and called upon architects to plan first for service and then to beautify, as the only way in which satisfactory work can be done. It might do, he said, for Bartholdi to design the shell of his statue, and then contrive a frame to hold the plates in place; but, as a living woman has other functions than to be beautiful, and her skeleton could not be designed simply to support her skin, so a library's plan should be made to further its vital functions, and not merely to impress or please the public with a fine elevation. He partly excused the general insufficiency of libraries to fulfil their purposes by the difficulty of reconciling use and beauty, but asserted that architects might have done better if they had given more thought to the problem. This called out from Mr. N. S. Patton, Secretary of the Western Association of Architects, an earnest declaration, not merely that the two, use and beauty, can always be reconciled, but that use is indispensable to beauty, and that it is the duty of the architect always to seek it first. The most noteworthy paper was indisputably that of Miss Mary S. Cutler, on the Sunday opening of libraries, a subject never before treated of in the Association. It was accompanied by valuable statistical tables, which report, among others, one town library that is open on Sundays only, that being the only day on which the outlying farmers all come to the centre of the town. In this case the church and the library work in conjunction more apparently than usual. The subject was treated dispassionately; the arguments for and against were given carefully and with impartiality; the conclusion reached was decidedly in favor of the opening in cities. The sentiment of the meeting was overwhelmingly in favor of Sunday opening. This might be connected with the religious opinions of the members (a census of the post-conference excursion showed 13 Unitarians in a party of 26), but the essayist and all but one of her defenders were not Unitarians. The same census, by the way, showed 10 Republicans, 10 Independents, 5 Democrats, and a woman-suffragist, and that 19 of the 26 came from New England, while 4 of the other 7 were born there.

—Another novel subject was treated in Mr. Bardwell's report on scrap-book making, a new occupation which eager librarians have found for their leisure moments. Mr. Bardwell's own library, the Brooklyn, has, we have heard, made great progress and found great use in such a collection; but we doubt whether many libraries can follow in that path unless their budgets are much increased. Among the other papers may be mentioned Mr. Green's exhaustive paper on the industrial work of libraries; Mr. Foster's careful statement of the uses of a subject-catalogue; Mr. Carr's report on charging systems—of great practical value; Mr. Bliss's clear report on classification; Mr. Bowker's on indexing portraits; and a lively talk by Mr. W. J. Gilbert of St. Louis, on the practical possibilities of indexing. There were no startling theories broached this year. But in the discussion of cataloguing rules, the address of President Cutter, and the paper of Mr. Linderfelt on Dziatzko's rules, were both in favor of modes of entry favoring popular ignorance in opposition to the more scholastic and theoretically consistent practice of the British Museum, which has hitherto been generally adopted by the American libraries—in favor, that is, of entry under much-used pseudonyms in place of the real name, under the titles of British noblemen by which they are known, instead of under the family name by which they are not known, and under the best-known instead of under the last name of a married or divorced or remarried woman. The next meeting will be in the White Mountains or on Lake George, under the Presidency of Mr. F. M. Crunden of St. Louis.

—A most curious and interesting relic of Dutch Christianity in Formosa has come to light from the library of the University of Leyden and the press of Messrs. Trübner & Co. of London. It is the Gospel of St. Matthew, translated into Formosan (Sinkang dialect) by the Dutch domine, Daniel Gravius, who labored as missionary in the island from 1647 to 1651. During the flourishing days of the Dutch republic, an extensive missionary work was carried on by ministers and schoolmasters from the Netherlands, during a period of thirty-seven years, with cheering success. Unfortunately, however, the good work was suddenly arrested by the murderous onslaught of the famous Chinese pirate Coxinga. Born of a Chinese father living at Nagasaki, and a Japanese mother, this pirate made himself the scourge of the Eastern seas. After devastating the coast of China during the decline of the Ming dynasty, and having been twice refused by the Japanese Government men, ships, and orders to invade China, he cast his eye on the feeble Dutch colony on Formosa. He slaughtered most of the Hollanders (though from Japanese sources we know that some of the Dutch men, women, and children were living

as prisoners as late as 1711), and the mission thus came to an end. The Rev. William Campbell, an English missionary now of the flourishing Presbyterian mission among the Chinese at Taiwan Fu, suspecting that the version made by Gravius of the New Testament might be in existence, went to Holland, and, after a long search, aided by the learned men, discovered the Gospel of St. Matthew in parallel columns of Dutch and Formosan, with the bilingual preface of the translator. Messrs. Trübner have reprinted this interesting work in a handsome square volume, which may serve as a basis of a new translation for use among the aborigines who dwell apart from the Chinese, still unconquered, in this latest organized province of the Chinese Empire. With the English version at the bottom and the Dutch at the side, one need not be a Psalmanazar in order to get some idea of the structure of Formosan, which apparently belongs in the group of "agglutinative" languages in use from Borneo to Kamtchatka.

ROMANES'S MENTAL EVOLUTION IN MAN.

Mental Evolution in Man: Origin of Human Faculty. By George John Romanes, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

Dr. Romanes's writings are beginning to excite a very special interest among readers of psychological literature.* The volume before us is the third in perhaps the greatest continuous and systematic psychological labor ever proposed. The preceding volumes were entitled 'Animal Intelligence' and 'Mental Evolution in Animals.' The remainder of the series are to treat of 'Mental Evolution in Man.' The present book deals with the "Origin of Human Faculty" by the method of comparative psychology. Future instalments will take up the natural history of Intellect, Emotions, Volition, Morals, and Religion. The author proposes for himself the task of filling up the gap between the human and animal mind, and to trace the stages of mental development from the lowest life up to the highest. He is eminently a scientific and constructive psychologist.

The fundamental position is thus stated:

"In the present treatise I take as granted the general theory of evolution, so far as it is now accepted by the vast majority of naturalists. That is to say, I assume the doctrine of descent as regards the whole of organic nature, morphological and psychological, with the one exception of man. Moreover, I assume this doctrine, even in the case of man, so far as his bodily organization is concerned; it being thus only with reference to the human mind that the exception to which I have alluded is made. And I make this exception in deference to the opinion of that small minority of evolutionists who still maintain that, notwithstanding their acceptance of the theory of descent as regards the corporeal constitution of man, they are able to adduce cogent evidence to prove that the theory fails to account for his mental constitution" (p. 390).

He proceeds under the assumption of the general validity of the argument made in his previous work, 'Mental Evolution in Animals,' and carries into human psychology the principles he applied in explaining the animal:

"I desire to show that in the one province, as in the other, the light which has been shed by the doctrine of evolution is of a magnitude which we are now only beginning to appreciate; and that by adopting the theory of continued development from the one order of mind to the other, we are able scientifically to explain the whole mental constitution of man, even in those parts of it which, to former generations, have appeared inexplicable" (p. 1).

Man's living nature is identical in kind with the nature of all other life, and "the human mind itself is but the topmost inflorescence of one mighty growth whose roots and stem and many branches are sunk in the abyss of planetary time." This is the new point of view contributed to philosophy by the young science of biology.

The thesis propounded is established as follows: It is improbable on *à priori* grounds that the process which has been "elsewhere so uniform and ubiquitous should have been interrupted at its terminal phase." Again, the human mind, within its own career of development, "begins at a zero level of mental life and may culminate in genius," but never experiences any sudden leaps of progress. Then, too, in its own lower phases, the human mind passes through the very stages which the lower forms of consciousness pass through—a phenomenon which is not a chance coincidence. Lastly, "in the history of the race—as recorded in documents, traditions, antiquarian remains, and flint implements—the intelligence of the race has been subject to a steady progress of gradual development." Evolution, therefore, acted from the beginning up through the anthropoid apes, and, if it there broke off, it began again with the primitive man and has been uninterrupted since. To admit any such break in the principle of nature is to violate the law of *continuity*, the grandest which science has developed.

To appeal to special characteristics—Romanes holds that if the Emotions of the animals be compared with those of man, they will be found in great measure coincident. He believes that in his 'Mental Evolution of Animals' he has given "unquestionable evidence" that they possess all the human emotions, except those of the moral sense, religion, and the sublime. This parallelism (especially as applied to the childhood of man) strongly implies genetic continuity. Again, the Instincts having reference to nutrition, self-preservation, reproduction, and the rearing of progeny, are the same and act the same in man as in the creatures below him. In Volition, the human surpasses the brute in complexity, refinement, and foresight, but not in kind. And so finally in Intellect, though there is enormous difference, it is not one of kind, but simply one of degree. Up to a certain point, the correspondence is complete. In a tabular frontispiece to the book, Dr. Romanes has exhibited the parallelism of psycho-genesis in man and animals, indicating in a suggestive way the points in the scale in which new tendencies and faculties first appear.

The only distinction which he thinks can be properly drawn between human and brute psychology is that man has the power of abstraction, the ability of making "general ideas." On this he quotes Locke with essential agreement. By "general idea" he means, with other psychologists, the idea which comprises the resemblances between, for example, the various individual men, without regard to their individual differences. The idea of any special man is a percept; that of the class Men, a concept. He borrows a simple illustration from Galton: the difference is like that between the photograph of a particular person and the composite photograph of a large number. As the latter exhibits the characteristics common to all, so "the sensitive tablet of memory" fuses into a single conception the many single images obtained by many sense-perceptions. Again, as, in the case of the composite photograph, only those objects which present numerous points of resemblance can be blended into a distinct picture, so, in the case of thought, only those images which are distinctly similar will blend in single conception or class-representation.

Our author believes a more careful classification of the kinds of ideas to be necessary. Without this, neither the difference between the animal and human mind nor the development of the latter will be understood. The word "idea" is "a generic term to signify indifferently any product of imagination, from the mere memory of a sensuous impression up to the result of the most abstruse generalization." He points out three distinct types: Memories of Sensuous Perceptions, Recepts or Generic Ideas, and Concepts or General Ideas. These include, in natural order of development, all the various sorts which writers have pointed out. The term "Recept" is one that Romanes invents to designate a class of ideas which he believes not to have been clearly distinguished. In his chapter on the "Logic of Recepts" the difference between recepts and concepts is more clearly shown. The one is received, the other conceived. The one is a passive generalization, the other an active, intended one. The one is made with little or no consciousness of the mental phenomenon, the other only when the effort is definite in consciousness. In one the idea carries with it, or consists of, an image; in the other there is never an image. He quotes passages from Taine, Sully, Perez, Mill, Mansel, Noiré, and Huxley to show that this is a distinction recognized, though its significance is not understood.

Now, it is this higher kind of ideation, the formation of concepts, which in Dr. Romanes's opinion makes the essential distinction between the human and the brute mind. The important question is, whether between Recept and Concept there is a difference in kind or only a difference in degree. On the settlement of this depends the settlement of the origin of man's mental powers. If there is a difference in kind, then some other origin than an animal ancestry must be sought for the human mind. If the difference is shown to be only one of degree, then in man's mental relations he is no less kin to the lower kingdoms than in his physical.

The formation of ideas among animals is carefully examined and illustrated in a comparison with those of the simplest human ideation exhibited by the child and the savage. Romanes cites the case of the chimpanzee in the Zoölogical Gardens whom the keeper and he himself have educated to designate correctly groups of objects up to five. Then there is the notion of causation indicated by so many creatures, as, *e. g.*, cats learning to ring and knock for admission, and the numerous imitative acts of monkeys. (See his 'Animal Intelligence,' which is a storehouse full of such instances.) Such acts show that not only all men, but most animals likewise, have a "generic idea of causality, in the sense of expecting uniform experience under uniform conditions." All this, however, is within the limits of what Romanes has designated as the sphere of Recepts. He would not insist that the division, though clear, is sharply defined; for not only are remembered Percepts observed to blend gradually into rudimentary Recepts, but the highest and most complex Recepts in turn become the simplest Concepts.

* His home is now in London, though he was born at Kingston, in Canada (1848). His education has been extensive. The earlier stages were conducted by tutors and in private schools in London, France, Germany, and Italy. The collegiate part was furnished by Cambridge University, from one of whose colleges he graduated in 1870, taking honors in Natural Science. While still in college he became an intimate friend of Charles Darwin. From the first he has been an ardent evolutionist, and has written much on subjects in natural history and biology. The work entitled 'A Candid Examination of Theism, by Physicus' is likewise attributed to him. Within a few years his energies have been largely directed to questions connected with psychology.

In the sphere of Concepts the images of Percepts and Recepts are left behind. This dry and difficult subject is treated with unusual freshness. It is clear that it has been thought out and its difficulties perceived. A Concept has no remembered thing as its basis. Such ideas as color, labor, etc., are abstractions, only possible through language. A word in such cases is taken as a mental equivalent of such ideas as previously rested on images, actual or remembered. Generic ideation has "stored the mind with a rich accumulation of orderly ideas, grouped together in many systems of logical coherency" before language appears. Language takes up this work of grouping. It names the Generic Ideas (or Recepts) and thus builds the "Lower Concepts." These are general as contrasted with generic. On this basis the "Higher Concepts" are developed. Each higher, all the way, is born out of the lower. From the start the essence of the idea has been to classify; but in the Receptual order it is automatic, in the Conceptual order it is introspective.

The syntax of Gesture language is discussed on the basis of the authority of Tylor and Dr. Scott. Nothing specially new is added, but the significance of the whole in a scheme of the development of human faculties is pointed out, viz., that in it the stage of Recepts is reached, but ideas of any high abstraction are never expressed. Animals have the germs of language in tones, gestures, etc. They make these not only from natural impulse, but also through conventional arrangement. (Numerous cases are cited and references made to 'Animal Intelligence.') Again, animals possess to some extent the powers of articulation, the next higher stage in the development of expression. Some of them—in common with infants, savages, and idiots—articulate by way of meaningless imitation. The next stage, spontaneous or instinctive exercise of articulate powers in meaningless sounds, occurs in young children, in uneducated deaf-mutes, and in idiots, but is too high a stage for animals.

The understanding of tones of the human voice extends at least through the entire vertebrata, but that of words and phrases only to the highest species. The best examples are those of dogs and apes. The very remarkable understanding of the chimpanzee in the Zoölogical Gardens of London is again cited (p. 126). This higher excellence of receptual capacity through the hearing of articulate words is a fact of the largest significance. It proves a parallelism in the sharing of certain faculties of mind. This faculty of word-comprehension is on the very border of that of intelligent word-using. The difference, then, between man and these animals in respect to these parallel psychological faculties relates only to their mode of expression. It is an anatomical and not a psychological one, depending solely on a difference in structure of the vocal organs.

The parallelism is made more complete in the case of animals which learn to articulate and to understand what they say. Curious cases are quoted of parrots and starlings calling persons and animals by name, asking for favors, scolding, saying greetings and farewells, etc., with unerring precision. Though these all have their basis in the principle of association, and are very automatic, yet they are of the same sort as the human as far as they go. It is exactly in this manner, by these impulses, and along these lines of association, that children do their first talking.

A point of interest in this comparison is, that while this child and animal talk is so largely imitative and onomatopoetic, there is yet observed "a fertile tendency to the invention of words wholly arbitrary." In some children this has gone so far as the invention of a whole language for themselves. Cases, well corroborated, are cited from Horatio Hale and Dr. Hun. A pair of twins in a Boston suburb developed a language of their own. They refused to utter a syllable of English—not even "papa" or "mamma." They "passed the days, playing and talking together in their own speech, with all the liveliness and volubility of common children." After making many comparisons (drawn from deaf-mutes) between thought as expressed in gesture and as expressed in words, our author comes to the conclusion that, "in the absence of articulation, the human race would not have made much psychological advance upon the anthropoid apes" (p. 151).

The work contains a most interesting chapter on the development of Self-Consciousness. "Self-consciousness consists in paying the same kind of attention to internal or psychical processes as is habitually paid to external or physical processes—a bringing to bear upon subjective phenomena the same powers of perception as are brought to bear upon the objective" (p. 195). Now, it is claimed that animals know something of mental operations, but this comes from their observation of it in other animals; "they recognize a world of ejects as well as objects: mental existence is known to them ejectively, though, as may be allowed, never thought upon subjectively." This "ejective origin of subjective knowledge" is a point of noteworthy importance: it is a sort of "outward self-consciousness," common also to man, which does not penetrate to the contemplation of subjective mental processes. In the young child, this consciousness includes its own body as among the world of objects. Prof. Preyer relates, "that his boy, when more than a year old, bit his own arm just as though it had been a foreign object." Of course this is a stage much below that of Buffon's parrot or many of the adult animals, who distinguish their own organism from other objects and associate this with their own mental states. Even after the child begins to talk, he speaks of himself "by his proper name, or in the third person." The child's rudimentary designation of itself as subject is first shown in the third year. This stage of consciousness corresponds to the preconceptual stage of judgments. But before this it has shown the capacity to make simple receptual judgments on objects about it. This it states in words, just as the animal does in gestures or vocal signs. From this on it outstrips the animal because of its more efficient system of sign-making, its being surrounded socially by the medium of speech, and its strongly inherited propensity to communicate perceptions and desires by signs. Add to these "the expressions of affection, sympathy, praise, blame, etc., on the part of others, and the feelings of emulation, pride, triumph, disappointment, etc., on the part of the self," and we have the principal influences tending to impress upon the growing child the sense of personality. Like the development of the embryo before birth, the process is gradual, is a growth. Finally, it undergoes a leap of progress analogous to that of the birth of the body. "Midway between the gradual evolution of receptual ideation and the no less gradual evolution of conceptual, there appears to be a critical moment when the soul first becomes detached from the nutrient body of its parent perceptions, and wakes up in the new world of a consciously individual existence."

In the latter half of the book much space is devoted to the evidence which language has to contribute to the theory of the gradual development of mental faculty. Here, in the etymology of words and in the buried relationships of languages, is an "unintentional record of the prehistoric progress of ideation." Comparative philology has conclusively shown that language did not appear ready-made, but is the result of gradual evolution. After discussing the types, explaining the methods and principles of classification, exhibiting the process of evolution, etc., the conclusion is reached that languages become simpler in structure, poorer in ideas, more physical in conceptions, *i. e.*, they exhibit a more and more receptual ideation the further they are traced back in their history, until finally their "roots" only are left by the analysis. Here the genealogy becomes further impossible. Help must be looked for from other quarters. Growth during the period in which they can be traced is presumption that growth preceded the point at which investigation is impeded, until finally a time is reached when there was no language.

The conclusion is, that psychically, "the whole distinction between man and brute resides in the presence or absence of self-consciousness." Dr. Romanes has all the way been concerned with "the question whether we have here to do with a distinction of kind or of degree—of origin or of development" (p. 430). He believes himself to have abundantly proved the latter. "If we already accept the theory of evolution as applicable throughout the length and breadth of the realm organic, it appears to me that we have positively *better* reasons for accepting it as applicable to the length and breadth of the realm mental" (p. 437).

It must be remarked that Romanes seems to us to lay too much stress on the difference between the self-consciousness of man and that of the animals. Some animals have the power of forming and communicating ideas; *i. e.*, they use "intentional signs." It may be much of a question how they can intentionally convey their ideas if they are not aware of them to some extent as the ideas which they have. Some degree of real self-consciousness is difficult to withhold from them.

The author would have served his readers better, had he given more attention to an analysis of the book. The titles of the seventeen chapters are brief and blind; the reader has no knowledge of what is coming. This is the more important because the book is too long (452 pages) for its matter. The style is redundant and prolix. Any who will read and appreciate it, would understand it just as well and appreciate it much better, had the writer practised the grace of brevity. In an age of so many claims, men who would be gladly read should learn to write short. It would appear as though this tendency had its roots in a certain polemic attitude which runs through the work. Dr. Romanes assumes himself to be writing against some one. No doubt he is; but the interest of truth (which is the highest aim) would be better served were there less of this belligerent animus. The coolest and most discriminative judgment is not a natural outgrowth of such polemic emotion. Besides, this occasions a certain unpleasant conspicuousness of personality relating to what he "will proceed" to do, whether his "opponents will find it easy to meet" him, and what he "fearlessly invites them to do," etc. Though we heartily dissent from this fighting posture in which the argument is all the way conducted, yet it must be admitted that he has given his "opponents" a great task. It is not probable that the case as presented by Dr. Romanes will be accepted as established, but to him is due the credit of

making the best explanation thus far from the side of natural development.

The age-long riddle regarding "general ideas," which has so puzzled Vedanists, Platonists, Scholastics, and German Idealists, receives here the most masterly and lucid explanation yet given. Some new terms have been invented to express most careful distinctions. Though at first, perhaps, a little confusing, they are indispensable, and will probably retain a place in psychological terminology. No student of psychology can afford to dispense with this rich, learned, elaborate, and latest contribution to his subject. And not only will those interested in problems of psychology find here substantial help, but students of biology, philology, and anthropology will be repaid for the time they spend with this book. Dr. Romanes is doing an indispensable work. The succeeding parts of his undertaking will be awaited with unusual interest.

BONVALOT'S HEART OF ASIA.

Through the Heart of Asia: Over the Pamîr to India. By Gabriel Bonvalot. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 2 vols., pp. 281, 249.

In the autumn of 1880, M. Gabriel Bonvalot and his friend Capus, moved partly by a desire to collect specimens of natural history, and much more, we imagine, by a love of adventure, undertook a journey in Central Asia, which lasted until February, 1882. Going through Siberia as far as Omsk, and thence to Vierny, they went straight on to Tashkent. They made a tour in Khokand, visited Samarcand and the upper valley of the Zaraf Shan, and from Karshi made a trip to Kilif and Shirabad on the Oxus. The return journey went through Bokhara, Khiva, and across the Ust-Urt to Krasnovodsk on the Caspian. The account of this journey, which was published in two volumes in 1884–'5 under the title of 'En Asie Centrale,' is light, pleasant reading, but very superficial—chiefly the story of the travellers' adventures, the most possible being made out of very trivial incidents. One catches glimpses of native life and civilization, and one gleans some facts relating to the course of trade with India, Russia, and other countries. But we look in vain for what we expected to find—interesting details about the natural history of the country. Nothing whatever, or almost nothing, is said about the effects of Russian rule, or about politics.

The same faults might be found with the volumes before us, except with the preface, to which we will recur. The journey here described is more interesting than the preceding one, because it takes the reader over new ground, and because the adventures are worth telling. Bonvalot and Capus, accompanied by an artist friend, Albert Pépin, who has contributed 250 illustrations to the book, left Marseilles in February, 1886 (curiously enough, the author, although very particular about months and days, does not mention the year), and speedily arrived, by way of Constantinople, at Tiflis. From one of the stations on the railway to Baku they rode to Teheran, suffering many detentions from bad weather, swollen rivers, and inundated roads. Thence they went to Meshed, and then, by Sarakhs, to Merv, where they saw the building of the Russian town and the entry of the first railway train. Here they stayed for a month, hoping to penetrate into Afghanistan by the Kushk valley, until they found that a Russian scientific expedition had been turned back; then, planning to go by Andkhoi—a scheme which also fell through—and finally visiting General Komaroff at Askabad. As the railway was finished no further, it was necessary to cross that desert, once so deadly, on camels and horses to Tchardjui, where they struck their old road to Bokhara and Samarcand. After resting and refitting, the travellers went to the Oxus by the way of Karatag, Hissar, and Kabadian, and crossed the river with the intention of going to Balkh, and then making their way to India as best they could. They were, however, detained in honorable captivity by the Afghans at Shur-Tepé until instructions could be had from Cabul, and were then sent back across the Oxus, after being told that if they crossed it again without proper permission, it would be at the risk of their lives. To their surprise, the Afghan Mirza who had charge of them spoke excellent and fluent Russian.

It was already December when they got back to Samarcand, and, as usual in such cases, the checks which they had met with only heightened their ardor for going on. General Korolkóff suggested to them to try and reach India by Kashgar, or even by the Pamir, which no one had ever attempted to explore in winter. They had already thought of this, and therefore made all their preparations and went to Ush, at the extreme east of the province of Khokand, still undecided which route to take. After all the information to be obtained on the spot, they decided to try the Taldyk pass, the plateau of the Alai, and the Pamir. The season was late, and more snow than usual had fallen; but, in spite of dangers from famine, cold, deep snow, and avalanches, and of plots laid for them by Kara-Kirghiz, Chinese, and Afghans, they reached Sarhad on May 7, just two months after leaving Ush. Here they were again detained by the Afghans; but, as soon as their horses had recovered their strength, they started off without waiting for permission, crossed the Hindu-Kush mountains without a guide, and reached Mastudj in the petty independent country of Tchatral. The usurping Metar of Tchatral, who had committed every possible crime, refused to let them go on without an order from the Indian Government, and Capus and Pépin were forced to go to Tchatral to make him a formal visit, in accordance with what was claimed to be invariable custom, while Bonvalot remained behind at Mastudj for forty-five days until letters arrived from the Viceroy. Meanwhile, fears were entertained in Europe that the travellers had been murdered. More fortunate than some others, the Viceroy's orders opened the road for them to Ghilghit and Kashmir, and, after a short stay in Simlah, they got back to France at the end of September, 1887.

It may be as well to say for the benefit of the reader that M. Bonvalot writes in a lively, readable style, that he possesses the endurance, pluck, and patience necessary for an Eastern traveller, and that he does not lay undue stress on his dangers, difficulties, privations, detentions, and annoyances.

In his preface the author calls attention to the manner in which Russia assimilates her conquests by quickly admitting conquered populations—for instance, the Turcomans—to the rights of Russian subjects, and by giving them hopes for the future by employing them in the military and civil service. He recognizes, what all travellers in Central Asia have seen, that the Russians have come there to stay, and that there is no danger of their being turned out by any rising of the native population, even if supported by foreign intrigue and money. With the English it is different. Bonvalot says:

"They have not the same security as those who descend, from the west, the historical slope which leads to the countries governed by them. They have not the same confidence in the future, the same carelessness as to the morrow. The English endeavor to put back the hour for playing the game of which they will have to provide the stakes. They cannot afford to make a single false move, and those who are at the helm keep their eyes and ears open; the least thing startles them. They display admirable tenacity, intelligence, and activity. I would compare them, without wishing to speak disrespectfully, to the Chinese conjurer who keeps twenty plates twirling in the air at the same time. . . . Nevertheless, their power, whatever they may say, is more or less artificial; they are making their way up stream, which tires the boldest swimmer, whereas the others are following the current, which is far easier."

While detained at Tchatral the travellers had plenty of time to cross-question the natives. These, ten years ago, only troubled themselves about the English, but are now interested in the Russians, who, from the information brought by the pilgrims, are poor, but have a great many soldiers.

"The Russians are thought to be made of better stuff throughout all Asia, and as their finances do not admit of their indulging in the prodigalities of the Anglo-Indians, the people are more struck by their military power, while with the English it is the depth of their purse which creates so much surprise. The peoples and tribes surrounding India have got to think that they have only to stretch out their hand to those who govern the country, and they are always surprised when they do not receive anything. It is easy to see by the way in which they ask, that they consider themselves entitled to largesses, and they regard the English not as mighty warriors, but as very rich merchants who have built up the edifice of their power upon piles of rupees, than which nothing could be more fragile. They fully recognize the courage of the English; they admire their wonderful public works, their fine railways; and yet they keep their eyes fixed on the Russians, and expect something good out of them. It is difficult to win the gratitude of Asiatics, and to satisfy them; and even those of India are not satisfied. I don't know what they expect to get out of a change, and they are perhaps as childish in this respect as certain other nations. But all I know is that many a discontented Hindu says: 'When the Russians are here, things will be different.' When will they be in India, or will they ever be? I am not competent to answer these questions, not knowing what the future has in store; but I do know that their coming is eagerly awaited by not a few, and that a great many expect to see them arrive."

An explanation of this state of unrest may perhaps be found partly in the vagaries of Eastern imagination, and partly in the fact that Orientals are accustomed to a régime of individual liberty, with freedom to practise all the rites required by their religion, and to keep to the old customs and habits of their several races—a régime tempered by occasional acts of despotism and severity. This sort of government the Russians know well how to provide, and they are at the same time comparatively free from any prejudices of race, caste, or color. The English, on the other hand, besides their race prejudices and their want of sympathy with the natives, have a stronger feeling of their moral duty as a government, and try to bring their subject peoples under the strict rule of law and legality—a process which causes discontent.

The Primitive Family in its Origin and Development. By C. N. Starcke, Ph.D., of the University of Copenhagen. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

Dr. Starcke has evidently studied very carefully modern authors and authorities on the subject of his work, but he is deficient in the knowledge of older sources, which possess the great value of containing the statements of eye-witnesses concerning a state of things that

has been greatly modified since, and in many instances has almost disappeared. Their explanation of it may be utterly false, but we ought to know and critically examine what they report as having seen or learned at first hand. Our author is quite deficient on this point, for reasons not discoverable by us. But it is certain that he has overlooked the numerous evidences of descent in the female line among the Caribs, the positive traces of its former existence among the Nahuatl of Central Mexico, the Peruvian *ayllu* or clan, so distinctly found among the Incas of Peru. Mere omission to mention them is very pardonable; but the assertion, in the case of the Mexicans, that such traces "do not exist," is less to be excused.

Our author appears to be rather confused in regard to the true nature of the clan. This is not surprising if we take into consideration that he evidently has not had opportunity of witnessing the working of the institution *in situ*. He furnishes, in this respect, another evidence of the fact, which grows more and more patent, that ethnology is dangerous ground to tread for any one who has not lived with at least one primitive people for some length of time. It is interesting to notice that Dr. Starcke feels, without knowing it, that the religious organization of primitive nations is apt to give a misleading appearance to their sociology. The clan is independent of and anterior to it, as an institution, yet the two coexist without clashing. As long as that organization is not fully studied and explained, there will always be a number of hypothetical explanations offered for many features which, in fact, are of the greatest simplicity in themselves, and quite easily understood by him who is practically acquainted with the matter through long experience. In the old controversy between Morgan and McLennan, Dr. Starcke endeavors to be fair, at least. Here again his lack of personal acquaintance with Indians, for instance, prevents him from seeing things in their natural light. The controversy is not advanced a step by all that he says about it.

Otherwise, the book, as a specimen of honest "learning" alone, deserves commendation; but the time for theorizing in the field of ethnology is rapidly passing away, even in such portions as are most obscure, like the Primitive Family question. There is enough opportunity left for truly scientific study of the matter. Instead of elaborate compendiums from a theoretical standpoint, the friends of ethnology had better imitate the example of Morgan, and go and see for themselves before writing about it.

Shakespeare. Par James Darmesteter. Paris: H. Lecène & H. Oudin. 1889.

It would doubtless be too much to say that a serious Frenchman is the only tolerable "serious" person on the face of the earth, but it is hardly too much to say that he is an admirable person, and valuable in France in proportion to his rarity. One of the best Frenchmen of this type, Prof. Darmesteter of the Collège de France (who, unhappily, needs no longer to be distinguished by his given name), has undertaken to introduce Shakspere to his countrymen in a new volume of the "Collection des Classiques populaires." It seems to us that M. Darmesteter has done his work extremely well. He gives a brief outline of Shakspere's life, and then, passing almost dry-footed over the poems, takes up the plays. These he treats simply, avoiding all minute criticism, translating passages and scenes, and connecting them by the story of the drama, told cleverly and very briefly. It is probably true that these are the very best translations of Shakspere into the French that ever have been made. They are for the most part graceful and accurate, and sometimes they succeed in showing in their new dress not only Shakspere's meaning, but also something of his style. We have no space for quotations, but the scene between *Lorenzo* and *Jessica*, on page 113, will show what we mean. It is not perfect, for here and there a word grates a little on the ear, or a cadence lacks its dying fall; but none the less there is something of Shakspere in it that we have not found elsewhere.

It takes little from the praise due to M. Darmesteter to say that the reader notes some slips in his work here and there, as where he makes *Mark Antony* say in his speech, "Mais, si j'étais Brutus, un Brutus-Antoine, j'enlèverais vos âmes," etc.; or shows *Cleopatra* with the asp, her "baby at her breast," "tétant sa nourrice endormie"; or even when he mistakes the luces in *Justice Shallow's* coat-of-arms for lilies. Nor does it matter much more to the wise reader if he cannot wholly go along with the author in his opinion of the "pure et chaste jeune fille" *Ophelia*, or if he believes that there was another and more deep-seated reason for *Iago's* hatred of *Othello* than mere jealousy of *Cassio's* advancement. These are but trifles; the main thing is, that a simple and excellent book on Shakspere has been given to French readers by M. Darmesteter.

The print and paper of the volume are good, but not the best. The illustrations are all of them atrocious: those representing the witch-scene in "Macbeth," and *Prospero* and *Miranda* in the "Tempest," especially cry to heaven.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Nellie V. The Right Knock: A Story. Chicago: The Author.
Bamford, Mary E. Up and Down the Brooks. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Bland, F. The Prophet's Mantle. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Booth, C. Labor and Life of the People. Vol. I. East London. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Bowden, T. R. Blunders in Educated Circles Corrected. G. W. Dillingham.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. Vagabondia: A Love Story. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Burroughs, J. Indoor Studies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Clarke, W. Political Orations, from Wentworth to Macaulay. London: Walter Scott.
Cobb, S., Jr. The Smuggler of King's Cove. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Cook, Clarence. Art and Artists of Our Time. Parts 1—16. Selmar Hess.
Corbett, J. Kophetua the Thirteenth. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Deland, Margaret. John Ward, Preacher. 37th thousand. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Desty, R. Lawyers' Reports Annotated. Book II. All Current Cases of General Value Decided in the United States, State, and Territorial Courts, with Full Annotation. Rochester: The Lawyer's Coöperative Publishing Co.
Eagan, M. F. Lectures on English Literature. W. H. Sadlier.
Emerson, R. W. The Fortune of the Republic, and Other American Addresses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Fiske, J. The Beginnings of New England; or, the Puritan Theocracy in its Relations to Civil and Religious Liberty. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Gairdner, J. Henry the Seventh. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Heimburg, W. Two Daughters of One Race. Illustrated. Worthington Co.
Heyne, Prof. M. Deutsches Wörterbuch. A—Ehe. B. Westermann & Co.
Johnson, W. E. Treatise on Trigonometry. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Justi, Prof. C. Diego Velazquez and his Times. Translated by Prof. A. H. Keane. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $10.
Kellog, Prof. M. M. Tullii Ciceronis Brutus de Claris Oratoribus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Kerr, A. M. Trean; or, The Mormon's Daughter. Belford, Clarke & Co.
King, Capt. C. "Laramie"; or, The Queen of Bedlam. A Story of the Sioux War of 1876. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Lang, A. Theocritus, Bion and Moschus. Rendered into English Prose, with an Introductory Essay. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Larminie, W. Glanlua, and Other Poems. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Lee, Margaret. Lizzie Adriance. George Munro. 25 cents.
Lyall, Edna. Derrick Vaughn, Novelist. Frank F. Lovell & Co.
MacCoun, T. An Historical Geography of the United States. The Author. $1.
Mercer, Rev. A. G. Christ and his Teachings. Sermons. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Merriam, Florence A. Birds through an Opera-Glass. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Miss Kate; or, Confessions of a Caretaker. By "Rita." Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
National Academy of Sciences. Vol. IV. First Memoir. The Cave Fauna of North America, with Remarks on the Anatomy of the Brain and Origin of the Blind Species. Smithsonian Institution.
Near to Happiness. Translated from the French by Frank H. Potter. D. Appleton & Co.
North, B. The Diamond Button; Whose Was It? Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Ohnet, G. Antoinette: the Marlpit Mystery. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Panorama of the Hudson. New York: Bryant Literary Union.
Pendleton, L. In the Wire-Grass: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co.
Pitman—Howard. The Reporter's Companion. Cincinnati: The Phonographic Institute.
Putnam, Prof. D. Elementary Psychology, or, First Principles of Mental and Moral Science, for Schools. A. S. Barnes & Co. 90 cents.
Regel—Schuler. Einführung in das heutige Englisch nach Stämmen geordnet, mit Berücksichtigung der Synonymik. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Robinson, W. The English Flower Garden. Style, Position, and Arrangement. Forming Vol. I. of the Garden Cyclopædia. Illustrated. 2d ed. London: John Murray.
Rosen, L. Grisette: A Tale of Paris and New York. John Delay. 50 cents.
Rydberg, Dr. V. Teutonic Mythology, Translated from the Swedish by Rasmus B. Anderson. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 20, 1889.

The Week.

THE English newspapers are generally agreed that America has come off with flying colors at the Samoan Conference, and has for the first time taken rank as a first-class Power in diplomacy. The victory, if it is to be considered such, has been gained in spite of the teachings of Washington, and in contravention of our unbroken foreign policy of a hundred years. Therefore it can be justified only by the event. It is our belief that meddling in Samoan affairs, as it has cost more in the past than it has yielded, so it will cost a great deal more in the future, because, in the first place, there is nothing in Samoa worth going for, even if it were conveniently situated, and because, in the second place, it is at too great a distance, being a thousand miles further from San Francisco than Liverpool is from New York. Nor do we think that a diplomatic triumph over Germany under the circumstances is a thing to be proud of. Nevertheless, the Samoan complication was an old-time legacy, dating from 1872. It had fallen to the heirs and assigns of Gen. Grant's Administration, and it had to be dealt with. The wisest policy for us would have been to renounce under the will; but if national pride would not admit of this, the next best thing would have been to have the very least, and not the very greatest, share in the responsibility for the government of the islands.

It is small wonder that Canada wishes to rid herself of the title of "Boodlers' Paradise," which the presence within her limits of so many fugitives from justice in other States has fixed upon her. The full number of such residents who have fled thither from the United States, according to an Ottawa despatch in the *Times*, is placed by a secret-service officer at 2,000. They include all kinds of defaulters and thieves, from the indicted boodle Aldermen and "Billy" Moloney, down through all stages of bank officials who have either run away with bank funds, or have fled to escape the penalties of discoveries that they have been spending those funds without permission. The new law surrendering all such criminals, all expenses of arrest and surrender to be borne by the foreign State, has gone to England for consideration and approval by the Imperial Government. The law will go into effect as soon as the proclamation making it applicable to Mexico and the United States is published in the official gazette. It is thought that fugitives already in the Dominion will be safe, but there is some risk involved for them. An amendment was offered while the bill was under consideration making it retroactive, but this was defeated. It was supposed that this made it applicable only to future fugitives, but it seems that all legislation affecting extradition is retroactive unless otherwise expressed, so that Parliament failed to accomplish what it intended. The Boodlers must depend upon the Minister of Justice for safety. He has the power of granting extradition warrants, and if he shall decide that he must carry out the clearly expressed intention of Parliament, they are all right; but if he shall decide that he must follow the letter of the law, they will be obliged to seek new quarters without delay.

The New York *Times* has advices from Montreal that the Imperial Government has no objection to the act. This is a very important step in international law and practice, and one which might be and probably will be imitated generally among civilized States, after a brief trial of the experiment by Canada. For the first time, we believe, the principle has been recognized that the systematic surrender of fugitives from justice need not depend upon mutual agreements, on the principle of give-and-take, but that it may be properly conducted on the same lines as those which define and govern the surrender of culprits from one court jurisdiction to another in the same country. Also, that the reasons which apply to the surrender for crimes of a high grade, such as murder, robbery, and forgery, apply also to the lesser offences of larceny, embezzlement, and the obtaining of goods under false pretences. The surrender of criminals by the sovereign power without any treaty or law of any kind is not infrequent, and there has been one conspicuous case of this kind in our own history—that of Arguelles, the slave-trader, who was delivered to the Spanish authorities by order of Secretary Seward. But such transactions are dangerous from every point of view. The Canadian Government, it seems to us, has marked an advance in civilization.

Each day's despatches from Washington bring long lists of appointments to fourth-class post-offices, and it is announced that the number of changes in such offices last week reached the great total of 1,012. There are, of course, a few cases each week where death makes vacancies in these little offices; a few more where there are bona-fide resignations—that is, resignations which are not extorted by the threat that, unless furnished, the incumbents shall be dismissed with the stain upon their reputations of "charges" which they are never permitted to know; and a few others where appointments are made to new offices just established. It would be a most liberal estimate to set the number of changes called for by such legitimate causes in a week as 112. This would leave 900 as to which the presumption is that they are made solely for partisan reasons. This is 150 a day. Allowing Mr. Clarkson eight hours a day, this is nineteen changes an hour, or one every three minutes during working hours from the time he gets to his office on Monday morning until he leaves it on Saturday night for the much-needed rest of Sunday. Of course it is a physical impossibility for the Assistant Postmaster-General who chops off the head of a postmaster every three minutes every day in the week, to know anything about the merits of any particular case; and he makes these appointments at the demands of those who represent the Republican Machine, without the slightest sense of personal responsibility. This is confessed by Mr. Clarkson without the smallest sense of shame.

The Administration is now reaping the fruits of its folly in turning over the most responsible bureau in the Government to a man whom no business house would think of intrusting with large financial transactions. All sorts of scandals are being unearthed in the Pension-Office under Corporal Tanner, from nepotism to unblushing favoritism towards pension attorneys who are his special cronies, and there are even rumors that he may be removed. But this Administration, like Grant's, seems more inclined to stand by its Tanners because they are "under fire," than to remove them, as the Boston *Journal* has found out. It is now more than a month since the *Journal* declared that "the Department should lose no time in getting rid of Paul Vandervoort, recently appointed Superintendent of Mails at Omaha," and more than a week since it declared that "the appointment of Mr. George P. Fisher as First Auditor of the Treasury, if all reports are correct, requires the attention of President Harrison without any unnecessary delay"; but Vandervoort and Fisher remain in office, and seem likely to remain so long as Harrison is President.

The tone of the Republican caucus of the New Hampshire Legislature, which renominated "Bill" Chandler for United States Senator, on Thursday evening, was well in keeping with the character of the performance. The caucus was held in a public hall, not privately in a legislative chamber, and the galleries were carefully "packed" with Chandler shouters. Realizing the current value of a pious approval for a public servant, Mr. Chandler had the speech putting his name before the caucus made by a clergyman, who performed the task with great unction. He spoke of Mr. Chandler as a "statesman of whom we all may be proud," and a "Republican whose glorious record stands in a clear light before the country," and besought his hearers to "behold in him the concentration of the cardinal political virtues." It was a sudden transition from this religious estimate of the candidate to that which was made in the speech which immediately followed, and which began thus: "I am here to attend an auction, not a caucus." The speaker was a lawyer and a Republican. He continued: "Chandler owes everything to Democratic support in this State. Votes have been bought for Chandler on the public streets—$600 for one vote,

$1,200 for two, and so on up the scale of iniquity." This kind of talk so disgusted the clergyman that he left the hall in as ostentatious a manner as possible. A Senator arose next and solemnly denied the charges of bribery in behalf of Mr. Chandler. After another denial, a vote was taken and Mr. Chandler was nominated. He was at once brought into the hall, and made a speech of acceptance. According to the *Tribune's* report, "he pledged his sacred honor that he had done nothing undignified, unworthy, or dishonest in the conduct of the canvass, had spent no money and promised no money for votes." It did not occur to him, apparently, that there was anything "undignified or unworthy" in a candidate for Senator of the United States feeling called upon to make such an announcement as that.

Senator Chandler was promptly reëlected on Tuesday. He will go back to Washington, he tells his constituents, more than ever determined to secure the enforcement of the Fifteenth Amendment in the South. He will join hands with Col. Shepard of this city in keeping the Solid South in subjection. Both men are thoroughly aroused to the imminent peril of another war, and it will not be their fault if the country is plunged into it "unbeknownst." It is a long time since so powerful an alliance as this has been made, and if it is maintained faithfully by both parties to it, there is likely to be considerable commotion excited before the present year ends. Mr. Chandler is already so intensely occupied with the heinous designs of the South that he does not propose to take any further notice of the assertions of members of his own party that he bought his Senatorial seat; and Col. Shepard is so convinced that the new war is not only threatening, but is almost under way at this moment, that he has no time whatever to devote to the correction of more or less deliberate falsifications which he starts from time to time about his contemporaries in the press.

The Massachusetts Legislature has recently adjourned, and there is an extraordinary degree of unanimity in the opinions expressed regarding the session. It is generally agreed that the body has been exceptionally disorderly, inefficient, and corrupt. In Massachusetts, as everywhere, the standard of the law-maker is steadily sinking, and nobody is as yet able to point out an effective method of bringing about a reform. But it is obvious that something must be done, or our legislatures will before long become insufferable.

The Legislature of this State having passed a bill to make a preferred class of laborers at the expense of labor in general, by providing that all workingmen employed by the State shall receive two dollars per day of eight hours, and twenty-five cents per hour for overtime, an attempt is now making to hold Gov. Hill responsible for this one-sided measure because he did not veto it. We have never supposed that the present Governor of this State would veto a bill of a demagogical character merely because it increased unnecessarily the burdens of the taxpayers, but in this case it is clear that the blame does not fall upon him. The Legislature is the taxing power, and if it chooses to vote away the public money, and to create a little aristocracy of laborers, and at the same time make "patronage" for the Democrats, the Governor is not bound to interfere. Under the new law every laborer in the employ of the State becomes a petty office-holder, because he gets something more than the current rate of wages; and since the Civil-Service Law does not apply in such cases, the laborers will pretty certainly be Democrats as long as their jobs continue. The spirit of demagogy must be pretty deep-seated in a Republican Legislature which would thrust additional power into the hands of the opposing party at the instance of the labor unions.

Whatever becomes of the Clan-na-Gael leaders who are suspected of instigating the Cronin murder, it should not be forgotten that this organization, and not the great mass of Irish-Americans, is on trial. This is the organization which first and last has been the worst enemy the Irish race in America has ever had. It is led by men who see in Irish wrongs and sufferings nothing more than an opportunity to advance their own interests. They are the men who have raised vast sums of money for the Irish cause abroad, and have steadfastly refused to give any satisfactory accounting of it. For one year they succeeded in capturing the American branch of the Land League organization, and had Alexander Sullivan chosen President. No sooner were they in power than they attempted to commit the League to the dynamite policy of agitation, but, after a great struggle in the convention at Chicago in 1866, they were overthrown, and Parnell's policy of Parliamentary agitation was approved by a large majority. They are the men to whom Mr. Blaine turned in 1884, while they were in the very midst of their dynamite-explosion operations, for recruits to make good the revolt from his candidacy in the Republican ranks; and his alliance with them carried the Irish question into Congress, where it defeated two extradition treaties and the fisheries treaty, and made more mischief than any other single influence had caused in recent times. The same influence foisted Patrick Egan, one of their own number, upon us as American Minister to Chili. It would be an incalculable gain to the cause of home-rule and to American politics if the whole organization could be put in jail.

The Chicago and Alton Railroad has created some stir in railroad circles by urging a reduction of about six cents a hundred pounds on lumber from Chicago to Missouri River points. Few but railroad men troubled themselves to read the details. Few of those who read them imagined that they involved a question of almost national importance; and still fewer suspected that it had anything to do with the tariff. Yet such was the case. A slight difference in rate from Chicago to Kansas City or Omaha was enough to determine whether the sections of the country west of the Missouri River which are now so rapidly developing, would use Northern or Southern pine as their chief building material. For a long time the white or Northern pine had the preference. Of late Arkansas has rapidly been supplanting the Northwest as a source of supply. Some of the Chicago roads, and especially the Alton, say that it is imperatively necessary for them to make a reduction to avoid losing the business altogether. The question of the relative rates from the different sections is an extremely complicated one. Yellow pine has an advantage in its greater weight, which enables heavier loads to be carried in a car. White pine has perhaps a still greater advantage, of moving in a direction in which otherwise many cars must be carried almost empty. The matter involves so many disputed points, both of business policy and of railroad economy, that it has taxed Commissioner Walker's ability to the utmost.

We cannot attempt to go into the details. The most interesting point to the general reader is probably this: The Chicago and Alton claims that the Southern pine is now supplanting the Northern over a much greater extent of territory, but that a reduction in white-pine rates of six cents a hundred pounds would be sufficient to neutralize the difference and put the two on equal terms. If this is true, it is obvious that the same result would be obtained by a similar reduction in price at the point of production; the price on delivery being, of course, determined by the sum of prices to the producer and to the transporting company. Now, if we count pine lumber at two pounds to the foot, the difference of six cents a hundred pounds amounts to $1.20 per thousand feet. This is somewhat less than the duty on Canadian lumber, and may be fairly taken to represent the increase of price of the product which is due to the operation of the tariff. Whatever this profit is, it nearly all goes into the pockets of the lumber-men, as distinct from any one else; for they import their Canadian laborers and pay them little more than Canadian wages, so that the conditions of competition on both sides of the border are as nearly equal as they can be. If this reasoning be correct, it simply proves that Northern and Southern lumber, apart from the tariff, would to-day compete on substantially equal terms in supplying the district west of the Missouri River, but that the artificial increase of price which the tariff enables the Northern lumber-men to charge is driving the business away from them and into the hands of the Southern lumbermen, who are comparatively little affected by a tariff one way or the other. We need hardly point out the analogy between this competition of Southern lumber and the competition of Southern iron, which is likely to be so important in the immediate future. In both of these instances the tariff has in some measure created an artificial price for the benefit of a monopoly. In both cases the internal competition of new

sections of the country less immediately affected by the tariff is rendering it impossible for the monopoly prices to be maintained in those districts which are now most actively developing.

The annual report of the Director of the Mint shows that the production of gold during the calendar year 1888 was about $33,000,000. That of silver during the same period was $59,000,000. The gold production has remained pretty steady since the year 1880, while that of silver has risen $20,000,000 during the period. The net exports of gold during the year were $25,859,000, leaving, as an addition to the stock in the country at the end of the year, a little more than $7,000,000. Probably the present year will carry off our current production, and perhaps also the accumulation of 1888, leaving us where we were at the end of 1887. The recent shipments of gold do not seem to have affected the money market or the stock market, and this is the best evidence (and the only evidence needed) to show that the exportation is a healthy movement.

Bimetallism is having a revival, or thinks it is having one, in both England and France. A deputation of the "friends of silver" waited on Lord Salisbury and Mr. Goschen on the 30th ult. to present their views and to solicit the coöperation of the Government. They were received with politeness, but did not get much encouragement. Lord Salisbury told them plainly that they must bring the country around to their way of thinking before they could count upon help from Ministers. This was equivalent to saying that the Government would not take the initiative, but would acquiesce in whatever the House of Commons should vote for. Mr. Goschen added nothing of value to the conference, and he gets a rap from the *Economist* for not having an opinion upon a subject that he has been studying for at least ten years, with rare qualifications for reaching a sound conclusion. On the other side of the Channel, a volume of some 300 pages has been issued by M. Alphonse Allard, a well-known banker, containing an essay of his own in favor of bimetallism, with observations upon it by Frédéric Passy, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, Levasseur, Germain, and Léon Say, followed by an essay from the pen of Émile de Laveleye, Professor in the University of Liége. The arguments of M. Allard and of Prof. Laveleye consist merely of the old chaff threshed over. The latter's state of mind may be inferred from the following hopeful paragraph. After adverting to a volunteer monetary conference to be held at Paris in September next for the purpose of organizing a bimetallist propaganda, he says:

"It is possible that political crises may divert public attention from the monetary crisis, however closely the latter has fastened itself; but it will depend upon the United States to *impose* the solution which it offered to Europe in 1878 and in 1881, and which the majority in that country are always in favor of; it may suspend the coinage of silver decreed by the Bland bill, and sell in the London market for gold 500,000,000 francs of the white metal, and the commercial world will then see what the single gold standard will cost."

The obvious suggestion of M. de Laveleye is, that there would be such a tremendous fall in the price of silver that all nations would be terrified to the point of adopting bimetallism. The objections to this project are that the majority of people in this country are not in favor of selling their goods below cost, and it is not clear that the London market would be terrified by the prospect of getting silver at the price of copper or zinc. We doubt if the experiment would succeed, even though the white metal should become so cheap that John Bull could supply all his workhouses with silver spoons. A course which depends upon such futile expedients (and M. de Laveleye distinctly says that it will depend upon this one) cannot have very much backing anywhere. It certainly has little from the recognized economists of France. Messrs. Passy, Leroy-Beaulieu, Levasseur, and Germain are wholly opposed to the contentions of M. Allard, and do not even admit his fundamental position that a crisis exists. Still less do they admit that it has been caused by the decline in the price of silver; nor do they concede that demonetization has caused the decline in the price of silver. M. Léon Say did not enter into these questions at all, but confined himself to a discussion of the advantages which bimetallism gives to the "debtor class," which he thought the French Government might properly favor—a thesis which M. Leroy-Beaulieu considered fraught with "grave moral objections."

It becomes clear, with fuller accounts of the debate in the Cortes, that the signal defeat of the attempt of the Spanish protectionists to increase the duties on cereals was not so much a rebuke to protectionism as to political intriguing. Cánovas had pushed on the measure in the hope of splitting the Liberals on the issue, and so of regaining power himself. His success was so great as to be fatal. Among the Liberal dissidents whom he won over was Martos, President of the Chamber of Deputies, and, by virtue of that office, a member of the Administration. With glaring impropriety, the latter openly opposed his colleagues, although refusing to resign his office. It was very largely resentment at such political indiscretion, to call it by no harsher name, and at the evident purpose to wreck the party, that led even the protectionist Liberals either to give active support to Sagasta, or to refrain from voting for a bill which they were known to favor. It was consequently beaten by more than three to one. Yet, as we have said, it was not a clear defeat of the protectionist measure on its merits. The defeat would undoubtedly have come, even without the blundering of Martos, though it would then only have meant an endorsement of Sagasta's position as respects the bill. That was a refusal to commit himself as to the absolute merits of the bill, but a stout contention that at least nothing must be done in contravention of existing commercial treaties. These will expire in 1892, he said; let us wait till then before doing anything. If it shall then seem best not to renew them, and to adopt a more protective tariff, we can do so without any suspicion of bad faith towards the countries with which we are now in treaty relations.

Meanwhile, the efforts of Sagasta to reunite his divided followers do not appear thus far to have been successful. The dissidents stand out, and do not seem willing to treat on any fair terms. Sagasta's strongest hope is to secure a coalition which will enable him to put through his bill for granting universal suffrage, and to gain the prestige sure to attach to the Minister obtaining the enactment of that popular measure. He may fail in this, but he has the whip hand in any case. He may refuse to call the Cortes together again at all. The present Cortes was elected in 1886, and has but one more legal session. A clause in the Constitution gives the Ministry power to extend for a year the budget last voted, in case the Cortes does not pass a new one, and Sagasta may do this as a last resort. It is more likely, however, that a truce will be patched up, so that a vote may be had on the Suffrage Bill, and authority be given for the conversion of the debt and the placing of a new loan, so long talked of and so desperately needed.

The "scramble for Africa" still continues. According to an announcement in the London *Times* of May 29, a number of leading financiers of England and the Cape are about to apply for a charter for a commercial company to take possession of the Central Zambesi Basin. The fact that a large part of this territory, which is defined as lying "between the south end of Tanganyika, the west shores of Nyassa, the southern boundaries of the Congo Free State, and the western and eastern possessions of Portugal, down to the frontiers of the Bechuanaland protectorate," is already claimed by Portugal, does not seem to present any serious difficulty. Access to this region will be obtained by a railway from the Cape frontier to the Zambesi, for which the money is now available. It is the intention of the directors of this new enterprise, in which there is a "certain philanthropic element," to exclude rigidly both alcohol and firearms from their dominions. The very appropriate name of Livingstonia has been suggested for the new State, as it includes the region in which the great explorer spent the greater part of his active life and made his most important discoveries. The African Lakes Company, which, though established originally simply to aid the Scotch missions on the Shiré Highlands and Lake Nyassa, has developed a considerable trade in these regions and accordingly excited the bitter hostility of the Arabs, will be merged in the new company. When missionary effort and commercial enterprise, as in this case, go hand in hand, the best results can be confidently looked for in developing the resources of the country, in putting down the slave trade, and in civilizing the negro.

THE NEW PRISON LAW.

THERE was reason to hope, at one time during the last session of the New York Legislature, that the good fortune which justifies the optimism of Americans was about to be signally illustrated. A bill for the treatment of convicts had been prepared by most competent hands; it contained nearly all those provisions which the most intelligent reformers were united in regarding as essential, and, having passed safely through committee, it seemed as if in some mysterious way it might become law without serious opposition. At the last moment, however, the representatives of the forces which have brought our prisons into their present state of demoralization, rallied, and a number of amendments were thrust into the bill, with the result of considerably increasing the difficulties of its application. Yet so much that is good was left substantially untouched, that the measure as a whole must be regarded as an immense step in advance; and although the expense of conducting the prisons will be unnecessarily increased by some disregard of economic principles, the convicts themselves may now be dealt with in conformity with the lessons of reason and experience. It is perhaps not too much to say that, whereas the prison legislation of New York prior to the passage of this act was disgraceful to a civilized community, it is now in advance of that of any other American State.

The credit for this reform is primarily due to Superintendent Brockway of the Elmira Reformatory more than to any other individual. He may be said to have furnished the ideas contained in the bill, while the admirable legal form in which the measure appears —it being really a codification of all the existing statutes upon the subject—is the work of Prof. Collin of Cornell University. Of members of the Legislature, Senator Fassett and Assemblyman Bush earned honorable distinction for their determination that the affairs of the prisons should be regulated in a statesmanlike fashion, and for the success with which the matter was carried through. Of defunct legislatures, *nil nisi malum* is now the customary mode of speech; but it seems no more than just to admit that the majority of our representatives must have perceived that the interests involved were too important to be made longer the sport of demagogues, and that they not ungraciously consented to resign themselves to intelligent guidance.

The great principle advocated by modern penologists is that of discrimination and classification among convicts. A first offence is regarded as a very different matter from a later one. In the case of most crimes against property, the character of the punishment is not clearly before the mind of the offender before he has had a prison experience; but everything should be done to make him desire that this experience should not be continued. Repeated short sentences are worse than useless, while long sentences with a material abatement for good behavior are found very efficacious. The latter feature has for some years been established in our law, but the system is still too rigid, and cannot be adapted to the requirements of particular cases. In order to meet those requirements, and with a view to presenting the most cogent motives for reform, what is known as the indeterminate sentence has been devised, with which may be combined the release upon parole, and these devices constitute the most important features of the new law. The first few months after his discharge from prison constitute the critical period for the convict who has any disposition to reform, and every influence should be exerted to set him and keep him at honest labor. He should not be turned loose, as at present, to shift for himself and drift back to his old haunts and associates, but should be kept in prison until his friends or the authorities have found work for him. Withal he should feel that he is under supervision, that the grip of the law is only relaxed, not released, and that if he falls back into crime, he will be summarily returned to prison.

At the risk of some obscurity, we condense the details of the principal changes made by the new law, as follows: Henceforth, whenever a male over sixteen is convicted of a State-prison offence punishable for a term to be fixed by the court between maximum and minimum limits, the sentence shall be for an indeterminate period within those limits. For example, a certain felony is now punishable by imprisonment for not less than two nor more than ten years. Prior to the passage of this act the court had to specify the precise number of years of confinement. It will do so no longer, but will adopt the language of the statute, and sentence the felon "for not less than two nor more than ten years." The precise limit is eventually determined by a board composed of the Superintendent of State Prisons, the warden, the chaplain, the physician, and the principal keeper. Before this board a prisoner who has served his minimum term may appear and apply for release upon parole or absolutely, but no other person may apply in his behalf. If the "biographical sketch" of the prisoner, which is to be fully and carefully kept, seems to the board to justify such action, they may release the prisoner upon parole, which means that he shall no longer be imprisoned, but shall remain in the legal custody of the warden until the expiration of the maximum period of his sentence, or until he is absolutely discharged. If there is reasonable cause to believe that the paroled prisoner has lapsed or is about to lapse into criminal ways or company, any member of the board may rearrest him and imprison him for the period of his unexpired maximum term. Any paroled prisoner may be absolutely discharged by the board.

All prisoners are to be classified in three grades. In the first grade are placed all those appearing to be corrigible and likely to maintain themselves by honest industry after their discharge. The second grade includes the incorrigible, who are nevertheless able to work and reasonably obedient to prison discipline, while the totally incorrigible and refractory element falls into the third grade. The labor of prisoners of the first grade is to be directed primarily to fitting them to maintain themselves by honest industry, even though no useful or salable product result from their labor; but, so far as is consistent with this primary object, productive industry is to be maintained. In the case of prisoners of the second grade the order of these objects is reversed. The act, as drafted, proceeded as follows:

> "The labor of the prisoners of the third grade shall be directed solely to the production of the greatest amount and value of useful or salable products."

It now reads:

> "The labor of the prisoners of the third grade shall be directed solely to such exercise as shall tend to the preservation of health, or the manufacturing without the aid of machinery of such articles as are needed in the public institutions of the State, or such other manual labor as the Superintendent of State Prisons shall direct which shall not compete with free labor."

This is, of course, a concession to the feelings of those who cannot bear that the worst convicts should support themselves, but insist that free laborers shall support them. Under this section the third-grade prisoners will probably have the easiest berth, but as their number need not be very large, we may as well congratulate ourselves that the matter is no worse. No prisoners convicted in United States courts held without the State are hereafter to be received in any of our penal institutions.

The contract system is, of course, not restored, nor is its abolition to be regretted. Both the public-account and the piece-price systems are allowed. The public-account system is that by which the State furnishes machinery and material for the labor of the prisoners and markets the products. Under the piece-price system the materials and machinery may be furnished by private persons who purchase the finished product. No fault is to be found with the provision that full market rates are to be obtained for all sales, and that no products are to be sold for less than 10 per cent. above the cost of the materials used. Equally harmless is the direction that "diversified lines of industry" shall be chosen with a view to "interfering as little as possible with the same lines of industry carried on by the citizens of this State." The bill originally provided that the number of prisoners employed in any manufacture should not be more than 10 per cent. of the number of free laborers employed therein. This percentage was reduced to five, which was probably an immaterial change, and is certainly an unobjectionable compromise.

At this point, however, the protectionist spirit could be no longer repressed. It was necessary, in order to save the bill, to admit amendments that prohibited the employment of any of the prisoners in the penitentiaries, reformatories, and houses of correction in the State at the manufacture of stoves, iron hollow-ware, and boots and shoes; while in the State prisons the number was limited to 100 at shoemaking and the same number in the iron manufactures specified. These amendments, however, do not apply to the manufacture of these articles for the use of the public institutions of the State. These institutions, it is further provided, shall be supplied with all articles commonly required

for their operation out of the products of prison labor so far as such products are available. The prices of such articles are to be fixed by a board, and every institution is to be credited with the amount of its own production. The authorities of the prisons can procure such machinery, tools, and accommodations as they find needful for the purpose of carrying on the industrial education and production prescribed, but materials are to be furnished only by contract after due advertisement.

The only remaining departure to be noted is the payment of wages to well-behaved convicts. The bill originally provided that wages should be paid at an average rate of 10 cents a day, but, as enacted, it reads that the compensation allowed to convicts shall not exceed 10 per cent. of the earnings of the institution in which they are confined. It is not easy to predict what this may amount to, but it will probably be a sufficient sum to furnish a test of the principle involved. These wages are to be varied according to the deserts of the prisoner, to be subject to fines and deductions, and to total forfeiture in case of breach of parole. The proceeds of these fines go to a fund in aid of unfortunate discharged convicts. Prisoners may have the money standing to their credit applied to the aid of their dependent relatives, or to the purchase of books, instruments, and instruction not regularly supplied by the prison. The balance to their credit at the time of their conditional discharge is subject to their draft, approved by the Superintendent; on their absolute discharge, any balance becomes their absolute property.

We should add that all moneys arising from the labor of prisoners are to be deposited in bank subject to the draft of the prison authorities. At present the income of the prisons is turned into the State treasury, and can only be applied to prison uses by State appropriation. This is not only awkward bookkeeping, but it imperils the continuity of prison administration by making it dependent on State action. The appropriations now, being of very large sums, are ignorantly condemned and reduced, while under the new system they will be small and may even disappear. There will be less opportunity and less temptation to intermeddle and tinker, and there seems to be a reasonable prospect that the present solution of our difficulties will be a permanent one. The "piece-price" plan also tends to enable the prisons to conduct their operations without waiting for the Legislature to assist them.

It is probable that at the next session there will be a renewal of the attack led this year by the manufacturers of stoves and shoes, with the purpose of still further "restricting the competition of convict with free labor," but persons familiar with the situation are confident that the other features of the law will not be disturbed. We incline to the opinion that the new system is elastic enough to admit of some further concessions to particular industries without much impairing its usefulness. Some of its provisions may be startling to those to whom they are unfamiliar, but we believe that they have all satisfactorily stood the test of experience. Of course, incompetent and corrupt officers can prevent the success of any system, but the history of our prisons has not been such as to make this danger formidable. The State may feel that it has at last fairly attempted to do its duty by the most miserable class of its citizens. Our Legislatures pass few measures that are of so truly a scientific character as this, and the fact that such a measure can be passed by the Legislature of the State of New York is, if not quite sufficient to justify an exalted State pride, at least good reason for not despairing of the republic.

THE EVOLUTION OF PARTY REMOVALS.

For an adequate consideration of the first of the two inquiries started by Senator Edmunds in the *Forum* for June, it must be borne in mind how distinct is the power of removal from the power of appointment, even though it is the rule of the Supreme Court that the President's power of removal comes from the power of appointment, being incident thereto, rather than from his power and duty "to take care that the laws be faithfully executed." The Civil-Service Law of 1883 relates solely to appointments. It does not attempt directly to control removals, although its effort is to take away the incentive to removal by requiring a competitive examination of a small class of inferior officers and employees. It only relates to a class of inferior officers appointed by a head of a department, or employees appointed by such an inferior officer as a collector of customs or a postmaster. What Bishop Potter said in his centennial sermon touched a larger topic, which is the exercise by the President of the power to remove any agent of the Federal Government, whether a constitutional officer, or an inferior officer appointed by a head of a department, or a person employed by an inferior officer.

In considering removals, it will be well, first, to make a note of change and progress in legislative opinion within the last hundred years.

The Federal Constitution makes no mention of executive power to *remove* any officers whatsoever. As the tenure of judicial officers alone is during good behavior, the commissions of all other officers, since the foundation of the Government and down to 1867, have declared that they held their offices during the pleasure of the President. During the first year of the Government, and when a bill to organize the Department of Foreign Affairs was under consideration in Congress, there was learned discussion of the question whether the power of removal by the Executive could be abridged by Congress, and the final vote, which was very close, declared in the negative in cases where the power to appoint was not subject to legislative review. It is to be inferred that this vote was largely influenced by the confidence reposed in President Washington.

When Monroe was recalled from France by Washington, the Republicans of that period asked for the reasons, which were refused by Washington, and then they insisted that the President could not remove without "cause," and was in duty bound to declare the cause. This the Federalists denied. But when in 1801 Jefferson was in power, the Republicans had plenty of reasons for removing Federalists who were in office, but denied that the President was in duty bound to declare them to the Senate. Jefferson proclaimed vacant all civil offices that had been filled by Adams after the result of the election was surely known. Jefferson declared that Federalist district attorneys and marshals should be removed, because they controlled access to the courts. The Superintendent of Public Stores was removed because he was a Federalist. Had Washington or Adams and the Federalists, when in power, announced the theory and duty of making removals for opinion's sake that Jefferson announced in 1801, the Jeffersonian Republicans of the day would have denounced Washington, Adams, and the Federalists as men of monarchical tendencies and Anglicans, endeavoring to make the American President like a European sovereign. In a dozen years or less the Federalists and Republicans changed sides so far as concerned removal from office for opinion's sake.

Thus stood the tenure of all civil officers excepting judicial officers until 1820, when Congress made the term of certain "inferior officers" of the Treasury four years. It was done during the term of Monroe. That four years' law covered collectors, naval officers, surveyors, and district attorneys. But the real vice of it was in the declaration by Congress that all the officers whose term is made four years "shall be removable from office *at pleasure*." There is the real origin of "the spoils system." Some five years afterwards, and during the term of John Quincy Adams, the Senate appointed a committee to inquire and report on the exercise by the President of the power of removal. Prominent Democrats like Van Buren and Benton were appointed on this committee. The action of the Senate clearly indicates that nearly three-fourths of a century ago the spoils system existed and had taken on alarming proportions. The Senate Committee reported a variety of bills touching the matters referred to them, and, among others, a bill requiring the President, making a removal, to declare to the Senate his *reasons* therefor. It is significant that Van Buren voted to report this bill, which, however, Congress did not enact into a law. It was the first Congressional effort to remedy the evil of party removals.

Three years after, Jackson defeated John Quincy Adams by 178 electoral votes against 83. After the result of that bitter struggle became known, Adams sent to the Senate nominations which the Senate refused to confirm expressly and solely upon the ground that it was for Jackson and the Democracy to fill such vacancies. The struggle out of which Jackson emerged as President was so bitter, the warfare between himself as President and the United States Bank was so relentless, the question of removing the deposits so enraged the Whigs, that Jackson

made a wholesale massacre of the civil service to fill the offices with those who were of his way of thinking. Van Buren's term was substantially a continuation of Jackson's two terms. Then came Harrison's election and death and the disturbances and removals from office caused by the defection of Tyler from the Whig party. By the end of Tyler's term the spoils system had become well established. Polk recognized it in 1845; so did Taylor and Fillmore during the next Presidential term. Pierce in 1853 followed on in the same line, and four years later Buchanan pillaged his own camp by vindictive removal of Democrats simply because they were friends of Pierce. In 1861 Lincoln had a plausible excuse in the condition of political affairs, growing out of the civil war, for a clean sweep of every Democrat from office, and when he died in 1865 the defection of Andrew Johnson from the Republican party, like the defection of John Tyler from the Whig party, was held to create especial reason for executive removals.

Out of this controversy inside the Republican party came the Tenure-of-Office Act, which declared that heads of departments should hold office during the term of the President by whom they had been appointed, and for one month thereafter, subject only to removal with the consent of the Senate; and also that every person holding any civil office to which he had been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who had become duly qualified to act therein, should be entitled to hold such office till a successor should have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified. The purpose of that legislation was to change the doctrine and practice of the Government since 1789, by which removal from office was effected at the mere discretion of the President. That legislation created a tenure of office which could not be terminated except by the concurrence of the President and the Senate in the appointment of a successor to the incumbent and his actual induction into office. The President could not without the consent of the Senate remove even a member of his Cabinet. Congress was Republican at the time of the legislation, but hostile to Andrew Johnson, or else such legislation never would have found place upon the statute-book.

When Grant came to power in 1869, he found a friendly Senate which did not interfere with his removals, nor did the Senate interfere with removals by Hayes, or Garfield, or Arthur. It may be fairly said that the evils of the spoils system culminated under Andrew Johnson and Grant. Notwithstanding appearances to the contrary, we agree with Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, in his recent Baltimore address, that the civil service has improved in recent years, and that its evolution is now of an encouraging type. In order to appreciate the progress made we must compare periods *en bloc*, and we shall find that there has been nothing in the last fifteen years so bad as the condition of the service in Gen. Grant's second term. With the present quickened public opinion, it is hardly possible that it should ever be so bad again.

CONDEMNED WITHOUT A HEARING.

THE wholesale removals of postmasters serving four years' terms having provoked severe criticism, the Department gave out the explanation that such removals were made upon "charges." The *Evening Post* thereupon instructed its Washington correspondent to apply to the head of the Post-office Department for information as to the character of these charges—notably in the cases of Postmaster Charles Brewer, at Vineland, N. J., and Mrs. Mary L. Clay, Postmistress at Huntsville, Ala. The chief clerk of Postmaster-General Wanamaker informed the correspondent that "it is not the custom of the Department to give out the reports of special agents, or to make any statements respecting their contents to the public, and there is no prospect that there will be any change in this usage. On the contrary," adds the correspondent, "the Post-office officials who have charge of these matters very flatly say that no information will be furnished in any instance as to the nature of the report of a special agent, except that it might be fairly presumed that, where an agent had reported upon a case and there was a removal, the removal was for cause. An investigation was made of the Vineland Post-office because of charges that had been made, the inspector reported, and the Postmaster was removed. So much and no more will the Post-office officials say as to this case." Concerning the Huntsville case, the correspondent reports:

"As to Mrs. Mary L. Clay, the Postmaster at Huntsville, Ala., who has been removed, the statement is officially made that her resignation is asked for because of the report of a special agent adverse to her, and that, as she failed to resign, she was removed. It is alleged that there were complaints from patrons of the Post-office in addition to the report of the special agent, but what those complaints were cannot be learned here. When the request for her resignation was received, Mrs. Clay, instead of forwarding it, wrote to the Postmaster-General asking him the nature of the charges and the author of them—a request which would seem to be quite human. The answer of the Department to the request of this lady for information as to what charges had been made against her was a notification of removal from office."

"The intimation is very flatly made at the Department, if not in so many words," says the correspondent, "that it will be useless for persons, whether they wish to satisfy their own curiosity, or desire to make political capital of the information, to endeavor to ascertain the contents or the nature of the reports of special agents in given cases. These reports, it is maintained, are only for the personal information of the Postmaster-General; they are in no sense public property. If there is to be a policy of removal upon charges, while the pretended rule as to four years in office is to be observed, the charges are evidently to be made in a star-chamber inquiry, into which the public is not to be invited."

We have very positive views as to the justice of the policy thus adopted by the Harrison Administration, but, to avoid any accusation of prejudice, we prefer to adopt as our own the views as to the same policy when pursued by the Cleveland Administration which were expressed by Benjamin Harrison, then United States Senator from Indiana, in a speech delivered in the Senate on the 26th of March, 1886. It was during the debate on the question whether the President could be forced by the Senate to furnish the papers embodying the "charges" upon which officials had been removed—a debate, Gen. Harrison said in opening his speech, which "will be regarded, I think, as among the great historical debates which have taken place in this body." After a comparatively brief reference to "the mere legal and constitutional questions which are presented here," Gen. Harrison proceeded to "look a little outside" of them, and to discuss the "administrative policy inaugurated by this Administration, a policy that is without precedent, *and that will be without imitation*—a policy of stimulating and receiving secret charges against the reputation of men, *ay, as I shall show presently, not only against the reputation of men, but against the reputation of women;* of denying to the accused any access to or knowledge of the charges, and of acting upon those charges in the dark."

"What was the attitude in which we found ourselves when we assembled here in December?" asked Gen. Harrison, and thus answered his question: "In my own State the Republicans who were in office were willing, at the mere suggestion of the Administration, to step out. Hundreds of them, besides those who took that course, would have placed their resignations in the hands of the Administration but for the fact that *their confidence was betrayed by the suggestion that, if they had discharged their public duties conscientiously and well, they might hold their offices until the end of their terms.* Such was the proclamation. It went through all this country. The President of the United States repeatedly put himself under pledge in favor of such a policy. It went through all the land to those Republicans in office who had a fragment, large or small, of a legal term to serve, that, if they had discharged their duties faithfully and honestly, they would not be disturbed in serving out the residue of their terms. It was said that mere difference in political opinion should not operate against the officer. It was said that if he had not made himself an indecent partisan, the fact that he was a Republican should not be taken advantage of in order to deprive him of his office."

"It has turned out," Gen. Harrison continued, "that it was a deceptive feast to which these gentlemen were invited. It was almost as full of deception and almost as fatal in its results, as some of those feasts of old story to which men were invited for the purpose of assassination." Gen. Harrison next described in detail the outrageous manner in which postmasters had been removed by the Cleveland Administration upon the allegation that "charges" had been made against their official conduct, and then had been refused all information as to the character of these charges. Turning to his Democratic colleagues, he said: "Will you unite here in support of a proposition which denies to a Republican removed knowledge of the charges that are

filed against him in a public department of this Government? I do not believe there is a Senator on that side of the chamber (if there is one, I know it is not my colleague) who will rise and vindicate that course of administration. I know he reprobates it; I know every impulse of his heart cries out against it; I know he despises it, because he has been trained, in his profession and in his intercourse with men, to believe in *the great doctrine that an accused should have the right to know of what he is accused, and to be heard in his defence.*"

Gen. Harrison proceeded to offer a "prayer," with the quotation of which we conclude this article:

"*I do lift up a hearty prayer that we may never have a President who will not either pursue, and compel his Cabinet advisers to pursue, the civil-service policy pure and simple and upon a just basis, allowing men accused to be heard, and deciding against them only upon competent proof and fairly—either have that kind of a civil service, or, for God's sake, let us have that other frank and bold, if brutal, method of turning men and women out simply for political opinion. Let us have one or the other.*"

THE SILVER-LEAD CONTROVERSY.

The documents submitted to the Secretary of the Treasury for and against a reversal of the existing rule of the Department, that an ore must be classified for the assessment of duties according to its component of chief value, have been printed. They consist of arguments, affidavits, and statements of fact from the parties in interest, their counsel, and metallurgists. The whole mass constitutes an object-lesson in tariffs of very great value. There is scarcely anything in the literature of the subject which does not here find its appropriate practical illustration.

To begin at the beginning, we find that Congress undertook in 1883, as often before, to regulate the profits of a large number of trades, including that of lead-mining and smelting, as well as the manufacture of lead pipe, sheets, shot, etc., and of white lead. To do this with any approach to fairness, if such an attempt can ever be fair, would require such wisdom as has never been vouchsafed to mortals, conjoined with a spirit of disinterestedness which has never been found in any legislative body. As a matter of fact, this particular bill did not have the advantages of such wisdom and disinterestedness as the Congress of 1883 may have been blessed with, because it was thrown together in a conference committee in great haste, and with a total disregard of the votes that had been previously taken in the two houses. This circumstance detracts from the value of the testimony of Mr. L. E. Holden (p. 56), who submits a sworn statement that he was present during that entire session of Congress, and that he "knows it was not the intent of the friends of the law that lead in ores, or in any other form, should be admitted free of duty." Inasmuch as the conference committee that reported the measure which finally passed, went counter to the votes of both houses, Mr. Holden's knowledge of the intent of the friends of the law must be of the slightest. As little can be inferred from his mere presence at Washington city during the whole session.

The decision of the Treasury Department in 1880, during Secretary Sherman's term, that ores should be classified for duty according to the component of chief value, except where Congress had otherwise provided, was examined by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate last July under an instruction of the Senate. The report was made by Mr. Edmunds, and appears to have been unanimously concurred in, and, as an argument on a point of law, is perfectly convincing. It consists of two simple theses: (1) that these silver-lead ores were actually imported during and before 1883, and that Congress must have had knowledge of the fact, as well as of the ruling of the Treasury Department above mentioned; (2) that in two special cases of mixed ores, viz., copper and nickel, Congress provided that a duty should be levied on the amount of pure copper, or pure nickel, contained therein, but made no such provision as to any mixture of lead ore with any other metal. The conclusion is irresistible, that if Congress had intended to change the practice prevailing in the commercial world, and confirmed by the Treasury ruling, it would have used words appropriate to that end, as it did in the case of copper and nickel. Mr. Edmunds concluded his report thus: "The Committee is of opinion, therefore, that the class of ores mentioned are not dutiable under existing laws."

The contention on the other side is threefold: First, that they are dutiable under existing law; second, that the assays at the Mexican frontier are hasty and incorrect, and that ores are smuggled in as silver ores, although containing more lead value than silver value; third, that these ores ought to be made dutiable by Treasury order, whether Congress made them so or not. This last was the unvarnished precept of Senator Wolcott, whose presence at the hearing was an impertinence and a scandal. "The question," said Mr. Wolcott, "is whether you [Mr. Secretary of the Treasury] will protect the lead product of the United States"—not whether Congress has done so, not whether the means adopted by Congress are adequate, not whether the admission of Mexican fluxing ores might not be one means of protecting the lead product of the United States (as Mr. August R. Meyer strongly contended that it was), but whether the Secretary of the Treasury for the time being will impose a tax upon the people on his own motion.

How far this idea has taken possession of people presumably sane in other matters may be inferred from the character of the affidavits submitted. Most of these are drawn up to prove that lead-mining in the United States is in danger of extinction by reason of the importation of these Mexican ores, although the statistics prove the contrary—as though that fact, if true, could have any bearing on the question under debate, which is whether Congress did, in 1883, enact that these ores should be dutiable. It is certain that Congress did enact that silver ores should come in free. A large part of the argument of the complainants went to show that silver-mining in this country would be disastrously affected if these particular ores should continue to come in free. Why did they not ask the Secretary to rule that any ore containing silver should be dutiable, or that silver bullion should be dutiable? Surely nothing can be worse for silver-mining than to admit pure silver free of duty. Why advance any arguments on this head unless they intended that the Secretary should fix the duties regardless of the law? Naturally the wages question held high rank in the argument. Mr. J. F. Woodman made affidavit, among other things, that

"The continuance of the present free importation of foreign lead ores will destroy the present lead-mining industry in this country, *or* enforce a reduction of the miners' wages to the level of wages in Mexico."

This phrase seems to have been stereotyped, for we find the same identical words repeated in the affidavits of Lemuel E. Colbath, Charles Read, John S. Scott, A. Hanauer, Joseph R. Walker, William A. Clark, and Joseph K. Clark, while Mr. Dennis Sheedy expands them to half a page, giving us the lineage of the present inhabitants of Mexico, and showing the degraded state of the peons of that country, in which he sees the future destiny of the American miner unless the Secretary of the Treasury shall make the right kind of a law for us. There are plenty of data for contradicting this statement. For example, the *Sun* of Monday has a letter from Silver City, New Mexico, taking the side of the complainants in this case, but the writer naïvely remarks:

"Notwithstanding the fact that hundreds of miners have been thrown out of employment in the copper and lead mines, *there are more miners now at work in New Mexico than at any previous time in the history of the Territory, and they are receiving good wages.*"

Of the professional testimony offered, that of Prof. Egleston of Columbia College was by much the clearest and most incisive, going wholly to the point that "if a mineral should contain two metals, one of which could and the other could not be extracted with profit, the substance would be termed an ore of that metal whose value determined its working," and that in fact these Mexican ores were worked primarily for silver, the lead being a by-product.

We have said that this controversy is a valuable object-lesson in tariff discussions. Here are two industries, or rather two branches of a single industry, each having a large invested capital, and each employing large numbers of men and supporting thousands of families. The Government is asked to tear one of them up by the roots and bring dismay and ruin upon employers and employed. For what reason? In order to distribute the proceeds of the national industry in a certain way; to make the profits of certain other people more satisfactory. This is socialism of the rankest description. It is called protection, but, whether it is rightly called so or not, it is an attempt to make one man rich and another man poor by—we had almost said by act of Congress, but in this case it is by the act of a subordinate official. The principle, however, is the same. Whether by Congress or by the Secretary, it is an attempted spolia-

tion, repugnant to the sense of justice and to the spirit of free institutions. The difference between such an act done by Congress and the same done by the Secretary, although the economical results are the same, goes, however, to the very root of representative government.

DECLINE OF THE NEWPORT SEASON.

It is generally asserted, and does not seem to be very positively denied, that Newport will be neither so full nor so gay this year as some people could desire. There are more houses to let, and they do not let so well; there is to be less going on, fewer public entertainments, more people absent in Europe, etc., etc. To hotel-keepers, cab-drivers, owners of houses who expect to live during the winter on the rent they get from their Newport estates in the summer, all this is depressing; and the most melancholy thing about it is, that the dulness seems to be increasing instead of diminishing. It threatens to be worse this year than it was last year, although last year it seemed worse than the year before; and, worse than all, the future holds out no definite promise of revival. The old Newport "season," when public gayety was kept up day after day and night after night, is believed by many people to be a thing of the past. It is not that Newport itself is in a decline. It never had so many fine houses nor so many miles of good roads. With these and its Casino and new bathing-houses, it has really doubled its attractions within a few years. It continues to be, as it always has been, the only seaside watering-place of the first class in the United States. The explanation must be found in some other cause. The "season" is said to have fallen off from a variety of causes not redounding in any way to the discredit of Newport. In the first place, fashionable people go more and more to Europe—the numbers going this year are larger than ever before; then, two or three rival "resorts" have come into favor near by, especially Narragansett Pier, where people who want to have continual "hops" go; then, the times are bad, and no new set of large fortunes has been made recently.

No doubt there is something in these explanations; but do they, after all, explain why the season has declined while Newport itself has become more and more attractive? There are, even with all allowances made, as has just been said, many more people, and many more rich people, in Newport than there were twenty years ago. It is not a deserted village, but a thriving and prosperous town—thriving and prosperous chiefly through its summer inhabitants. If these habitués liked to keep up the old season as it was in its prime, nothing could prevent them—certainly not the fact that there were other habitués in other places doing the same thing. Nor would the poverty of those who could not come deter them, nor the absence of those in Europe. Those who remember Newport in the old days of the Ocean House hops know very well that it has material in it now for hopping and other forms of revelry of which the "society people" of the last generation knew nothing.

The causes that have been mentioned will not account for the phenomenon, which is that the people who used to carry on the "season," or their present representatives, do not care to do so as much as they did. The cause must be found in some peculiarity of the season itself, which has gradually led to its falling into disfavor, or else some change in the people who created it, or both.

We venture to suggest that the cause in the season itself which leads to this result is that it was an essentially vulgar and disgusting institution, which, unless the world was to grow increasingly vulgar and disgusting, was doomed to an early decay. It consisted simply and solely of a number of people, united by no other tie than that they could afford it, going to a seaside place, and, instead of spending their time in the pursuit of health and pleasure, wasting it in giving their badly brought-up daughters and sons a "good time" in the way of dancing, driving, and flirting. The elders of course got very little out of the season. The father was apt to be hard at work in New York most of the summer, earning a living; the mothers drove or gossiped (a great many of the leading matrons made their headquarters on a hotel piazza), and the young people had their fling; that is, they danced night after night in gas-heated rooms, privately if they must, publicly in the hotel "corridor" if possible.

In the last twenty or thirty years immense changes have come over the lives and pleasures of well-to-do Americans. Notwithstanding all the provincialism we see in some directions, in the pleasures of "society" there has been a great advance in good sense and cosmopolitanism. The taste for outdoor sports has made a summer season devoted to dancing seem just as silly to Americans as it always did to other people. Summer occupations have become diversified. Where sitting on a piazza or parading a corridor used to mark the height of social attainment, these pursuits have come to seem more or less like a bore. The increase of private fortunes has also had an indirect effect. The plutocrats have gradually more and more given up trying to pretend that they liked equality, and the give-and-take of democratic hotel life, and have drawn off into their cottages—villas they call them now—and taken a good deal of satisfaction in a reserve and withdrawal from the vulgar herd of resorters which the latter perfectly well understand. No one not fortified by great wealth could do these things. A generation ago they would have been looked upon as snobbish. Now they are simply aristocratic or exclusive. The very wealthy are a law to themselves. They lead such lives in summer as they please, season or no season, and for their example a host of people less rich may well be thankful.

Of course, the season will never be wholly extinguished. There will, in Newport and elsewhere, always be a time when the hotels are full, when there are most turn-outs to be seen, when there is summer dancing; but the great discovery has been made that the leaders of fashion no longer regard the competition of display in clothes on hotel piazzas as the sum and substance of human happiness, and the followers of fashion are very quick to echo the discovery. Summer life in the last generation has become much more private. Let the hotel-keepers and hack-drivers and purveyors of amusement by contract at so much a head, regret it; we cannot. To our minds the old season was a vulgar caricature of real pleasure-seeking; and if it has gone, as the late Mr. Carlyle would have said, to the Mother of dead dogs, or, as others insist, to Narragansett Pier, it does not mean that Newport is in a decline, but that the "season" has been found out to be an imposture which no civilized or civilizable country could long endure.

NOTES IN THE SOUTH OF IRELAND.

Kilkee, Co. Clare, May 26, 1889.

With the supreme attractions before them of the oldest and most civilized countries in the world, it is little wonder that, as a rule, American visitors landing at Queenstown pass rapidly across Ireland. We have nothing in art or architecture to detain the traveller. For ourselves there is much of deep interest in both, but to be fully appreciated they must be viewed in a spirit born of intimate acquaintance with the country and her history. Our chief associations with English literature are almost centred round the tombs of Swift and Stella in St. Patrick's; Rev. Charles Wolfe's grave in a seldom visited graveyard, a mile from Queenstown; Kilcolman, and other spots in the County of Cork connected with Spenser; and Goldsmith's birthplace and deserted village in Longford. The harrow of misrule and depression has left Ireland rather bare. The living institutions most worthy of a visit are some under the Catholic Church—those splendid establishments managed by religious orders, such as Artane and Glencree, near Dublin, and the Convent of the Good Shepherd and Saint Raphael's Blind Asylum in Cork, and others scattered all over the length and breadth of the land, where devoted men and women, in accordance with Catholic ideas, are doing so much for the Irish *renaissance*, which has undoubtedly begun. We Protestants cannot work through such means; our field of usefulness here is at present necessarily narrow—we ourselves have done much to restrict it. Something may be effected when we more fully realize that in philanthropic labors we cannot do much better than rival the spirit of our Catholic fellow-countrymen.

Since leaving Dublin a fortnight ago, I have been longing that my friends abroad could see Ireland in this year's spring attire. The weather has been perfect. Never have I seen more tender green on field and wood, never here bluer seas and skies, or lovelier shadows chasing each other over the mountain sides. Perhaps the hawthorn is not so luxuriant as last year's; but the primroses are massed along the hedgerows, daisies and cowslips and buttercups carpet the pastures and meadows, and as for the furze, it is a blaze of glory, lighting up the hills and framing the fields in gold. We are rather jealous for the reputation of Ireland, owing to visitors so often deriving their impressions of the country from Killarney. So far as nature goes, Killarney is in fine weather a heaven upon earth; but man has done much to mar the place. Not even in the Bernese Oberland is there a more exasperating system of tolls, beggary, and wheedling. The hotels

are dear (at least according to our standard), and the tips and extras connected with the hire of boats and carriages are endless. Moreover, the shores of the lakes are strictly preserved. You cannot walk and ride freely there as in the English Lake district. You have to pay for entrance to every demesne and every beautiful spot. Let us hope that under home rule the proprietors may be bought up and the place nationalized. For the present it remains a scandal and a shame to Ireland. Perhaps you do not perceive this as clearly as we do. You generally visit Killarney with purses undepleted by travel, with "American ideas" of the value of money, and inexperienced as to the principles on which the most enjoyable tourist resorts in Europe are run.

Glengariff, Killarney, Dublin, perhaps a day in the County of Wicklow, Belfast, and the Giant's Causeway, are upon the whole, for a short tour in Ireland, the best selection of places to visit. This usual programme might, however, be considerably improved. Leaving Killarney early in the morning for Dublin, the main interest ending at Limerick Junction, let the tourist there express his heavy baggage and take a train for Waterford, the afternoon steamer for New Ross, and rail to Wexford. Next day let him travel by railway to Dublin, stopping at Rathdrum and devoting a few hours to visiting Glendalough. He will really lose no time, and will immensely increase his knowledge of Ireland. The Suir, the Barrow, the Slaney are some of Spenser's rivers. Along their banks, with views of the Galtees, Comeraghs, Knockmealdowns, across the charming County of Wexford, through the Vale of Avoca, under the dark cliffs and woods that surround the "Valley of the Two Lakes," he will see much that is most characteristic of our scenery. The situations of Waterford and New Ross are picturesque. Wexford is perhaps the most interesting town in Ireland. The main street at some points is only twenty feet wide. The principal Anglo-Norman towers and much of the walls remain. The county is full of historical associations. There the invaders first landed. Portions of the castle built upon the site of Dermot Macmurrough's residence still frown upon the surrounding country. At Ferrycarrick the train passes in view of the first castle erected by Fitzstephen; and it is the most remarkable fact in European history that the contest initiated when it was built 700 years ago, remains unsettled to this day. The people of the county, at least in the southern baronies, are some of the finest in Ireland. They alone made a real stand in 1798. Wexford town was held for six weeks. Dreadful atrocities were perpetrated on both sides, but few Protestants were injured who had not, themselves or their families, taken part in the terrible system of oppression under which the country groaned. South of Wexford an old English dialect, almost uninfluenced by Irish, lingered on as a distinct language till our time. At Waterford and Ferrycarrick the visitor will see in full use curious wooden bridges erected 100 years ago by one "Lemuel Cox, a native of Boston."

I have just reversed this tour, and then, having stayed a while in Cork and beside the Shannon, have come on here. I am profoundly impressed with the moral and mental elevation which is going on over the country. The population has been awfully reduced since first I knew these parts. We are still behindhand, but, in the main, an intelligent, well-clothed, self-respecting people have (thanks very much to intercourse with America) replaced the wild and impoverished hordes of the time before the famine. The dream of raising the country through Protestantism must have passed away from the minds of all but the most prejudiced. The conviction is forced upon many of us extreme Protestants that a pure and elevated system of Catholicism guides the people, and that the fruits are in the main good. This system appears wanting in some of the grit and sterner virtues that characterize the higher Protestant communities; but as a whole I believe our millions will in the next generation favorably compare with the populations of other countries. Outside the land question, ideas of honesty and right and wrong are not shaken. The present is a struggle against a system intolerably dishonest. We cannot wonder, however we may deplore, that many tenants have carried into the contest outside the law the tactics for centuries practised within the law by their opponents. Doubtless many strange economic ideas are afloat, an earnest of those still stranger which will be tried under home rule. The erection of laborers' cottages over the island, mainly in the south and west, by the Poor-Law Boards, upon money lent by the Government, and the letting them (to those who can only be a favored few) generally at rates which will pay but half the interest and sinking fund, is an extraordinary social experiment. There is a distinct effort on the part of the Government, by what Mr. Morley aptly calls "jingling the money-bags," to buy off the people from the desire for self-government. This effort will fail. But when self-government comes, there will be some murmuring throughout the land for the flesh-pots of Egypt now vouchsafed us in the shape of treasury loans at low interest.

The loneliness and stagnation of this part of the country are almost oppressive, and form a bar to tourist traffic. Ruskinize as we may, man is a gregarious animal; the presence of our fellows enhances the pleasures of natural scenery. The direct means of communication from Limerick here (steamer to Kilrush and car the rest of the way) are practically the same at this season of the year as when first I knew the place forty-seven years ago. The steamers—small, unkempt vessels—ply but once each way daily. We found only some twenty passengers on board; in summer they are more numerous. In fifty miles of the Shannon between Limerick and the sea, there are apparently no means of communication between the opposite shores at any point but by specially hired boat. The steamer stops only thrice on the route. To be taken on board at Foynes on Friday necessitated special arrangement beforehand with the agents at Limerick, and the payment of a smart sum to boatmen. This is, in its way, the finest seaside resort in the United Kingdom, nor have I seen anything to equal it elsewhere. Half a mile of sandy beach, delightful to children, and safe for bathers, is flanked at each end by an iron-bound coast; sheer cliffs and rocks and islands rising to 250 feet open out in endless succession of bay and headland north and south. The Atlantic stretches away without interruption to your shores. Majestic blue rollers, impelled by the prevalent western winds, and unbroken by rock or shallow, dash in white foam and clouds of dazzling spray against rock and headland. Shelving ledges and strata, where shelter can be found from sun and wind at every point of the compass, afford unrivalled opportunities for watching in security the play of ocean. The air, while soft and balmy, is impregnated with saline briskness. The Duggena reef, which protects the inner strand, left bare by the receding tide, discovers among its rocky terraces deep pools, whose crystal depths, rich with algæ and marine creatures, have a peculiar fascination—a fascination which has too often retained dreamer and fisherman until cut off by the returning waters, or overwhelmed by tidal wave. The village mainly consists of one and two-storied white-washed stone-built houses. Most visitors bring their families and servants, and hire these "lodges" at a rent of from £5 to £30 per month, according to season and circumstances. The inns are small. There are no hotels, in your sense of the word. The accommodation is somewhat poor, the diet plain but plentiful, the boarding charges being £2 to £3 per week. There is no excitement or life, such as is met at fashionable watering-places. We are glad to read the Dublin papers a day old. Dreary moorlands, swept clear of trees by winter storms, stretch miles inland. The people are interesting. Most of them still speak Irish, and with their better dress and bearing have lost none of their gentle manners. There is much that is primitive and refreshing about the place. The fishermen face the Atlantic in "corraghs" made of canvas stretched on a light framework of timber. With a few friends and books, a constant view of cliff and breaker—blue sea, dark headland, white foam—I know of no more soothing place to muse away a holiday and forget the cares of the world.

D. B.

HALEVY'S RECOLLECTIONS.

PARIS, May 27, 1889.

THE authors of the "Belle Hélène," of "Barbe-bleue," and of so many other pieces which were played under the Second Empire with so much success, are now both members of the French Academy. One of them, M. Meilhac, continues to write for the stage, but he writes no more operettas, he writes comedies; he has almost become a moralist. As for M. Halévy, who entered the French Academy before M. Meilhac, he has completely abandoned the writing of plays, and has given to the public a succession of novels, some of which have had a great success. I read on the cover of his new book, 'Notes et Souvenirs,' this curious list: "L'Abbé Constantin, 133d edition; Criquette, 71st edition; Madame et Monsieur Cardinal, 49th edition; Les petites Cardinal, 44th edition; Princesse, 43d edition." These editions are of 500 copies each; you may easily count the number of the readers of these novels and stories. 'L'Abbé Constantin' opened to the author of 'La Belle Hélène' the doors of the French Academy. It was read as a novel, it was applauded as a drama; it was illustrated by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire, one of our best aquarellists. It was for more than one season the book of the day, which was found on every lady's table. It is virtuous, it is religious, it is worldly, and it is not dull. The "Petites Cardinal" and the "Famille Cardinal" are an amusing picture of the manners of the class which furnishes the dancers at our great opera: they represent a curious mixture of family and (if I may so call it) irregular life, of order in disorder. The book has had so great a success that the Cardinals have become typical, like the Joseph Prudhomme of Henri Monnier.

By a curious contrast, M. Halévy seems to grow all the more disinclined to come before the public as his popularity increases. His collaboration with M. Meilhac came long ago to an end, and he has never, since they separated, tried to come alone before what we call "le feu de la rampe." He published his first novels in newspapers, in the shape of feuilletons, or in the most popular reviews. He only writes at present in the dearest of all reviews, the *Revue des Lettres et des Arts*, a review which has magnificent illustrations, and is only made for

the prosperous. The 'Notes et Souvenirs' which are before us in the shape of a small volume, came out first in this review. They were made in the years 1871 and 1872; they are fragmentary, disconnected, but they derive much interest from the dramatic occurrences of those eventful years.

Halévy was at Étretat on the 21st of May, 1871, when an official despatch from M. Thiers announced that the troops were reëntering Paris, which had been for two months in the hands of the Commune. He left immediately on the little Fécamp diligence. He tells one of his neighbors on the diligence that he is on his way to Paris:

"To Paris?" says the farmer; "singular idea. Wait at least till they have stopped fighting. . . . You Parisians agitate yourselves too much and have too much curiosity. . . . That is your misfortune. We don't agitate ourselves so in the country. . . . But you, for a melody, a war, a revolution, you put yourselves in such states—you burn your blood. All these things would not have so much importance if people did not occupy themselves with it; for, after all, the days have only twenty-four hours, the months have but thirty days, and the years but twelve months. While it lasts it lasts; and when it is finished it is finished."

M. Halévy is never tired of giving examples of this philosophy of a great part of our people. I had myself, at the same epoch, curious examples of it. I remember going from Versailles to Neuilly, on the day when the Versailles troops took by force the bridge of Neuilly, which was defended with barricades. The noise of the artillery was deafening, but I saw peasants working in their fields not even lifting their heads, looking as calm and quiet as possible.

On his first visit to Paris, when he went along the Seine and saw the ruins of the Tuileries, of the Council of State, of the Great Chancellery of the Legion of Honor, Halévy adds: "I have seen, for ten months, many extraordinary things, but nothing more strange and fantastic than what I saw a moment ago. . . . Between the Pont Royal and the Pont de la Concorde, some people were fishing. I counted them: they were twelve, fishing very leisurely, not caring for what was taking place over their heads, their eyes fixed on their lines, and taking advantage of all these disasters to fish at the forbidden time of the year." The last struggle of the Commune took place in the cemetery of Père Lachaise:

"At each report of a gun on the heights of Montmartre, there was a great fracas in the Rue des Martyrs, but nobody paid any attention to it. There was a crowd in all the shops of the quarter. The cooks were forming in queue at the butchers'. On all sides one heard pleasantries and laughter. . . . What a noise they are making up there at Montmartre. It is the end, said the woman, the *bouquet* [the name given to the finale of grand fireworks]. It will soon be over." Halévy took pleasure in observing the state of mind of the common people, of those who think aloud freely. "I was yesterday in front of a butcher's shop; an old woman was quarrelling with the butcher, who tried to give her too much bone with the meat. . . . 'I thought,' said she, 'that you would become more reasonable after the war. But I see that it will always be the same.'"

It is always the same with many; and history slides over their heads as the wind over the lower strata of the ocean. The Paris of the siege and of the Commune rapidly regained its old aspect.

"We go over the Pont Neuf, and we fall, at the Croix Rouge, on a great fire: a great shop has been burning for twenty-four hours. Close by, the shops are open, the passers by have the elastic step of the Parisians. I stop and I look curiously for five minutes at an optician in the Rue des Vieux Colombiers, who, with infinite calm, is busy putting methodically in order his glasses, and eye-glasses, and microscopes. His wife helps him; he goes out of the shop that he may judge of the effect from the sidewalk. And meanwhile we hear distinctly the guns on the side of the Bastille."

Men are, on such occasions, like insects who have been for a moment perturbed and who hasten to resume their instinctive life. It is the same with an army, and Stendhal has wonderfully described what may be called the human part of a battle, in his account of Waterloo in the 'Chartreuse de Parme.'

Halévy turns at times his photographic plate on the famous men of the day; he gives good portraits of Thiers, of Gambetta—true portraits:

"I remember when M. Thiers reëntered the French Chamber on the 11th of January, 1864. I see the little man so often caricatured by my friend Cham, ascending the tribune. I hear, coming out of this tiny body, a small, sharp voice, the driest and most disagreeable of voices. On the face of a certain number of deputies who had never heard M. Thiers could be read clearly this thought: What! is this M. Thiers? Two or three members of the Right screamed, 'Louder! louder!' 'You will hear me in a moment,' and, to be sure, it was soon heard, the little voice. It took accent, authority; and a great silence ensued, the greatest silence I ever heard, for silence is very well heard. . . . There was an old *huissier* who was a great admirer of M. Thiers. It is the business of these ushers in the Chamber to establish silence. When there is a great murmur, which drowns the voice of the speaker, two *huissiers*, at the right and left side of the tribune, scream three or four times: 'Silence! silence!' One day this old *huissier*, seeing M. Thiers ascending the tribune, said: 'Oh! now it is M. Thiers, we have nothing more to do. Nobody stirs while he is there. A fly would not dare to fly during a speech of M. Thiers.'"

During the Empire, Halévy had an office at the Corps Législatif, that of secrétaire-rédacteur. He often saw M. Thiers when he came himself to correct the proof-sheets of his speeches. He corrected much:

"We were all very much afraid of him. . . . He had much vivacity, and he did not bear the smallest observation. I took the liberty to tell him (he was correcting a speech on the affairs of Mexico) that he had made two phrases which, one after the other, said exactly the same thing, in almost identical terms. 'I know it very well,' said M. Thiers with his little voice, 'and I did it on purpose—do you hear? on purpose. . . . The first time I spoke for the intelligent people, for those who understand at once. . . . But you must speak to everybody, you must be understood by everybody. So I spoke the second time for the fools, who are the majority, outside of the Chamber.' And, as I was going away humbly, I heard him say between his lips, 'and in the Chamber, also.'"

M. Thiers had promised at Bordeaux to remain neutral between the Monarchical and Republican parties, but he did not cease for an hour to work against the monarchical solution. Halévy cites what he said at Versailles, after dinner, to some deputies of the Right: "The monarchy is impossible, you ought to see it; . . . but you are always the same incorrigible doctrinaires; you are rich, you live in hôtels between court and garden, you don't know what is going on in the street. If you were reasonable, we would make the Republic together, you and I, and all would go on for the best in an excellent Republic, very wise, very conservative; but you are not reasonable, and you will oblige me to make the Republic with the Republicans, without you, against you, while I should much prefer to make it with you and for you."

There is little in this volume on Gambetta:

"Gambetta is now a sort of sovereign. He has kept his courtiers, his Bordeaux and Tours staff, his following. This is the most serious danger of the time [this was written just after the Commune]. Two sets of men, hungry for prefectures and sub-prefectures—the men who were put out in September, 1870, and those who were put out in February, 1871—are waiting, with equal impatience and equal avidity, for the restoration of the man, Emperor or President, who will give them back their places. Politics is becoming a trade, a speculation."

The real interest of this small volume is much less in anecdotes concerning the men who played some part in the dramatic years of the war and of the Commune than in small stories and pictures showing the temper of the people during these great events—the fund of philosophy, of good nature, of instinctive resignation which is found in the nation, even at the worst of times.

Correspondence.

THE CENTURY DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The faults which Prof. Newcomb finds with my definitions in the Century Dictionary are, I trust, at all events, confined to the earlier pages, where I was unable to see proofs of a part of what I wrote. I ask leave to illustrate my method of preparing definitions, in the instances of the five in my department to which he objects. I take these up in their alphabetical order.

(1.) *Action.* The first step towards defining such a phrase as the "law of action and reaction" is to find who originally introduced it, and where. In this case the author is Newton, the book the 'Principia.' I next inquire whether and where there has been any subsequent discussion of the meaning. This carries me to Thomson and Tait's 'Natural Philosophy.' Finally, I collect the common meaning of the phrase from a series of English writers of different periods. Prof. Newcomb says my definition contains an erroneous sentence. I presume he alludes to that in which I give Newton's definition of "action." Though Thomson and Tait laud Newton's remarks, these certainly confound two distinct phenomena, and we may regret his definition of "action," which does not apply to ordinary cases under the law. I ought to have added something to that effect. But Newton does give that definition, and gives no other, and he lived in an age when men were expected to adhere to their definitions; and I was bound to record his statement. I supplement this in the next sentence by giving the law as it ought to be and is generally understood. There is no error, but only the omission of an explanatory sentence, probably as appearing disrespectful to the "summus Newtonus."

(2.) *Albedo.* This word, introduced by Lambert in 1760, and defined by him, and distinguished into species by Zöllner in 1865, does not belong strictly to my department. I suppose I wrote on the galley-proof: "the proportion of the light falling on a surface irregularly reflected from it," and that the proof-reader, finding this a bad sentence, inserted *and* before "irregularly," where *that is* would have answered better. The slight confusion resulting is corrected by the rest of the definition. I may remark that *albedo* has nothing to do with the light regularly reflected, which is to be reckoned as if absorbed; and, moreover, a body may have *albedo* although slightly self-luminous, as Saturn has been supposed to be. The *albedo* is, therefore, not exactly "the pro-

portion of incident light reflected by a non-luminous body," as Prof. Newcomb defines it.

(3.) *Alidade.* Arabic terms of astronomy have been in nearly every instance hunted up in Arabian authors, generally in old Latin translations. They have been sought preferentially in translations of Ptolemy, so as to connect them with the Greek. They have also been looked up in Lane's or other Arabic Lexicons; and finally they have been traced through various writers from Chaucer to Newcomb. There is some dispute regarding the proper meaning of the word *alidade* in Arabic. In English, it is generally applied to an arm of an optical instrument, traversing a circle, and attached, as such arms commonly are, to a telescope, or carrying sights. (The restriction by some writers to a vertical circle cannot be justified.) It is, however, occasionally extended (as by Newcomb) to all arms of circles, whether carrying sights or not; and as this use is borne out by Arabian dictionaries, we cannot call it wrong. On the other hand, the word is very frequently applied, both in Arabic (see Devic, 'Glossaire') and in English, to a straight-edge unattached to a circle and bearing sights or a telescope. Both these meanings are given in the Dictionary. The first definition fully accords with that given by Newcomb himself, and the second is even more undoubtedly correct.

(4.) *Almagest.* Supposing the editors would delete this proper name, I wrote no description, and that in the text is continued from the Imperial Dictionary. It is substantially that of Hutton. I took into consideration the alteration of it in the plates, but, after turning over the Almagest itself with this view, decided to retain it. Prof. Newcomb makes two objections to the description—first, that it contains no account of the Ptolemaic system, but that would have been ill-placed here; and, second, that the work contains no problems in geometry and astronomy, as stated, which seems hypercritical when we call to mind the treatise on trigonometry in the first book, and when we reflect that the astronomical memoirs of which the work consists are properly enough called problems. The reason given for the name, though not objected to by Prof. Newcomb, is slightly incorrect.

(5.) *Anomaly.* This definition, perhaps the first I wrote in astronomy, I certainly cannot defend. Besides containing a blunder remarked by Prof. Newcomb, the whole is awkwardly drawn up, the applicability of the name "anomaly" is not explained, nor the mode of reckoning it used by Kepler and his followers before Gauss. I hope I may be able in some way to replace the article by another prepared according to my usual method, being based on an examination (1) of Ptolemy, (2) of Kepler (who defines the eccentric anomaly, a term due to him, very clearly as "arcus circuli eccentrici, in consequentia numeratus interceptusque inter lineam apsidum et inter perpendicularem illi per corpus planetæ"), (3) of Gauss, and (4) of a series of English writers.

C. S. PEIRCE.

MILFORD, PA., June 14, 1889.

THE SOUTH FORK FISHING CLUB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on the Conemaugh disaster is the clearest and most direct summing up of the situation in the wrecked valley that has been made. But there are facts concerning the men who belong to the South Fork Fishing Club which, when made known to you, will assuredly modify your judgment of their responsibility for the disaster. Having so severely condemned them, I trust that you will, with your customary fairness, make the following facts known about them.

Pittsburgh men have always ranked high for their incorruptible integrity and hatred of wrong-doing, and the men who belong to this club are foremost among these. There are no men in the land with a more intelligent and finer moral sense—none who, as members of society, know and do their duty more conscientiously to their fellow-men—none who seek their welfare with a more generous self-sacrifice. They are all engaged in large business enterprises successfully and righteously carried on, and they are conscientiously and practically trying to solve the perplexing problems involved in the struggle between capital and labor. They are not only good citizens and earnest, moral business men, but they are high-toned Christian gentlemen. They became members of the South Fork Fishing Club, not as selfish sportsmen, but merely to secure a quiet, pleasant, and accessible summer resort for their families. If they are at all responsible for this horrible destruction and woe, it can only be because they are not educated civil engineers, and have consequently been obliged to accept the statements of those who are as to the safety of the dam. They will go mourning all their days that they were remotely connected with this unparalleled disaster. They have worked night and day since, with head and heart and hand, pouring out money like water to relieve the suffering—for which they have been unjustly held responsible.

Hundreds in Pittsburgh will confirm this testimony as the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. Please let it be known wherever the *Nation* is read.—Respectfully,

E. C. V.

CINCINNATI, June 12, 1889.

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Dana does not need to be told that I am entirely in sympathy with the civil-service reformers, and have the deepest admiration for the energy, devotion, and persistence which they have put into their work. Nor have I said that the Civil-Service Commission was a failure as yet. The main charge is, that in the part of the civil service outside of the examinations, say four-fifths of the whole, the spoils system is just as rampant as it ever was. And what security is there for the rest? It may be assumed, if actions speak only as loud as words, that a large majority of Congress, all the Cabinet, and the President regard the reformed system with contempt and dislike. It will be starved and hampered in every possible way short of actual repeal. The Civil-Service Commission is a perfectly irresponsible body, outside of Congress and the Executive and of the public view. It can be reached only through a Congressional committee of inquiry, which, it is safe to say, would never do much to promote its efficiency. Like all commissions—the worst possible way of doing administrative work—it consists of several members, none of whom, no matter how hard he may work, can gain any credit, or, however bad he may be, will get any special share of blame—conditions not calculated to make the place attractive to first-class men. Its members are appointed by the President. If the political machine can compel him to make over the outside offices, why may it not compel him to do the same thing with the places on the Commission, and so deliver the entire system into the hands of the Philistines? In fact, the whole thing is in a condition of unstable equilibrium, a pyramid balanced on its point, requiring constant and unremitting watchfulness.

Mr. Dana refers to the English reformed system. That was established, once for all, thirty years ago. They do not have to keep up an elaborate organization, with journals and meetings, to keep the system going. Nobody ever pays any attention to it at all. The examinations are merely a question of detail. If the offices were filled by lot from the citizens of the United States, with tenure during good behavior, it might not give the best possible civil service, but it would be an equally perfect cure for the spoils system. The keynote of effective reform is how to keep off the hands of party politicians, and that is done in England by personal responsibility on the part of the appointing power, so that if one of the Ministry makes a slip, the lash descends with a promptness and force which serve as an effective deterrent to others.

While admitting the advantage of Cabinet responsibility, Mr. Dana has grave doubts as to how it can be brought about. Why, by exactly the same process which obtained the Civil-Service Commission—outside agitation. The Scripture compares the kingdom of heaven to a pearl of great price, to possess which a man would sell all that he hath. If it is true that the basis of all reform with us must be an improvement in administrative methods, then the way is to give up agitation of all sorts of details and go straight for the one thing needful. And this particular thing has an equipment at starting which I doubt if civil-service or any other reform measure has possessed, namely, a scheme complete both in principle and detail, bearing the unanimous endorsement of a committee of the United States Senate, consisting of eight members of both parties.

G. B.

BOSTON, June 15, 1889.

THE NATIONALIST CLUB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may aid in the clear comprehension of the leading editorial in the last *Nation* if it is explained that the "Nationalist Club" of Boston has the following provision in its Constitution:

"There shall be two classes of members, active and associate. Active membership shall be open to all persons who believe in the nationalization of industry. Associate membership shall be open to all persons who believe in the nationalization of any special industry not already under the control of the nation. Associate members shall have all the rights and privileges of active members, except the right to vote."

It is only as an associate member that the undersigned, for instance, is connected with the Nationalist Club; and the same is the case, probably, with the Rev. E. E. Hale, whom you also mention. There are a good many persons, I take it, who have reached just this point of conviction—namely, to hold that, if the Government carries on the post-office fairly well, as it certainly does, it may well undertake the telegraph also, as in England; that if it can conduct a bankrupt railroad, through a "receiver," it could also carry on a successful one; that if a city can supply its inhabitants with water, it might as well try the experiment of supplying them with gas. How far this tendency is to go, such persons do not undertake to say—and here they stop short of Mr. Bellamy and his thorough supporters; but in the meantime they are willing and glad to put themselves on record as looking in that same direction. They find themselves confronted with a situation which has nowhere been better stated than by a strong opponent of State

Socialism, Prof. A. T. Hadley of Yale University. He says, in the *Political Science Quarterly* for December, 1888: "Modern life demands organized business action. There are two great organizations, either one of which can manage it—organized capital, or organized government." If this be the real alternative, there is certainly an increasing number of persons who would prefer to trust the Government. This is, at any rate, the present writer's inclination. T. W. HIGGINSON.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 14, 1889.

PROPER NAMES IN DIFFERENT LANGUAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Does there exist an interlingual dictionary of proper names, or anything at all equivalent to it? Such a thing would be very convenient for readers who have to follow the study of history through two or three languages. It may take a tyro some time to find out that Dietrich and Thierry are Theodoric, or that Hlodowig, Chlodwig, Clovis, Louis, Lewis, and Ludwig are all the same Protean name—to say nothing of such geographical puzzles as Bois-le-Duc and Herzogenbusch; and when he does learn these things it is almost by accident. Even the practised student is apt to be tripped at any time by some travesty which he has forgotten or missed. The lists of proper names given in the ordinary dictionaries go but very little way, and are at most bilingual, so that they are of no scholastic value.

Yours very truly, L.

18 HUNTINGTON AVENUE, BOSTON, June 8, 1889.

[At the end of 'Lippincott's Biographical Dictionary' is a "Vocabulary of Christian Names" which measurably supplies what our correspondent calls for. For fuller information about personal names he should consult Dr. G. Michaelis's 'Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der gebräuchlichsten Taufnamen' (Berlin, 1856, 72 pp., 8vo); and for Latin names of places use Dr. J. G. T. Graesse's 'Orbis Latinus, oder Verzeichniss der lateinischen Benennungen der bekanntesten Städte, etc., nebst ein deutsch-lat. Register' (Dresden, 1861, 287 pp., 8vo). A. Franklin's 'Dictionnaire des noms, surnoms, et pseudonymes latins de l'histoire littéraire du Moyen Âge' (Paris, 1875, 683 pp., 8vo), covers perhaps too limited a field for our correspondent.—ED. NATION.]

"ELECTRA" AT SMITH COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Senior Class of Smith College gave the second of its two representations of the "Electra" of Sophocles on Saturday evening, June 15. The audience on the preceding Tuesday had been mainly of the college undergraduates and teachers and students of Greek; on Saturday only the minority felt a distinct interest in the language itself. The double test was a severe one. For Tuesday, the actors thought nervously of their "lines," and wondered apprehensively what theories of pronunciation or of quantity might be applied to their performance. On Saturday, they almost regretted that the judgment of their earlier and dreaded critics had been so uniformly kindly and even enthusiastic, as each expression had added to an expectation on the part of the new hearers that must be made good, if possible. In the first effort they naturally relied upon sympathy with their earnest desire of reproducing something of the Greek spirit, of embodying its wonderful conception of the drama to compensate for mechanical deficiencies; but in the second they felt from the first that there would be a strenuous demand for interpretation through dramatic action, and that the Greek tragedy which it had been the work of a year to appreciate might translate itself to the audience as lack of action. What were *Electra's* pious indignation if the audience yawned? But the audience did *not* yawn, and the general impression is that the second performance was both smoother and more spirited than the first.

The scenery was painted by members of the committee, and helped materially in producing an impression of grave simplicity. Doctor Blodgett's musical setting of the choral odes enabled the chorus to perform its double function of emphasizing the action of the principal characters and of supplying a distinct æsthetic element. Some knowledge of the difficulties experienced in other attempts to render Greek plays suggested great caution in the introduction of tableaus and chorus movements. Without the help of an instant comprehension of the language of the speakers, the action in a Greek play, even more than in a German or an Italian opera, hovers on the brink of the ridiculous. One giggle hopelessly dispels the tragic atmosphere as far as the laugher is concerned. The success of the chorus in Northampton was marked; few persons could have left the Opera-house either night without a clearer understanding of its functions.

There are two kinds of criticism which the performance must meet, one involving its character as a dramatic effort, the other testing its value as a factor in education. In meeting the first, it must be remembered that youth, inexperience, and a predominatingly intellectual training are not the customary equipment for great histrionic successes. Nor is it usual to find twenty-eight dramatic geniuses among fifty schoolgirls. And such, literally, is the demand made by the peculiar structure of a Greek play, which requires that silence shall speak, and spirit make itself felt through form rather than through motion. The severe criticism of Mr. Frank Sargent would find the results of his own training hardly more than creditable. But what is such an effort when looked at as a piece of discipline? Some of the actors would say that they did not know what work or scholarship meant before they took part in a Greek play. With humorous exaggeration, they will tell you that a clear conscience is inseparable from "elasticity of the joints," and that the one thing more difficult for an American girl than to walk slowly is to stand still. The practical conduct of a Greek play has involved a thousand problems and suggested thousands more. The necessity of individual responsibility, the importance of discipline in the ranks, the moral significance of what the English-speaking people on this side of the Atlantic call "making connections," have all received new emphasis. Besides, most of the actors are supplied with Greek quotations for the rest of their lives.

But, quite apart from these practical considerations, there is something to be gained from a year's study of a masterpiece simply because it is a masterpiece. There is no more fatal blunder than the assumption that effort is best expended where success is within reach. The "Electra" of Sophocles is possibly beyond the powers of any undergraduates, but those powers are likely to be indefinitely greater than if a society play had been given to the perfect satisfaction of the audience. The disciplinary value of afternoon teas and evening promenades needs no emphasis from colleges. The scornful question, "Is it worth while to attempt impossible things for the reward contained in the comment, 'As well as could be expected'?" punctuated with a shrug, misrepresents all the ambitions of such work as is under consideration. Shrugs are completely out of place and very infrequent, but if they were universal, the work would still be worth doing. But in particular cases the great problem is to know what it is wise to attempt. Here the class has been fortunate in having at hand the taste and judgment of Prof. Tyler, who has insisted upon simplicity, dignity, and moral impressiveness. In problems of scholarship connected with the undertaking, he has counselled moderation. Consequently the work has been relieved of the burden of discussion about pitch and accent and rival methods of Greek pronunciation. The aim has been to speak the lines intelligently and sympathetically, and in accordance with the received standards of Greek scholarship in the United States. O. R.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., June 16, 1889.

THERSITES REDIVIVUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Is a Soldier's Life worth Living?" On this thesis Lord Wolseley has recently been delivering himself, and in a tone the monopoly of which by certain British fire-eaters, alone among those whose native speech is English, will excite no envy. For this tone we were fully prepared by more than one of His Bellicosity's previous utterances; and the conclusion, affirmative, but strictly for domestic adoption, which, at vast expense of wordy bluster, he has elaborated is, also, precisely such as might have been reckoned on. His creed is one of engaging simplicity: militarism, and that only, is the antiseptic which can save the United Kingdom from putrefying. By way of exercise, let fancy figure a man to whom sensibility is mawkishness; who ignores, save with sinister aspect, everything but his own countrymen and their interests; and whose professional egotism contemplates with acrid contempt nearly all occupations except his own. That a man of this stamp, if essentially an amateur in real warfare, and unlessoned in the mystery of reasoning, should, on betaking himself to inkshed, comfort himself mostly as a clamorous swashbuckler, is hardly other than a matter of obvious consequence. In the category of morbid developments, a phenomenon of this complexion, particularly as a contemporary fact, is somewhat noteworthy. Let us inspect it, then, a little narrowly.

The day, we take it, has well nigh gone by when any one who forms his opinions more independently than by proxy, pays much regard to what Mr. Ruskin may think good to enunciate, especially in his excursions beyond the province of art. Laying it down, that "it is only by seriously risking his life in daring deeds, that the soldier can expect to appreciate fully how much a soldier's life is worth living," Lord Wolseley, however, repeats, with approval, his dictum, in much the same strain: "All healthy men like fighting, and like the sense of danger. All brave women like to hear of their fighting, and of their facing danger." Difference from him, as in taste, so in anything else, we are aware that Mr. Ruskin accounts a proof of imbecility, if not incompatible with sanity; and argument with an all-round autocrat would rank, for preposterousness, with his own dogmatism. Yet, in passing, we may indicate, as being eminently characteristic, his avowed

predilection for men who like fighting, and for women who like to hear of their fighting; objects which savages, barbarians, and those who copy after them are usually supposed to be peculiar in admiring. Characteristic, likewise, is his implied position, that the welfare of our species is promoted by encouraging his favorites in the indulgence of their appetite for violence. Nor less characteristic, once more, is his notion, that to like the sense of danger distinguishes all healthy men, while to like to hear of their facing danger distinguishes all brave women. Estimated by this advanced ethical teaching, with its exaltation of mauleys and viragoes, miserable samples of their kind are the poor-spirited creatures, male and female alike, who are content to hear, when danger has to be encountered, that it is encountered without flinching and in a spirit of self-sacrifice. Meantime, the healthy men whom we have seen represented as normal, though they are spoken of, by poetic license, as existent, as yet, to the general comfort, disport themselves in the future; so that these denizens of the Ruskinian Utopia need not discompose us. For the rest, as to the brave women whose partiality has been revealed to the philosopher who applauds them, that they should desire their mates to be imperilled, in the hope, not altogether unjustifiable, of getting rid of them, couid hardly be wondered at.

But we have noticed the quotation from Mr. Ruskin chiefly because of what the prancing stepson of Mars, to whom its doctrine seems so axiomatic, immediately appends to it. For, according to him, "No doubt there are thousands of our soldiers who do like war simply for the many healthy pleasures it brings with it." If the facts of the case were far to seek, this intrepid demand on credulity would be intelligible.

Few can stand in need of information relative to the ordinary English soldier. In him we have the dregs of the most degraded class of the populace; and it suffices him that, in the career he chooses, he expects a life of comparative idleness, a sufficiency of food and above all of drink, and a certainty of wages. Matchless as he may be in the article of inbred ferocity, his courage, like his muscle, is inferior to that of any of his social betters. How little he is improved, otherwise than as an implement of destruction, by military discipline, is notorious; the hospitals and courts of justice instructing us as to his demeanor and diversions when not directly under the eye of his superiors. That, as we are told, there are many healthy pleasures annexed to his calling, and that, simply for these, thousands of his fellows like war, is palpably fictitious. As a rule, he detests those things in his life which conduce to his health, while the pleasures which he prizes are, all but wholly, of the most debased and debasing description. And among these pleasures is that which, let Wolseleyites view it as they will, marks the nearest human resemblance to the brute creation. How ardently the titled essayist sympathizes with a zest for phlebotomy is patent from the unvarying tenor of his truculent rhapsody. Of the *œstrus* of a soldier in the breach he says: "It is truly an education to feel that even this vile body of ours can be thus illumined, for the instant, as with a spark of fire that must surely be of heavenly birth." The quality of the religionism here disclosed admits of only one interpretation. The gospel of Moloch, if we had it, would, doubtless, turn out to be conceived in some such vein as this masquerading heathenism. Taken at its very best, are we not authorized in paralleling the inspiration of a soldier in action with that which stimulates the matador in a bull-fight? Be this how it may, neither Moses, nor Solomon, nor Jesus, nor, so far as we have learned, any prophet before our own day, has inculcated its celestial origin.

Elsewhere we read: "All other pleasures pale before the intense, the maddening delight of leading men into the midst of an enemy, or to the assault of some well-defended place. That rapturous enjoyment takes man out of himself, to the forgetfulness of all earthly considerations. He is, for the time, beside himself, and, as it were, a creature of another world, acting under influences unknown before." Here the officer, not the private, is the subject. But he, too, we are assured, when engaged in his slaughterous work, is rapt with delirious ecstasy, and naturally so, if, as is intimated, he is a passive tool in the hands of a Higher Power, and is oblivious of everything except the future bliss which he believes will reward his supernal frenzy. "Yea, Carnage is His daughter," sang the Tory Wordsworth, premising the name of God; and now our course is made plain to us, if we would be adopted as His sons.

The thoroughness of his touch with the rude spirit of an unregretted past Lord Wolseley leaves no room to gainsay. "In order that man should learn to despise 'the manly art of self-defence,' a new idol has been created for this modern philosophy, the idol of human life. Every practice that can in any way tend to endanger life or limb must be condemned." After thus simultaneously outraging verity and disparaging what every rational being holds dear, he goes on to sneer at the "maudlin philosophy" which legislates with a view to put down prize-fighting, a philosophy which, to his thinking, "strikes at the foundations upon which great nations are built, and from which spring the manly strength and courage of their sons." With him, during the reign of Lord Tennyson's "canker of peace," "manly strength and courage" are sheer phantoms, apart from their realization in what all but the outcasts of society and their shameless abettors view with abhorrence. Fighting, we should judge, he holds to be the supreme good of existence. Who knows, indeed, that he will not next recommend, as the model for our pusillanimous age, his compatriot of Donnybrook Fair, Phelim of the trailing coat, with his general invitation just to tread on the tail of it? At any rate, the fact that, on a point of decorum and morality, a nobleman of the Victorian era should obtrusively elect to associate himself with Whitechapel bruisers and the emptyings of prisons, may be, for Great Britain, a sign of the times, though we prefer to believe that his choice of companionship only betokens an abnormal idiosyncrasy.

Summarily, we have seen it asserted that, not till he seriously risks his existence, and experiences the transport of doing so, does a soldier come to understand to the full that his life is worth living. At the same time, as has also been asserted, thousands of his comrades (by implication weaker brethren) are enamoured of their calling "simply for the many healthy pleasures it brings with it,"—that is to say, on a ground purely imaginary. But, for all together, there is another reason, it is alleged, for their being content with their lot.

> "To the boy the admiration of his schoolfellows is far more subtle flattery than the applause of those he does not know. And so it is with soldiers. Although the first thought of the British soldier, after an action, is, 'What will they say in England?' still the esteem and praise of comrades are more valued by him than the acclamations of fickle mobs and the accurately measured praise of ministers. Surely, therefore, life presents itself, to the soldier in action, under an aspect specially calculated to make it worth living."

Thus, the identity between "an action" bygone and one present being a riddle abandoned as insoluble, though at first the red-coat who has not shown the white feather is satisfied with anticipating the favorable verdict of Mrs. Grundy, he is, on second thoughts, still more satisfied with the approbation of his fellows. And similar approbation is highly welcome, no doubt, to the cracksman or the thimblerigger. That a soldier who has acquitted himself as was fitting ought to feel cheered by the consciousness that he has done his duty, is observably left unnoticed, and so is the desirableness of cultivating such a consciousness. Is Lord Wolseley of opinion that the fighting efficiency of a soldier would be impaired by his postponing a value for fleeting popularity to anything more elevated?

Further reasons than those which have been specified for the answer which Lord Wolseley returns to his interrogatory are undiscoverable in his rambling and incoherent declamation. Of argument he is, in fact, as sparing as if the business before him were to wield his sword. The emphasis of iteration, as in dealing with an enemy of flesh and blood, is his chief dependence, over and above bravado, for enforcing surrender:

> "Yes, the soldier's life is worth living. But, to believe in this, you must expel from its supreme place, among the recognized objects of existence, that greed of gain which seems now to have fastened, like a cancerous sore, upon most of the professions and callings of men outside the Army, the Navy, and the Church. This mad and restless longing for wealth at any price, and for the luxury wealth can purchase, is eating away the manly heart of the English nation. It has become a religion, with its apostles and its writers, aye, even with its poets."

The monstrous falseness and the frontless insolence of this must be evident to any one not entirely ignorant of English society at the present day. Curiously exceptional is the Englishman who ever thinks of entering either the Army, the Navy, or the established Church, as a serious profession, if he has ability for any other occupation, or industry, or interest, or capital. One may well smile, too, at the idea that, among those who follow the vocations which are found selected as being alone reputable, there is a whit less self-seeking than among lawyers, physicians, scientists, artists, teachers, men of letters, dissenting ministers, Romish ecclesiastics, and most other educated classes of the community. No one, proverbially, more than the questionable pretender to martial skill and prowess is liable to the imputation of swaggering boastfulness and gratuitous effrontery. Not without reason is this reminder here provoked. Except for the sinews of war provided by the objects of his disdain, where would have been Lord Wolseley's opportunities for magnifying himself, and the fruits of his utilizing those opportunities? Yet, from his language touching civilians, it is clear that, far from being grateful to them, he regards even veracity of description and the commonest courtesy as in excess of their deserts. Moreover, can it be denied that, with the British officer in war-time, the wish that is uppermost is for casualties which will lead to quick promotion and the emolument thereto attached? *Quod scimus loquimur et quod vidimus testamur.*

To what extent Lord Wolseley has still to acquire customary urbanity in his commerce with the world has been evidenced, since he spent his contempt as above, in the course of a lecture delivered by him at Oxford.

Nor, on that occasion, was he untrue to his habit of resorting to calumnious invention. To confine ourselves, however, for exemplification of his fertility in romancing, to his discourse under review, after signifying his scorn of "these metallic, supercivilized days," he is there pleased to fable a bran-new tribe of fribbling cynics, in the shape of depreciators of Nelson. About five and twenty years ago, an eccentric English journalist, claiming to have found out that the memory of the hero of the Nile and of Trafalgar was held in marked veneration by Americans, laboured to show that, therefore, his countrymen must be grievously mistaken in their estimation of him. Building on this circumstance, Lord Wolseley would have it credited that "some now even profess to sneer at the homeliness of the unaffected manhood which enabled him to scatter hostile fleets, and make England a word of victory, and renown, and fear, on every sea her war-ships swept." A fabrication of this sort is suggestive, as is, withal, his designating, with the animus of a purblind Tory, the services, in the War of Secession, of a valued contingent of our soldiers of the North, as only "a daily pastime." And nearly akin to his disregard of facts are the transparent unreality and insincerity which suffuse his heroics generally. A few specimens of these, feigned to express the feelings of the British man at arms, or else addressed to him, are here subjoined:

"Looking at existence purely from a soldier's point of view, it is incomprehensible how men can care to live, when honour, the salt of life, is no longer one of its recognized ingredients."

"A determination to do our duty by the nation, come what may, and under all circumstances, is a noble resolve, that lifts man out of the slough of selfishness, where so many millions live, and are content to die."

"But, at his most unhappy moment of hunger, thirst, and wretchedness, when nearly exhausted by fatigue and want of sleep, he brightens up as he remembers that it is for England he suffers."

"All that is best and noblest in man is cradled in the love of home and country. From it springs that martial glory without which no nation can be great or last long. But, for this true glory, which, like the forest-tree, takes root and spreads, the nation must pay in blood, the blood of her bravest sons."

"Your country's glory is no mere sentimental, intangible possession. It is a considerable part of its greatness and strength; and he who can add to the fighting reputation of England does her a service worth living to attempt, worth dying to accomplish."

But we must have done with the fustian and rant of the reigning Brummagem Wellington. Sooth to say, he rather reminds one of a termagant in cocked hat and jack-boots, who goes up and down the earth in hysterics, disturbing quiet folk by obstreperous protests of her bravery, and honour, and readiness to give up the ghost for it, and all that. Though soldiership, as we ourselves had experience not very long ago, is sometimes a cruel and imperious necessity, no person instinct with genuine humanity could eulogize it, for itself, and as an end, as he has done. However a ruder age might have sympathized with his heartless and hectoring mood, and lust for self-aggrandizement, the charities of enlightenment, where it is more than a name, revolt from them with detestation. If England is particularly proud of him, there is just ground why civilization should not be particularly proud of England. Of rare occurrence is the self-exhibition of a man who acknowledges, as he virtually does, that the world would be, to him, an insipid waste, if there were no longer any one to kill.

F. H.

Notes.

T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s current announcements are 'Paying the Penalty' and 'Three Times Tried'—six short stories in each volume, by G. Manville Fenn, B. L. Farjeon, Grant Allen, etc.; and 'Impressions of Russia,' by Dr. Georg Brandes.

Mr. George H. Jessop, who recently contributed to the *Century* a series of Irish-American stories, has written a novel, 'Judge Lynch, a Tale of the California Vineyards,' which will be published shortly in London by Longmans & Co., and in New York by Belford, Clarke & Co. Miss May Kendall, a young English poetess of more individuality and humor than most magazine versifiers, has also written her first novel, 'Such is Life,' which is to be issued this month both in London and New York by the Longmans.

Frederick Warne & Co. publish directly 'Fifty Years on the Trail: a True Story of Western Life,' by John Y. Nelson and Harrington O'Reilly.

'A School Iliad, with Vocabulary,' edited by Prof. T. D. Seymour of Yale, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston. The vocabulary will be illustrated with cuts. The same firm announce a 'Practical Latin Composition,' by that able instructor, W. C. Collar, Master of the Roxbury (Mass.) Latin School.

It is said that Miss Elizabeth Balch, an American, is the ingenious author of 'An Author's Love,' which we lately reviewed.

The Committee on Old South Prizes, at the Old South Meeting-house, Boston, offer two prizes for essays by graduates of the Boston High and Latin Schools of 1888 and 1889. The themes proposed are as follows, and we take the liberty of thinking them much too ambitious for boys and girls of seventeen to eighteen: "(1.) French Influence on American Political Thought during the Period of the American and French Revolutions. (2.) Washington's Interest in Education. Discuss especially his project of a National University."

If ever a book deserved to be called a library in itself, it is the British 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature for 1889' (London: J. Whitaker & Sons; New York: R. R. Bowker). It is the analogue of our American 'Publishers' Trade List Annual,' and consists of the various booksellers' catalogues bound in one pair of covers. It is a duodecimo measuring ten inches across the back, the octavo form being the preferred American. The surprising feature of it, after the size, is the Index of 404 pages, which omits no book, and sometimes enters a book three times, under title, subject, and author's name. As this is not merely a directory to new publications, but covers the entire list of the British book-trade, its importance can readily be imagined. Moreover, it embraces a large number of American works published abroad with or without convention. There are twenty-seven different publications pertaining to Longfellow, for example; and it is an odd circumstance that Lowell's list is introduced thus, "Lowell, Hydraulics," and Emerson's, "Emerson (Jas.), Waterwheels." Poe is more popular than either of these last, or than Hawthorne. Four firms contest the market for Cooper's works, three for Mark Twain's. The classification of the Index is very helpful. Shakspere fills nearly a page, and stands, shall we say? for one 400th part of so much of current Anglo-Saxon literature as is contained in this Catalogue.

Two American firms have laid hands on Bourrienne's 'Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte,' reprinting the 1885 reimpression of the 1836 English edition; and the impecunious book-buyer awaiting his chance has now an excellent opportunity to purchase this work at a low figure. Both that published by the Messrs. Scribner and that by T. Y. Crowell & Co. are neatly bound, in styles appealing to different tastes. Both are in four volumes—the Scribner being smaller and employing a smaller type for the extracts; the more legible of the two editions as respects the body type, since the paper is unglazed and the impression darker. It requires somewhat more shelf-room, though not much. The portraits are poor in both, the Scribners resorting to process reproductions of steel engravings, while Crowell & Co. have been at the expense of woodcuts which hardly justify the effort to excel in this respect. The one incontestable feature of superiority on the part of the Crowell edition is the index, which fills thirty-four pages. With many purchasers this will be decisive, and it certainly deserves such a recognition as will lead all publishers of similar works to supply the defect of English editors and publishers.

A society called The Haliburton was established five years ago at King's College, Windsor, N. S., with a view to furthering "in some degree the development of a distinctive literature in Canada." It now begins a series of annual publications with an essay on Thomas Chandler Haliburton, by F. Blake Crofton (prepared, by the way, for the Nova Scotia Historical Society). A portrait on wood of the creator of "Sam Slick," from a photograph taken at the age of sixty, is prefixed to the pamphlet. Mr. Crofton begins by correcting numerous errors concerning Judge Haliburton in Allibone, the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' and other sources; and then corrects this author himself in his remarks upon the expulsion of the Acadians, which had their influence upon Longfellow. A character in Haliburton's latest work, 'The Season Ticket,' which was published anonymously, is Senator Boodle, who seems to need no introduction to our generation; but this worthy gentleman was simply a prophet of Colonial confederation, an intercolonial and Pacific railway. Mr. Crofton finds the proverbial expression, "all same old drunk," in Haliburton's 'The Old Judge,' and provisionally makes him the originator of it, as well as of "How much are you sorry? [reckoned in cash for relief]," Topsy's "I growed up," etc. There is an index to this entertaining pamphlet.

Two other historical brochures are on our table: a 'Narrative of the Captivity of Stephen Williams,' who was taken by the French and Indians at Deerfield, February 29, 1703-4, written by himself; and an Address delivered before the Confederate Survivors' Association in Augusta, on April 26, by Col. Charles C. Jones, jr., on "Georgians during the War between the States." The first publication we owe to the Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association. It has been edited by George Sheldon, and printed at Deerfield, Mass. The narrator was a son of Rev. John Williams, "the redeemed captive," and lived to graduate at Harvard and to have a long and useful career as a minister and chaplain. The reprint is verbatim. An appendix copies some other papers of the diarist, which deal with Indian raids. Dr. Jones's address takes a pessimistic view of the present condition of Georgia as compared with that of ante-bellum days, alleging that, without estimating slave property, the State "is now poorer by more than twelve millions of dollars than she was twenty-nine years ago." He praises the fidelity and peaceableness of the slave population during the war.

Apropos of the Williams narrative just mentioned, we notice that the Deerfield Summer School of History and Romance will begin its fourth season on July 6. Clarence C. Buel, Prof. J. K. Hosmer, Edward Bellamy, Dr. T. M. Coan, Charles Dudley Warner, and Edwin D. Mead are some of those who will read papers. Communications should be addressed to the President, Mr. L. J. B. Lincoln.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June opens with an account, by H. B. Guppy, of the Cocos-Keeling Islands, a group lying about six hundred miles south of Sumatra. They are especially interesting as having been visited by Mr. Darwin in 1836, who founded his theory of subsidence upon his observations of a large atoll contained in them. Mr. Guppy spent ten weeks among the islands, examining them with particular reference to determining whether this or the rival theory of Mr. John Murray of the *Challenger* Expedition is correct. The author's conclusions, well known to be adverse to Darwin's, are deferred to a subsequent paper. The advantages of the islands as a sanitarium, from their comparatively cool and equable climate and small rainfall, are dwelt upon, and interesting facts in regard to the growth of the land are given. Great masses of pumice, for instance, thrown into the sea by the eruption of Krakatoa in 1883, have floated to their shores, which "have in many places advanced from twenty to thirty yards; and young trees, such as *Cordia subcordata*, together with young cocoanut palms, now grow where the waters stood then." The islands, it may be added, are the property of a Mr. G. C. Ross, the grandson of a Scotch seaman who took possession of them some sixty years ago. They are now attached to the Government of Ceylon. A paper on the rainfall in South America south of the tropics, by Mr. W. B. Tripp, is illustrated by an admirable map. The various data are derived from the Meteorological Annals of the Cordoba Observatory. The most noteworthy fact is the great increase of the rainfall in the Argentine Republic from a maximum of 32 inches in 1861 to 48 inches in 1883. There are indications, however, that a time of correspondingly gradual decrease has already set in. Mr. H. R. Mill shows in a popular way the relations of a scientific knowledge of the earth to commerce.

The Messrs. Longmans' *New Review* is out for June, and has an open, attractive appearance, which is not diminished by the relative slenderness of its ninety-six pages of text. Two ladies are on the list of contributors—Mrs. Lynn Linton, with her "Religion of Self-Respect," and Lady Randolph Churchill, who tells of her month in Russia. Boulanger's case, by Senator Alfred Naquet, and impeachment, by Deputy Camille Pelletan, lead off on opposite sides. Mr. Henry James's paper, "After the Play," connects itself with that unique French creation, the "Théâtre Libre," which opens the way to aspiring dramatists, safe alike from the censor and from the criticism of the public at large.

Students of modern Greek may like to hear of a new philological review in that language, Ἀθήνα, which B. Westermann & Co. supply in this country.

The thirty-seventh annual report of the Trustees of the Boston Public Library is noticeable chiefly for the experiment in regard to binding, by which the present arrangement has been reached of giving only the costly binding to the Library's own force, and having the cheaper done outside. A quarto supplement to the report gives plans and elevations of the new building now in process of erection.

Mr. W. E. Foster, in his eleventh annual report on the Providence Public Library, points to the lowest percentage in the use of fiction ever known in his experience—hardly more than half the total use (57 per cent.). One-fifth of the books called for, he says, are now scientific, one-fifth historical, and three-fifths literary.

The Warren County Library Bulletin, published at Monmouth, Ill., states that "magazines were the beginning of this library. They constituted for two years our entire 'circulating medium.'" The demands thus engendered for books were made the guide in stocking the library, and "in its general department, therefore, this library has aimed to be as learned and as popular, as liberal and as orthodox, as grave and as gay, as the best popular magazines." Further on we read: "A list of the very best new books on farming, gardening, fruit, flowers, poultry, etc., is given at the end of this Bulletin. A table supplied with periodicals, seed catalogues, and gardeners' annuals is in the reading-room."

In the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library at Florence for May 15 we read of the new card-catalogue of its collection of autographs in preparation. The entries are by writer, recipient, or subject (personal). The letters, each of which has its own printed and docketed wrapper, have thus far been catalogued to the number of 10,000, on 32,000 cards.

—The fourth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' cannot be far from overtaking us before we have paid our respects to the third (Catarrh to Dion. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). China and Cotton are the fullest articles in the present instalment, and perhaps the article attempting a systematic exposition of the Darwinian Theory ranks next in point of length. This is by Prof. Patrick Geddes, while the life of Darwin is sketched by Mr. Grant Allen. A Frenchman, E. de Pressensé, has been intrusted with the definition of Christianity, and has produced rather an apologia than a simple, historical statement of the nature and development of this religion. The article reads like a sermon, and is in marked contrast with Mr. Thisleton Dyer's brief account of Christmas, which follows it a page or two later. The writer who has to deal with the Devil makes him out to be nearly dead; at least—"In later generations the sense of the supernatural has steadily decayed, and with it almost all the terrors of the devil." In the employment of specialists, the editors have in no instance surpassed their selection of one to write on Cremation, for they append a note saying that "while this volume was passing through the press, the author of the above article died, and his body was cremated at Woking." Prof. James Geikie discourses of Coral Islands, and fairly sets forth the latest stage of the controversy over Darwin's theory of their origin. Mr. H. B. Wheatley gives a good summary description of Chapbooks, which he says are still produced in England. The Duke of Argyll writes rather perfunctorily of the Clan. Sir F. de Winton tells with knowledge the main facts about the Congo Free State. None of the biographical notices are masterly. Prof. Hales's Chaucer stands near the front, but has too much conjecture in it. Prof. W. Knight writes sensibly of Coleridge. Goldwin Smith's Cromwell touches the burning Irish question in a way not likely to placate his Irish admirers. Daudet is sketched by G. Saintsbury, without excess of praise, and Dickens by Walter Besant, who ignores the novelist's touring on the Continent and in America, barely mentioning the 'American Notes' in a list of his works. The American portion of the 'Encyclopædia' shows no signs of neglect, but the contrary. Colorado, Connecticut, and Dakota are illustrated by three maps, and the division of this Territory into two States is recorded. A chapter on our civil service ends with a just picture of improvement within the scope of the beneficent Civil-Service Law, which has "lessened the number of incompetent politicians who thrive upon the 'spoils system' applying for office."

—'Art and Artists of our Time' (Selmar Hess), of which the first sixteen instalments are before us, is made up in the manner of most such publications. The pictures engraved are evidently selected for their popularity rather than for their merit, and, the publisher having thus insured his sales, the critic is allowed to say what he pleases in the text. The worst painters are dismissed with amiable commonplace or damned with faint praise, and all severe criticism is reserved for men of the first rank whom the writer considers worthy of his steel. There is a full-page line engraving after Coomans which was too "pretty" to leave out, and accordingly Mr. Clarence Cook, the editor, manages to fill thirteen lines about the artist. On the other hand, when Mr. Cook devotes between eight and nine pages to serious writing about Millet, the publisher allows him a few small and indifferent process plates scattered through the text. Baudry, whom Mr. Cook hardly sufficiently admires, but whom he treats with respect, is given only two insignificant cuts, and De Nittis, whom he admires greatly, but one; while the painters of "sentiment" and namby-pamby are given all the glory of plate paper and wide margins. The criticisms are written almost entirely from the literary point of view, with hardly a word as to technical methods or merits, judgment being rendered in every case upon the subjects chosen or the manner of presentation. It is perhaps wise for the lay critic to take this ground, but it seems strange in a book professedly dealing with painting to find no word that could indicate to the uninitiate the difference of technique between Corot and Ingres. Many of the plates are second-hand, and those made specially for the present publication are not more than mediocre.

—An account of a journey over the Transcaspian Railway by the Hon. G. Curzon, M.P., in the May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, is of more than common interest. After a brief sketch of the history of the undertaking, Mr. Curzon gives a few details as to the construction. The roadway, a low earthwork or embankment, was made by native workmen, of whom the Turkomans proved the best laborers and the Persians the worst, "being incurably idle, though strong as oxen." The plate-layers were picked soldiers of the Russian railway battalions, who laid sometimes "nearly four miles in the day," the normal rate being over two. It should be said, however, that the rails are "simply spiked down without chairs or bolts." The cost of the whole line from the Caspian to Samarkand, a distance of 900 miles, was a little over $20,000,000, one of the cheapest railways that have ever been constructed. This is owing partly to the uniform flatness of the region traversed, the steepest gradient encountered being only 1 in 150, and there being only three bridges to build; and partly to the cheapness of labor, the wages of the native workmen being at first eight cents, though ultimately sixteen cents, a day, while the skilled workmen were mostly soldiers. On the other hand, "every piece of timber, iron, and steel employed," including even the more than two million wooden sleep-

ers used, "was brought from the forests or workshops of Russia, for the most part down the Volga and across the Caspian." For the first 110 miles all the fresh water used has to be transported over the line in tanks; artesian wells and condensing machines having proved unsuccessful. To guard against drifting sands, palisades have been built and tamarisk, wild oats, *saxaoul*, and other desert plants have been brought from nurseries in the Persian mountains and planted along the line. All the fuel used, both for heating and light, is the refuse from distilled petroleum, found in the country itself and brought from Baku. "The tenders for this year specified the total amount required as 6,000,000 gallons." The rolling stock consists of from 100 to 150 locomotives and from 1,500 to 2,000 wagons. Trains run daily from the Caspian to the Oxus, and twice a week from that point to Samarkand, the cost of a second-class through ticket—there are no first-class carriages—being $18, and the time being seventy-two hours. The whole staff of employees, with a very few exceptions, are soldiers of the line.

—As regards the development of that part of Turkistan through which the line passes, Mr. Curzon does not speak very favorably, because of the scarcity of water. But his account of the great Merv oasis is very encouraging. "The whole district had been made over to the private purse of the Czar, and the result was that scientific engineers had been sent out; the great dam across the upper waters of the Murghab was being repaired; millions of young trees were being planted; cotton cultivation was being encouraged." Considered simply as a commercial enterprise, the railway, having been constructed so as to correspond with the principal caravan and trading routes, is a success. It is said already "to be defraying its working expenses, and whispers of a surplus have actually been heard." An important result, also, of the road, together with the heavy duties upon all foreign goods, is the almost total extinction of English trade in northern Central Asia. In its political effects, the construction of the railway means, according to Mr. Curzon, "the absolute and final Russification of the middle zone of Central Asia from Khorasan to Khiva, and from the Caspian to Samarkand." The military and strategical consequences of the line are too obvious to need mention.

—The *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* of Berlin publishes every year a summary of the world's railroad mileage, which is, on the whole, the most authoritative statement of its kind. The current number gives statistics for the close of the year 1887. At that period there were in round numbers 342,000 miles of railroad open for traffic. Of these America had 181,000, or more than half, Europe 130,000, Asia 17,000, Africa 5,000, and Australasia something over 9,000. Of the railroads in America, just about five-sixths were in the United States, which had 150,000 miles. British America had 12,000, and Brazil, Mexico, and the Argentine Republic from 4,000 to 5,000 each. Of the Asiatic railroads, over 14,000 miles were in British India; the Transcaspian railroad and those in the Dutch possessions being the most important among the others. China had practically no railroads in operation, but Japan had nearly 500 miles. In Africa the leading railroad system is that of the Cape Colony, with nearly 2,000 miles in operation. Egypt, Algiers, and Tunis also have considerable systems, but the central part of Africa is almost entirely undeveloped. The oldest Australasian systems are those of New South Wales, Victoria, and New Zealand, each of which now has about 2,000 miles of railroad. The other Australian colonies are beginning to develop rapidly. In Europe the country with the greatest absolute mileage is Germany, with nearly 25,000 miles, followed by France with 21,000, Great Britain with not quite 20,000, Russia with a little less than 18,000, and the Austrian Empire with 15,000. The country with the largest mileage in proportion to area is Belgium, which has in round numbers one mile of railroad for every four square miles of territory. England alone would probably have about the same proportion, but Great Britain and Ireland have only about one mile of railroad to every six square miles of territory. If the comparison is made with population, France has a slightly larger per-capita mileage than either England, Belgium, or Germany; but that of the United States is more than four times as high as France, while the showing in Australia is even a trifle better than ours.

—A striking thing about these statistics is the amount of increase in recent years. One-third of the railroad mileage in the table was constructed since the close of 1880, the increase in these seven years being not very much less than in the twenty years immediately preceding. Just about half of this increase has been contributed by the United States. The most rapid percentage of increase is of course found in the newest countries, like Australia. If we confine our comparisons to the last four years, we find that while Europe has increased only 13 per cent. and the United States 26 per cent., Australia shows a growth of about 48 per cent. The capital invested in railroads has probably not increased quite so fast as the mileage. A careful, although necessarily somewhat uncertain estimate, makes the average cost of railroads in Europe about $113,000 per mile, and that in other parts of the world about $59,000; indicating that the total investment, as nearly as can be ascertained, is $27,000,000,000, rather more than half of it in Europe.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

It might be well if those poets who have not yet established their names and birthdays in the biographical dictionaries should at least put the age as well as the name on their title-pages. Imitativeness is very much a question of age alone. Lowell began, in 'A Year's Life,' by imitating Tennyson's earlier poems, and it did him no harm; indeed, he showed more discretion than Tennyson when it came to weeding them out. Imitation at twenty is often a good sign, if well directed; it proves nothing against a first volume of poems; it is when it continues into the third and fourth volumes that it becomes discouraging. This is the case with Mr. Madison J. Cawein, for instance: the habit of cheap imitation of easy and dangerous models is as glaring in his third book of verse, 'Ascolon of Gaul, and Other Poems' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.), as in its predecessors. First we have Swinburne:

> "Brows wan through blue-black tresses
> Wet with sharp rain and kisses;
> Locks loose the sea-wind scatters
> Like torn wings fierce for flight;
> Cold brows, whose sadness flatters,
> One kiss—and then good night." (P. 113.)

Then comes Poe, four pages later:

> "And we clomb through a murmur of pinions,
> Thin rattle of talons and plumes;
> And a sense as of Boreal dominions
> Clove down to the abysms and tombs;
> And the Night's naked, Ethiope minions
> Swarmed on us in legions of glooms."
> (P. 117.)

In the title-poem of sixty-four pages we have unmixed Tennyson. Were all these the compositions of a sophomore, by way of joke, it would be well enough, or if a student suspected of genius were to do them seriously, there would be no great harm; but Mr. Cawein is in his third volume.

Again, Mr. Charles Edward Barns prints 'The Amaranth and the Beryl' (Fracker) a his fourth work, but we have the inevitable Poe again:

> "Come with me, my angel-bride,
> Where the drowsing billows ride;
> Where the poppied isles of ease
> Sleep in paradisial seas." (P. 181.)

And in the long poem "Mirabel" we have Keats and "The Eve of St. Agnes," at every step.

> "Ah, friary vigil of All-hallow's eve!
> Now Memory masks with weirds her children pale,
> And fancies from the fertile bosom heave,
> Crouching them shy upon the eyelids frail.
> See! brided Twilight in her moon-warm veil
> Hath crept down from the altars of the sky
> With her druid knight in ebon coat of mail,
> While the young Hours their tributes kneelingly
> Hymn to the panting stars, mid wildest melody."
> (P. 45.)

To be at once imitative and crude is the blessed privilege of youth; but it is one soon forfeited.

As there are grades in imitation, so there are grades in passion. Few women, especially, attain to passion's white heat; but Anne Reeve Aldrich in 'The Rose of Flame, and Other Poems of Love' (Putnams), at least reaches the red heat, which is something that at once puts her beyond many of her sisters, who never attain to any real heat at all, but only to an obtrusive burning of unseemly and unfragrant stubble. There is more of the white heat of passion in the few verses of Helen Jackson's "Vintage" or in Saxe Holm's "Three Kisses of Farewell" than in all Miss Aldrich's quaintly bound volume; but there is more in this very volume than Mrs. Amélie Rives Chanler and Mrs. Ella Wheeler Wilcox will ever succeed in putting into their accumulated writings, prose and verse, should they survive until old age and write as many volumes as they wish to write. In Emma Lazarus's collected 'Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) we have something distinct from personal passion, the passion of race and religion, kindled by the sense of wrong. Miss Lazarus was early controlled by two of the strongest personal literary influences of our time, namely, Emerson and Heine; and it is not strange that the latter, wild and witty as he was, should have finally been the ruling influence of this pure-souled woman—remote as she was from his failings and quite destitute, so far as her poems indicate, of his mocking humor. But they had the strongest of all race ties between them, and when it first dawned upon her that her race and religion were persecuted, her life was renewed and consecrated. In New York, in Newport, she was little of a Jew; her family did not attend the synagogue or observe the ordinances; but she learned in suffering for others what she taught in song. Her chosen collective title, "Songs of a Semite," was a fit one; it was a race that found voice in her. She showed real dramatic talent in "Il Spagnoletto," but she was so modest about the little play that it was for years only privately printed. It was only when her voice became a trumpet that she wrote without care for art, and then found all her previous artistic training an advantage. She never attained to her full strength, but will always have for students of literature that picturesqueness which is sometimes more attractive than power.

Mr. William Sharp, the English poet, in the preface to his newly published 'American Sonnets'—which we purpose, by the way, to notice separately—points out how much our cis-Atlantic poets owe to their great variety of surface. Any review of recent American poetry soon becomes a matter of local coloring. Thus,

in 'Poems and Translations,' by Mary Morgan ("Gowan Lea"), published in Montreal by Robinson, we have a Canadian note, but without especial vigor; the German translations are pleasing, though the author should stop short of Heine. 'Among the Millet' (Ottawa: Durie), by Archibald Lampman, is stronger and more varied, or at least more picturesque—especially one poem, "Between the Rapids," which suggests how much ought to be made, by Canadian writers, out of the French life and the *voyageur* element:

"Wild black-eyed Jeanne, whose tongue was never still,
Old wrinkled Picard, Pierre and pale Lisette,
The homely hearts that never cared to range
While life's wide fields were filled with rush and change." (P. 41.)

Mr. G. Dickinson's 'Wanderer' (Boston: Clark) should have, by its title, some flavor of travel at least, but is a peculiarly repulsive book, because, under cover of a cheap imitation of "Childe Harold," it devotes twenty-five pages of preface and many others of notes to a revival of the details of a scandal which should now be buried in oblivion. 'Christmas Carillons, and Other Poems,' by Annie Chambers-Ketchum (Appleton), offers a pleasing Southern flavor here and there, but is otherwise of little value. In 'Song of the Palm, and Other Poems,' by Tracy Robinson (Brentano), we have the tropical flavor still more accentuated, but without any corresponding increase of wealth or expression. 'Rebel Rhymes, and Other Poems,' by Elizabeth J. Hereford (Putnams), has more that is characteristic of Southern life than of external nature, but it has strength and tenderness, with no undue bitterness. The description of the old plantation where "happy slaves their burden bore" (p. 5), seems a little incongruous when we remember what exceedingly severe laws were somehow needed to keep these same happy creatures from running away from bliss. In 'Some Dainty Poems,' by Waldo Messaros (Philadelphia: Hartranft), we have local flavor again, but this time of modern Greece; and the poems describing the author's Greek parentage and childhood are spirited enough to win some charity for the affectation of the title. 'Idyls of the Golden Shore,' by Hu Maxwell (Putnams), takes us to California, and offers themes which have a certain value quite apart from the treatment. The poems were mainly written by the camp fire. Carrie Warner Morehouse, in 'The Legend of Psyche, and Other Verses' (St. Johnsbury, Vt.: Walter), should give us a Vermont flavor at least, but there is in the book more of Greece, or at least of Europe, than of the Green Mountains, although "In Late Summer" (p. 45) is simple and genuine.

'A Bachelor's Wife, and Other Poems,' by Channing Moore Huntington (Utica, N. Y.: Kelly), is illustrated by that well-known artist, the poet's father, and has at least that attraction. 'Mother Carey's Chickens,' by Wilbur Larremore (Cassell), has some seriousness of purpose and poetic expression, especially in the sonnets to Emerson and Bryant. Carlotta Perry's 'Poems' (Belford) show a fatal facility. Mr. Warren Holden of Girard College publishes a third thin volume of his poems, which have a certain promise from their modesty and simplicity—'Autobiography of Love' (Lippincott). 'White Sails,' by Emily Huntington Nason (Boston: Lothrop), is printed with an amplitude of type rather out of proportion to its merits, and it paralyzes one's faith in the author's outdoor poetry to find her, in "Wild Columbine" (p. 86), describing that spring flower as coming after the buttercups and field-lilies have faded. Mr. Harry Lyman Koopman, who essayed the dramatic once before in his 'Orestes,' tries it again in 'Woman's Will; a Love-Play in Five Acts' (Buffalo: Moulton, Wenbourne & Co.), but we still think his best talent is lyrical. Mr. W. R. Thayer, in 'Hesper, an American Drama' (Cambridge: C. W. Sever), shows more of the dramatic instinct, but not with any stage adaptation or, perhaps, intent; and his soldiers are a little too self-conscious. He has strong lines and phrases, and graceful interludes. All these are singularly deficient in a much longer and more ambitious work, 'Master, a Poem,' by John Ruse Larus (Putnams), which seems like a pale reflection of that fifty-year-old poem, 'Festus.' That had at least many fine and quotable passages; we cannot find such in 'Master,' although the author wrestles with mighty themes.

In Mr. John D. Ross's 'Scottish Poets in America' (Pagan & Ross) we have an admirable summing-up of a whole line of poetic descent, and it is extremely interesting to see how the minor muse of a really imaginative nation bears transplanting to a somewhat milder climate. There are some unexpected discoveries to be made, too, as when we find that the well-known poem, "It's dowie in the hint o' hairst," was possibly written in America, and certainly by an author who lived here during the greater part of his life, and died lately at the age of eighty-six at Louisville, Ky.—Hew Ainslie. He is described as a man of magnificent physique, and it is recorded of him by Mr. Ross, as a truly Scottish distinction, that in his youth he had kissed Burns's "Bonny Jean." His best-known poem begins thus, it being premised that "dowie" means sad, and that the "hint o' hairst" is the end of harvest:

"Its dowie in the hint o' hairst
At the wa' gang o' the swallow,
When the wind grows cauld and the burns grow bauld,
And the wuds are hingin' yellow;
But oh, its dowier far to see
The wa'-gang o' her the heart gaes wi',
The dead-set o' a shinin' e'e—
That darkens the wearie warld on thee." (P. 57.)

In 'Echoes from the Blarney Stone,' by W. C. R. (Chicago: Kerr), we have a less interesting showing of Irish poetry than Mr. Ross gives us of Scottish, but the Irish verse is by one man, and includes some fairly good fooling.

There are whole departments of poetry which have, doubtless, a certain value that bears no relation whatever to literary criticism. There is the religious poetry, devout but uninspired, and perhaps profitable to many hearts. To this class belong 'Comfort,' by Mrs. Herrick Johnson (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), 'Lays of Memory and Affection,' by Caroline May (Randolph), and 'Reliques of the Christ,' by Denis Wortman, D.D. (Dutton). This last has been read by bishops and others "with tender, almost tearful interest." Then there is the poetry of the domestic affections, inspired by the muse of the old arm-chair. There can be no better type of this than 'Grandma's Memories,' by Mary D. Brine (Dutton), author of 'Grandma's Attic Treasures,' a work of which, as we are told, 30,000 copies have been sold. It may be called a thoroughly cosmopolitan book, the text being American, the illustrations English, and their execution German. To the great number of persons who would willingly see their grandparents represented with such countenances, costumes, equipages, and residences as no living American grandparents ever possessed, this book will be a source of delight and as good as a coat-of-arms.

Most of the volumes which we have mentioned are the work of youth; but two of the latest comers proceed from men past the prime of life, who have hitherto been better known in other paths than those of verse. Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'A Cup of Youth, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) does not strike us as an advance on the highly dramatic poems contained in his previous volume, especially "A Masque" and "A Huguenot Story." The title-poem in this case has touches of similar power, but is less sustained, and there are highly elaborated scenes leading up to an ending so inadequate as to seem almost trivial. Nor are the meditative poems so striking as Dr. Mitchell has before given us, strong as are the three opening verses of this:

TO THE SEA AT DAWN.

The moon exults in new-born light
And, black athwart its gold,
The broken fragments of the night
Rock in their cradles old.

Ho, sturdy wooer of the great!
What need to mock thy power
With feeble woman-tales that prate
Of manhood's yielding hour?

The Norseland fury in us craves
To feel thy billows leap;
Claims kinship with yon bounding waves,
Calls cousin with the deep. (P. 63.)

Mr. T. W. Higginson has waited even longer than Dr. Mitchell before venturing on his one slender volume of verse, 'The Afternoon Landscape' (Longmans); a collection of which the keynote is perhaps given by the opening poem:

SONNET TO DUTY.

Light of d'm mornings; shield from heat and cold;
Balm for all ailments; substitute for praise;
Comrade of those who plod in lonely ways
(Ways that grow lonelier as the years wax old);
Tonic for fears; check to the over-bold;
Nurse, whose calm hand its strong restriction lays,
Kind, but resistless, on our wayward ways;
Mart, where high wisdom at vast price is sold;
Gardener, whose touch bids the rose-petals fall,
The thorns endure; surgeon, who human hearts
Searchest with probes, though the death-touch be given;
Spell that knits friends, but yearning lovers parts;
Tyrant resistless o'er our blisses all;—
Oh, can it be thine other name is Heaven?

Emerson in Concord: A Memoir. Written for the Social Circle in Concord, Massachusetts. By Edward Waldo Emerson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

MR. EMERSON, in writing a memoir of his father for the Concord club to which he belonged, has found an opportunity for supplying that human element in the life of the poet and philosopher in which Mr. Cabot's biography was felt to be conspicuously deficient. He regards his father as a man among men, especially in domestic and town life, and he has produced a valuable as well as an entertaining volume. He has used the method of anecdote and of apposite extracts from Emerson's journals; but though the material is fragmentary, the narrative is continuous, and derives a greater charm from its rapid changes. The traits of Emerson are the well-known ones, as before, but the new illustrations of them give more personality to him, perhaps as much because the volume is confined to this one purpose as for any other reason. In one important particular, however, the son makes a correction. He mentions the shrewdness ascribed to his father as a Yankee characteristic and enforced by his business dealings in behalf of Carlyle; but he says that this notion is erroneous. On the contrary, his father's capacity in these ways was of the slightest: "he had no business faculty, or even ordinary skill in figures; could only with the greatest difficulty be made to understand an account, and his dealings with the American publishers on behalf of Mr. Carlyle, adduced in proof of his Yankee 'faculty,' really only show what love and loyalty he bore his friend, that he would freely undertake for him duties so uncongenial and—but for outside help and expert counsel—almost impossible for him." His real-estate agent defrauded him for years, and would have walked off with the property itself had not Emerson's son-in-law, Mr. Forbes, taken charge of his affairs; and even in dealing with the publishers the same friend was able to make more

remunerative arrangements. The idea, therefore, that Mr. Emerson had any head for business must be abandoned.

What is told us of his gardening tends in the same direction, and shows the wisdom of his little boy's well-known criticism, "Papa, I am afraid you will dig your leg." His friends assisted him in the care of his acres. After a while he gave up handling hoe and spade, and confined himself to pruning and to picking up pears and apples. He was much interested in his fruits, and always sent specimens to the "Cattle-Show." One day the committee of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society called on him, and, in answer to his smile of "modest pride at having his little orchard thus honored," the chairman said· "Mr. Emerson, the Committee have called to see the soil which produces such poor specimens of such fine varieties." He was as little of a farmer as of a business man.

He endeavored to join in the life of the community as a neighbor and citizen, but he was always clearly conscious of the gulf which divided him from the mass. He would attend town-meeting and enjoy the rude encounter of wit and character there, but he seldom joined in it; he would "fight fire" with his pine-branch in the woods beside the rest, but he could not get on frank talking terms at the grocery or other rendezvous of the village people. His shyness was partly the cause, but there was a constitutional unreadiness in him also. This is completely expressed in the anecdote of his brother Charles saying to him, when he had professed his ability to be burned at the stake—"'Yes, but if any one spoke to you on the way there, you would be so abashed you wouldn't have a word to say.'" Upon this he remarks in his journal: "Charles's *naïf* censure last night provoked me to show him a fact apparently entirely new to him—that my entire success, such as it is, is composed wholly of particular failures; every public work of mine of the least importance having been, probably without exception, noted at the time as a failure. The only success (agreeably to common ideas) has been in the country, and there founded on the false notion that here was a Boston preacher." The respect of the people was also another bar to familiarity. His views were unpopular, but his character was prized, and every one went to hear his lectures. The audience did not always understand him, but they liked to hear him. One anecdote is illustrative. An old lady was displeased at the lecture on Plato, and remarked that "if those old heathen really did what Mr. Emerson said they did, the less said about them the better." The offending passage was as follows: "Plato especially had no external biography. If he had lover, wife, or children, we hear nothing of them. *He ground them into paint.*" But many of his hearers, doubtless, were fortunate if they could get so literal a meaning out of his words. The son, however, thinks that his father overestimated the isolation of his life from men and the difficulty of establishing relations with them.

The description of Emerson's habits is made up of scattered details. After he had passed the insecure period of his health, he was usually in good physical trim. "He always throve," it is said, "upon physical hardship, and took a certain pleasure in it." His principal exercise was walking, and he seldom took omnibuses or cabs. "He would walk across the city to his train, carrying usually his rather heavy leathern travelling-bag in his hand, at such a speed that a companion must run to keep up with him, and this without apparent effort or any noticeable effect of overheat or shortness of breath." He had no practice in riding. When he was fifty years old he skated with the children, and he was a strong swimmer. He learned to shoot a rifle, and in giving it to his son instructed him in loading and firing it, but "by no means with the readiness of a sportsman." He cared little for garden flowers, and would not touch pet animals, but he "went with zeal to Magner's secret horse-training lecture in the stable of the Middlesex Hotel." He always kept ears of corn in his study to catch the horse with. In his love of nature he seems not to have discriminated between beauty and wildness. In his family he was a careful educator. He insisted on a temperate observance of the Sabbath, and would not permit games to be played. The children had Bible-lessons and learned hymns, and in the afternoon he took them to walk, but not to drive. There was much of tradition in this. One day, it being rainy, Mrs. Emerson had told the children they might have a game of battledore and shuttlecock, but no sooner was the sound heard than the study door opened and Emerson said, "That sound was never heard in New England before on Sunday, and must not be in my house. Put them away." This, perhaps, tells the whole story. He looked unfavorably upon cards on week-days, and would not allow their use in the daytime. He took interest in the children's studies, and particularly in declamation, but he did not care to have them excel in singing: he thought he had observed that singing and oratory did not go together. Out of such details as these it is easy to obtain an impression of the home life.

From a literary point of view the most interesting portion of the book is what is told us at the end of Emerson's habits of composing poetry. The freeing of the poetical faculty in him was a slow process, and he had such difficulty in it that he believed completely in the impulse of the inspired moment. It is therefore the more singular that he worked over into poetry what first came to him in prose, and apparently wrote it down in prose with a view to poetry. The address to the sea which is given from the journal was not a case of this sort; it was melodious prose which, after writing, he discovered to be blank verse; but the first draft of "The Two Rivers" is a clear case of notes for a poem. It is not likely that born poets have often gone to work in this way; and we are by no means certain that, leaving out what was added in the poem, the prose version here is not the better of the two. He wished to be a poet, and prized what he did in that way; he lamented the inconstancy of the muse; he found something exceptional in his mental state in poetic composition. The assertion in his journal that he could not within a twelvemonth after the composition of "Days" remember either composing or correcting it, and "could not write the like to-day," is very singular. "I can breathe at any time," he says, referring to prose-composition, "but I can only whistle when the right pucker comes." He seems to have carried in his life ideal personages, like Saadi, and to have won expression for them a few lines at a time, which he afterwards joined by means of the unity of mood or view which belonged to them. The consequence was that none of these, which in another more fluent poet would have been longer poems or true creations, were completed. The history of Emerson's poetical growth is one of the most interesting in literature, and the contributions to it made here are valuable.

The editing of all this material is admirable; the tone of the writer, at once modest and frank, gives refinement to the style; and wherever he touches upon the life of the town—and this record is valuable for its own sake—he does so without offence. The volume will be one of the principal sources of knowledge about Emerson to all who desire to be acquainted with his life.

New Materials for the History of the American Revolution. Translated from documents in the French archives, and edited by John Durand. Henry Holt & Co. 1889.

WHAT are new materials for history? Mr. Durand has given us a volume principally made up of documents and extracts from documents which have not been printed in English before. On the other hand, many of the most important of them have appeared in French in such well-known works as 'Beaumarchais et son temps,' by Louis de Loménie, and the great compilation now appearing from the hand of M. Doniol. Some entirely unpublished matter there probably is, but it is hard to say how much, for Mr. Durand gives very few references to printed books, and none to the classified volumes or dockets of the archives. Nor are the documents, as we get them from him, entirely satisfactory. There is a certain scrappiness in his method of editing. He leaves out too much, and does not always warn us where his elisions occur. To the historical scholar, therefore, in search of new material, the book will prove a disappointment. There is nothing in it to change his views on any important historical subject, nor are the original sources presented in a trustworthy form. To the general reader, on the other hand, this small and interesting volume may be recommended. To him it will be rendered easy reading by the very qualities which make it comparatively valueless to the student. The author is not thoroughly read in his subject, but he has a good general understanding of it. His views are mainly sound, although he holds them a little too unreservedly. He writes with the freshness and enthusiasm of a discoverer—an enthusiasm none the less sincere because the discoveries have mostly been made before him.

About half the book is taken up with the relations of Beaumarchais to the United States. The author is apparently unaware of the light thrown by Bettelheim on the character of that fascinating adventurer. In the matter principally treated of here, however, *Figaro* was in the right, and the United States were at first innocently, and afterwards culpably, in the wrong.

In dealing with this affair, and in other parts of the book, we think that Mr. Durand is carried a little too far by his almost exclusive reliance on French sources. Particularly is this the case in his treatment of John Adams. That statesman was obstinate, suspicious, and wanting in tact; but is it not a little absurd to represent him (as Vergennes did in his instructions to Luzerne) as belonging to a party "principally engaged in effecting a reconciliation between the United States and England, in negotiating with and forming an alliance with the Court of London"? We can see no inconsistency between the statements in a letter from Adams to Vergennes, given on page 223 of Mr. Durand's book, and the passage from Adams's diary of an earlier date, quoted in a note on the same page. The letter of May 12, 1780, runs thus:

"When we hear them affirm in Parliament that America is on the point of returning to an allegiance with the King of England; . . . when the members of the Opposition, . . . such as Mr. Hartley, Gen. Conway, and others, discover plainly by their motions and arguments that their object is a separate peace with

America in order to be the better able to gratify their revenge against France and Spain, I can have no expectations that they think of applying to me, because I think they might be convinced of this at least, that I shall make no separate peace. . . . Our alliance with France is an honor and a security which have ever been near my heart. . . . I have ever thought it, therefore, a national alliance, and contended for it as a rock of defence. This object I proposed in Congress with persevering assiduity for more than a year in opposition to other gentlemen of much greater name and abilities than mine."

The diary, dated April 29, 1778, is as follows: "I will be buried in the ocean, or in any other manner sacrificed, before I will voluntarily put on the chains of France, when I am struggling to throw off those of Great Britain."

It is true that the aid rendered by France was invaluable to the United States, but the question presented to patriotic Americans was whether the attitude to be assumed towards the more powerful country was that of an ally or of a dependent. John Adams, with almost ludicrous vehemence, both in season and out of season, rejected the latter alternative, and, while we may smile at his vagaries, we can but honor the sturdy independence of his patriotism.

Buddhism: By Sir Monier Monier-Williams, K.C.I.E. London: John Murray; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

THIS volume is the outcome of the Duff Lectures delivered by the author at Edinburgh in the month of March, 1888. "Dr. Duff was a man to whom Scotland has assigned a place in the foremost rank of her most eminent evangelists; and he has earned an enduring reputation throughout India and the United Kingdom as the prince of educational missionaries." So spake the lecturer in introducing his subject. No doubt a course of lectures on "Buddhism" is befitting such a subject, although we may be tolerably certain that Dr. Duff never met, or conversed with, a single Buddhist in India. That religion is clean wiped out from the country of its birth, although it still lives there under other forms and other names. In this sense, "Buddhism" may properly be investigated "in connection with Brahmanism and Hinduism." As to its "contrast with Christianity," to which point the lecturer also devotes himself in the last chapter of his book, the investigation is intended to lead up to an answer to this question: "Which doctrines [*i. e.*, Christian or Buddhist] are to be preferred by rational and thoughtful men in the nineteenth century?" We should have thought no elaborate contrast between the two systems of belief was necessary for a reply to this question. The true interest which attaches to the study of Buddhism centres in the query, *not* whether it is a rival in any way of the Christian religion, but whether, in the order of the law of *continuity*, observable in the spiritual as well as in the physical world, it did not prepare the way for Christianity and assist in shaping it as a religious system. This is the question which is engaging the attention of many "rational and thoughtful men" in the present day.

Sir Monier Williams divides his book into eighteen chapters, each of which contains matter for careful consideration. It is difficult, within the compass of a short review, and in consideration of the complexity of the subject, to select points for remark. There is one conclusion, however, to which the lecturer comes, in computing the number of Buddhists in the world, with which we fully agree. No doubt the number has been overestimated. The Chinese are not Buddhists to any great extent. They affect to despise the system; nevertheless, they tolerate it. The calculation of Dr. Happer that there are only 20,000,000 of Buddhists in China, may be short of the mark, but it is not very much out of the way.

Perhaps the most interesting chapter in the book is the fourteenth, which treats of the "Sacred Places" of Buddhism. The interest of this lecture is derived from the fact that the lecturer has himself visited many of the spots he mentions. For instance, at Buddha-Gayā, which is a kind of Buddhist Jerusalem, the author tells us that the temple which he saw there in 1876 was "probably not built until the middle of the second century, but was erected on the foundation of Asoka's temple, the ruins of which are traceable under the present one" (p. 390). He describes it as built of bluish bricks and plastered with lime. At the back of the terrace which surrounded the temple was a Pipal or sacred fig-tree, fabled to be the very one under which Gautama sat during his profound meditation which led to his enlightenment. The temple and tree have now disappeared. The authority of "the Society for the Preservation of Ancient Buildings," vulgarly yclept "the Anti-Scrape Society," does not extend to India. Consequently, the British Government in 1881-82 undertook to improve this ancient monument off the face of the earth. A lakh of rupees has been spent in accomplishing it.

"The reconstruction of the building led, of course, to the removal of the sacred Bodhi-tree, but an effort was made to preserve the tree by transplanting it to a neighboring garden. No sooner was this done than parties of pilgrims from Burmah and Ceylon, in their pious desire to maintain the vitality of the venerated tree, covered the stem with gold-leaf, and, bringing eau-de-cologne and other scents, poured them over the roots, at the same time manuring them with the contents of boxes of sardines steeped in oil, choice biscuits, and other delicacies. Of course, the result was the speedy destruction of the tree, root and branch" (p. 393).

Such was the tragico-comic end of the oldest historical tree in the world.

The whole book, although to a great extent only a compilation, deserves thoughtful study. It has been skilfully put together, and includes a vast amount of authentic information. Whether it will tend to solve the vexed questions which still perplex people who have studied the subject, we are not at all sure.

Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode Islanders (Born in the 18th Century), etc. By John Osborne Austin. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons. 1889.

TWO years ago we were praising the large, the monumental work by the same author, the 'Genealogical History of Rhode Island.' The present volume has the same shape as its predecessor, and is a sort of sequel to it—a portion of the at best narrow field being selected for further elaboration. The thirty-three are drawn from various walks in life. Nearly one-half of them are to be found in 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' and most of the remainder held public stations, State or national, or were prominent as merchants, manufacturers, lawyers, or physicians. The best-known are Wm. Ellery Channing, Nathanael Greene, Stephen Hopkins, Oliver Hazard Perry, and Gilbert Stuart; Nicholas Brown and Rowland Hazard and William Sprague are scarcely less notorious. In two instances the wife's pedigree is substituted for the husband's (Crawford for Allen, Wanton for Lyman); in one, the mother's (Waterman for Jackson). A very slight examination of Mr. Austin's indices is sufficient to show that not a person on his list is unrelated to one or more of the other thirty-two. This proceeds not from his selection, but from the smallness of the community with which he is dealing; and as the fact is both curious and stimulating (in a genealogical sense), we wish he had made it plain in a special table. His group embraces the most prolific Rhode Island families, such as (besides those already enumerated) Arnold, Fenner, and Harris; and at least five of the thirty-three unite their pedigrees in Roger Williams.

Hence the second section of this work consists of "twenty-seven charts of Roger Williams's descendants to the fifth generation," among which occur yet other familiar Rhode Island surnames—Angell, Brenton, Cranston, Dyer, Jenckes, Olney, Randall, Rhodes, Tibbitts, Tillinghast, Tourtellot, Whipple, etc. The males who perpetuate the founder's name number 75; while the total of his descendants distributed among 52 stirpes is 849.

Another very fruitful line is that of Latham, which goes back to the centenarian Lewis Latham (1555-1655), Falconer to Charles I. His daughter Frances, though only attaining the age of sixty-six, contrived to marry four times, accompanying her third husband to America, together with her children by her second, and becoming the progenitor of the great tribe of Clarke, and of five Governors of Rhode Island. Many Rhode Islanders trace back to her through the two lines of Dungan and Clarke. Mr. Austin gives a very interesting biographical page to her father, and then charts his posterity through Frances and her eleven children (four Dungan, seven Clarke), showing eighty-two great-grandchildren.

Frances Latham probably brought with her to this country a portrait of her father which is still preserved, and this interesting relic is enumerated in the fourth section of Mr. Austin's thesaurus, namely, a list of "Prominent Rhode Islanders of whom Portraits in Oil (or otherwise) exist (including a few others intimately connected with Rhode Island history [such as King Charles II., grantor of Rhode Island's charter, Bishop Berkeley, Washington, Wayland, etc.])." This shows in one view the dates of birth and death, occupation or distinction, name of the artist, and the depository of the portrait.

Such is the scheme of this original work, whose execution is worthy of the highest praise for clearness, compactness, and accuracy, betokening a special intelligence and aptitude for genealogical exposition. We wish that a territory both more remarkable and more restricted—to wit, Essex County, Massachusetts—could be similarly illustrated by a compilation that ought not to be difficult to make, seeing what a vast store of material lies ready to hand in books. The case has been quite otherwise with Mr. Austin.

The Counter-Reformation. By Adolphus William Ward, Litt.D. [Epochs of Church History.] A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

THE appearance of Dr. Ward's 'Counter-Reformation' makes one wonder again whether the business of making "epoch-books" is not being overdone. It is hard to imagine who can be served by such a book as this. It can be of little use to the young student, since it continually assumes a knowledge of events and a familiarity with technical terms which none but a scholar could be expected to have. For the scholar, however, it contains nothing which he could not get much better and with no more trouble in many other books. It offers him no new points of view; nor even—what has justified many a small book—does it provide him with any convenient apparatus for the better

use of his material. As for the "intelligent reader," he would almost certainly be repelled by the dulness of the narrative, its entire absence of proportion or of light and shade, and its frequent obscurity.

Yet the subject is a very tempting one. The Roman Church, roused at last to its danger, summoning all its vast resources of virtue, enthusiasm, courage, organization, violence, unscrupulousness, and turning them all to the one great purpose of recovering its hold upon the conscience of Europe—this is a theme which might well appeal to any scholar. Its central motive is the Council of Trent—itself a subject quite large enough for an "epoch-book." We should have welcomed gladly any clear exposition of the exceedingly complicated motives which brought about the final result; but what does Dr. Ward's chapter of forty pages on the Council give us? Only a scrappy series of paragraphs, without definite sequence or unity of purpose. His English is at times extraordinary. "Implicitly, the exercise in the Empire of any Confession by the side of the Roman, except that of Augsburg, was prohibited"; "Material interests, and religious and educational likewise, to a very considerable extent, were threatened by its incidence," are illustrations, selected at random, of a style which might, perhaps, be pardoned if it were the vehicle of weighty matter.

Let us have no more epoch-books, or let them be written carefully and with some definite purpose beyond that of filling a gap in the series.

The Chemistry of Photography. By Raphael Meldola, F.R.S. [Nature Series.] Macmillan & Co. 1889.

PROF. MELDOLA'S work will receive a hearty welcome, not only from professional photographers who wish to understand the scientific principles upon which their art is based, but even from chemists and physicists, who will find in it no small matter for thought and study. The work is not a treatise on photography. It consists of nine clear and carefully written lectures, with appendices giving well-chosen experiments, many of which are new. The author first points out the distinction between photo-chemical and photo-physical changes, giving as instances of the first the action of light upon salt of silver, and of the second the action upon phosphorus and selenium. Attention is then directed to various metals, the compounds of which are decomposed by light; the chemical action being, so far as known, expressed by equations as customary with chemists. The details are very full and instructive. Then follows the special treatment of the silver compounds, followed by the theory of the action of sensitizers, with some historical notices. We have next the curious details of emulsion photography and the theory of developers and restrainers, with the explanation of many interesting special phenomena like that of reversal. Lecture vii treats of spectrum photography and of reversals in the spectrum. Next comes the important subject of the relationship between photo-chemical decomposition and the absorption of light, the subject of ortho-chromatic photography being very well treated. The last lecture deals with processes subsequent to development, such as intensification, and in conclusion we have an account of the chromatized gelatine and pigment printing processes. The book deserves very hearty commendation as a popular scientific treatise in the best sense of the term.

A Chinese and English Phrase-Book in the Canton Dialect. By T. L. Stedman and K. P. Lee. New York: William R. Jenkins. 1888.

THIS useful manual may be properly called "English without a Teacher." It is constructed on the "glossic" system, every sound being represented by a character or symbol of the Chinese approaching as nearly as possible to the utterance required. But it is not only for the Chinese, but for English-speaking people, that the book is designed to be useful. On each page, opposite the artificial Chinese sentences, are found the true Cantonese equivalents, number for number; so that a student may learn his Chinese, as the Chinaman learns his English, from the same page.

The labor of compiling this little book must have been very great. There are forty-one lessons, on all sorts of subjects, included within 167 pages. Each page contains from nine to eleven sentences, and each of these sentences on the one side is phoneticized into broken English, and on the other is reproduced in genuine Chinese dress, with the Canton pronunciation of each character. It is an amusing as well as a most useful manual—"pidgin" English is always an amusement; but this book is far in advance of the Hong Kong Anglo-Portuguese gabble. There is a system observed throughout. The same symbol always represents the same sound, so that when the Chinaman has once got hold of the sound in one sentence, he will know how to reproduce it in another.

As a specimen of the method, we will take the first question in the book—"Good morning, sir; how do you do?" This is conveyed to the Chinese reader in the following dress: "Ku-ta-mo-ning-sha-hau-to-iu-to." And so for the rest. We doubt not the book will be a popular one, and it richly deserves to be used and to be praised.

Midnight Sunbeams; or, Bits of Travel through the Land of the Norseman. By Edwin Coolidge Kimball. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

MR. KIMBALL takes his readers over a route that has often been described by recent tourists. From Copenhagen to Stockholm by way of the Gotha Canal, thence by rail to Trondhjem, thence by steamer to the North Cape, with a variety of Baedeker excursions in Norway upon the return—all this is coming to be almost as much an old story as Switzerland and the Rhine. Nevertheless, Mr. Kimball has made a fairly readable book, a book which will be useful to the prospective tourist, and not without interest to the general reader. He writes in a plain, straightforward style, and confines himself strictly to his own personal experiences. There is no suggestion that he is ambitious to be thought a profound observer or a clever literary artist. He simply goes from place to place, sees the regulation sights, and tells us how he was impressed and how he fared in respect of accommodations. The matter of the book is such as an experienced tourist might write in the form of letters to an elderly friend at home; but, while written in a somewhat quotidian vein, Mr. Kimball's pages sufficiently indicate a warm feeling on his part for the Northmen and their country.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allard, A. Dépréciation des Richesses. Liége.
Bates, Katharine Lee. Coleridge's Ancient Mariner. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Carus, P. Fundamental Problems. The Method of Philosophy as a Systematic Arrangement of Knowledge. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. $1.
Cockshott—Walters. A Treatise on Geometrical Conics. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
De Witt, Madame. Les Héroines de Hariem. With a French-English Vocabulary by Paul E. E. Barbier. Illustrated. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Douglas, M. Can Love Sin? Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.50.
Finch-Kelly, Florence. Frances: A Story for Men and Women. Sanfred & Co. 50 cents.
Hodgkins, Louise Manning. Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Hooper, G. Wellington. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Hume, F. W. The Girl from Malta. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Josephine, Countess Schwerin. Three Years. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Lauçel, A. Henry de Rohan, son rôle politique et militaire sous Louis XIII. (1579–1638.) Paris: Firmin-Didot.
Leach, O. The State and Local Government of New York. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Michelet, J. Récits d'Histoire de France. Part I. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
O'Connor, W. D. Mr. Donnelly's Reviewers. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Paul, Prof. H. Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie. Part I. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Philipson, Rev. D. The Jew in English Fiction. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.

JUST READY.

Remsen's Chemistry.

INORGANIC CHEMISTRY. By Ira Remsen, Professor of Chemistry in Johns Hopkins University. 8vo, 827 pp. (American Science Series Advanced Course). Teachers' price, $2.80; by mail, $3.08.

HENRY HOLT & Co., New York.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 27, 1889.

The Week.

THE popular verdicts against prohibition have been coming with cumulative force for two years now, no less than eight States having rejected it by steadily increasing majorities. Pennsylvania closed the list on Tuesday with the crushing adverse majority of 185,000. As a culmination of the series came the decision in Rhode Island on Thursday to repeal an amendment which had been in operation for three years, both the vote in favor of repeal being greatly in excess of the necessary three-fifths of the whole, and the vote in favor of retaining the amendment being one-third smaller than that cast for its adoption three years ago. There can be no question as to the meaning of this decision. Prohibition, which had been put on trial by popular vote, has been found to be a failure in practice, and has been condemned. That the Rhode Island law has been not only a complete failure, but a most pernicious influence, cannot be questioned. When it was first put in operation in 1886, there was for a time a perceptible decrease in open liquor-selling, and also in drunkenness, but it was only for a short time. The liquor-dealers soon found that they could sell without much danger of interference by taking slight precautions, and within six months their business has not only returned to its former proportions under license, but has actually exceeded them. Figures given out by the prohibition advocates themselves during the recent campaign prove this. They published a table, which for some inscrutable reason they supposed sustained their case, giving the commitments to the House of Correction, to the State Prison, and for common drunkenness, as they were recorded under license and under prohibition. From these it appeared that during the last year under prohibition there had been precisely the same number of common drunkards as there had been in the last year under license; that the number of commitments to the House of Correction had been 521 during the last year of prohibition, against 498 during the last year under license; and that the commitments to State Prison during the last year under prohibition had been 69, against 53 under license.

The secret-ballot law which has been passed by both houses of the Connecticut Legislature is in no sense an application of the Australian system. It provides for a secret ballot, and forbids any ticket-peddlers to approach within 100 feet of the polls. These are important advances in the direction of honest elections. They are similar to those of the Milwaukee law, which worked so well in practice that the Wisconsin Legislature was convinced of the wisdom of adopting the Australian system and applying it to the whole State. In other respects the new Connecticut bill is not of great consequence. There is little to be gained by having the State furnish the paper for the official ballots, so long as the political organizations are to have charge of the printing and distribution of them. The envelope provision is of no apparent consequence one way or another. It was tried in Louisville and was pronounced unnecessary and confusing. It is a curious spectacle to see the Connecticut politicians who are so alarmed about the complications of the Australian system, taking up the very part of that system which has been tried and rejected because it makes complication.

The promoters of ballot reform in Massachusetts have taken a wise step in forming a Ballot-Act League for the special purpose of securing an effective operation of the new law when it receives its first trial at the election next fall. They have made a thorough organization, with Elihu B. Hayes of Lynn for President, Richard H. Dana of Cambridge for Treasurer, and Josiah Quincy of Quincy for Secretary. The League is entirely non-partisan in its character, and its list of officers contains the names of prominent members of all political parties. All persons interested in the objects of the League are invited to become members. Names should be sent to Albert C. Burrage, Assistant Secretary, 8 Congress Street, room 10, Boston. The admission fee of one dollar may be sent either to the same address or to Richard H. Dana, Treasurer, 30 Court Street, Boston. The League invites correspondence from city and town officials and others, and will endeavor to furnish all possible information on matters covered by the law. All such correspondence should be addressed to the office of the Assistant Secretary, as above. Several committees have been appointed, and are already engaged upon such branches of the work in hand as the following: (1) on preparation of forms under the act (nominations, etc.); (2) on preparation of plans, specifications, etc., for polling arrangements; (3) on preparation of information to election officers, political committees, and the general public; (4) on distribution of printed matter; (5) on procuring appointment of competent election officers; (6) on membership and branches; and (7) on finance. The idea of the League is as admirable as it is necessary, and should be adopted in the seven other States which have similar ballot laws. The Secretary of State, in Massachusetts, and Mayor Hart of Boston have promised their coöperation in the work there, and we have no doubt that State and city officials in other localities would do the same. It would give the politicians everywhere great joy to see the new system fail, or prove cumbersome on first trial, and they will do all they can to impede its working. For that reason its friends should be on the alert.

Gov. Bulkeley of Connecticut is said to have been greatly disturbed by the coupling of his name with Gov. Hill's, owing to the similarity of the views of both concerning the best way of reforming election methods. If this be so, Gov. Hill has no intention of helping him to cut loose from the companionship, for he has hastened to assure a reporter of his Albany organ that the new Secret-Ballot Bill which the Connecticut Legislature has passed and Gov. Bulkeley has signed, is "in substance the Linson bill," which Gov. Hill himself recommended the New York Legislature to pass in preference to the Saxton bill. He declares that he would have signed such a measure with pleasure, and shall recommend a similar one to the New York Legislature next year. This is the most unfavorable criticism which has yet been made upon the Connecticut bill, and it leaves Gov. Bulkeley and Gov. Hill more firmly coupled than before. A fresh bond of union is also furnished by the former's determination not to sign a high-license bill which the Connecticut Legislature passed.

An amusing light is thrown upon the character of Gov. Hill's deliberative methods with legislative bills by the discovery that two which he finally vetoed were first approved and signed, and the signature subsequently removed by the use of acids. The acid did its work pretty well, but it left traces, which, being closely examined, read: "Approved, June 15, 1889. David B. Hill." One of the bills which were thus decided upon in two ways was the Capitol Appropriation Bill, and the other provided for the appointment of six female factory inspectors. The question is raised by the friends of these measures as to the date of the erasure, the contention being that unless the approval was erased before the end of the thirty days' limit for considering bills, both measures became laws and could not be vetoed by the Governor. There is a suggestion that the Governor be put under oath and made to give the date upon which he executed formally his change of mind, but this will probably not be attempted. It would be interesting, however, to know the exact nature of the reasons which decided his final action.

The full reports of the proceedings in the Indianapolis Post office investigation add many interesting points to the telegraphic summaries, and make more plain the cause for the bitterness which Postmaster Wallace and the other Republican spoilsmen now manifest against Mr. Roosevelt. On the morning of the investigation the Indianapolis *Sentinel*, the leading Democratic newspaper in the State, published prominently on its first page, under the heading "Some Valuable Pointers for the Civil-Service Commission," brief biographies of the rascals appointed in the office, like this:

> CHARLES F. MOORE.—Moore was in office under Postmaster Jones; ran a gambling-room in the Talbott-New block; was arrested and fined therefor and incontinently fired. Reinstated by Postmaster Wallace.

When the Commissioners opened their session, the Republicans present were shocked to see Mr. Roosevelt, a Republican, holding in his hand this dreadful Democratic sheet, and simply horrified when he accepted it as good authority and asked if what it said was true. The spoilsmen hemmed and hawed over the injustice of convicting a man on newspaper reports, but finally admitted that the *Sentinel's* statement was correct, and were promptly told that "Moore's reinstatement was null and void."

Later in the proceedings the spoilsmen made another atempt to discredit the *Sentinel*, but it was of no avail. Said Mr. Roosevelt:

"Since the gentleman complains of our treating him badly, I shall state frankly that the fault is all his own. The history of this Post-office since Mr. Wallace came into possession of it, has been such as to convince any one knowing the facts that politics had ruled the appointing power. It is useless to discuss the matter; the men cannot remain in the service another day longer. This decision may serve to prevent a recurrence of what has undoubtedly already transpired. We have been inclined to think that these violations of the law have been made as the result of ignorance and lack of familiarity with the law, and have been inclined to be lenient on that account. But this instance makes it appear as if they were malicious. As to the course of newspapers, that is their business. They would be derelict in their duty to the public did they not expose illegal acts in the public service."

Finally, to cap the climax, the *Sentinel*, that odious Democratic paper, on the morning after the investigation, bestowed the heartiest praise upon Mr. Roosevelt, saying: "Theodore Roosevelt, who, in the main, conducted the examination, manifested much skill, clearness, and independence. As a whole the Commission exhibited great earnestness and sincerity in its work. Its visit, though too long delayed, may yet have the effect of redeeming the office from the crowd of ward heelers who were rapidly gaining undisputed sway over it."

A recent special to the Boston *Herald* represents the President as much disturbed by the public criticism on his Sunday jaunts. He says:

"Don't you think they are utterly unreasonable? As you know, no one is more solicitous for the proper observance of Sunday than I am, and no one would be more scrupulous about his own conduct in this respect than I have been; yet these newspapers are trying to make people believe that I have suddenly become grossly inconsistent in this regard. They know just how it is. They know that I have no other time for rest, and they know that I must rest if I am to keep on with my work."

But the people do not want President Harrison to "keep on with his work"—that is, the sort of work he has been keeping on with. So far as the President specially needs rest, it is because of his pernicious activity in the loot of the civil service, and of his contentions with the horde of office-seekers whom he invited from the first in his inaugural address, and continues to encourage by making vacant places for them. His "work," so far as it is peculiarly fatiguing, is such that he and the country would be much better off if he were to abandon it. And it is not merely injurious, but it is self-imposed.

The State of Connecticut has adopted a new method of collecting taxes on intangible and invisible personal property, such as bonds, promissory notes, and choses in action. Hitherto it has been incumbent on the owners of such property to list the same for taxation, and to swear to the correctness of the list. Only the more conscientious taxpayers complied with the law, and it would seem that this class was growing smaller or poorer from year to year, since the amount of such property listed is growing less and less. The new law provides that the owner of any property of this description may present it to the State Treasurer, and, by paying a tax of 1 per cent. on its face value, have it stamped free of all other taxation for five years, or at the same rate for any greater or less period—*i. e.*, at the rate of two mills per annum. The operation of this law will be awaited with interest. It will be interesting to see, in the first place, how many people will come to the front and acknowledge that they have been cheating the State and swearing falsely in the past. In the way of easing consciences, the act might prove efficacious if it did not tend to expose past offences. But it is not quite certain that people who have been withholding a tax of four or five mills on the dollar heretofore will now purchase the easing of their consciences by a payment of two mills. We quite agree with the Hartford *Courant* that "there are some queer features about the way it will work." The last Tax Commission of the State recommended that this kind of property be exempted altogether on account of the difficulties and inequalities of collection. Probably the Legislature eased its own conscience by adopting this half-way measure. The tax on this kind of property in Pennsylvania is only three mills per annum, and the methods of collection are much more drastic than in Connecticut; but the Auditor-General of the former State, in his report for 1886, said that not more than one-half of the property subject to the tax was got hold of.

The annual report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for Illinois for the current year is chiefly concerned with the subject of mortgage indebtedness. Statistics showing the state of such indebtedness in the years 1870, 1880, and 1887 are presented, together with such evidence as could be obtained as to the actual value of farming lands in the State. Leaving town and city lots and the suburban lands of Chicago out of the account, the mortgages on all other lands run as follows:

Year.	
1870	$95,721,003
1880	103,525,237
1887	123,733,098

Separating as far as possible mortgages representing deferred payments of purchase-money, from loans, the Commissioners think that the mortgage indebtedness of farmers for borrowed money has increased 23 per cent. since 1880, and that this is more than twice the ratio of increase in the value of the farm lands. An increase in land values is reported in 25 counties, a decrease in 20 counties, while in 16 the values have remained unchanged.

The *American Wool Reporter* rebukes the New York *Press* for its jesuitical statement that the free-traders are trying to stir up trouble between the wool-growers and the woollen manufacturers. The truth of the matter is (says the *Wool Reporter*) that there are very positive differences between the wool and woollen interests, and that the free-traders, although glad to chronicle them, did not originate them. "The very lowest possible compromise," it continues, "between the low-tariff and high-tariff elements in the wool interests at present will consist in substituting ad-valorem for specific duties on wool." This is flat, but the flatness of it is not fully apparent unless we recall what the wool-growers are aiming at, and what they succeeded in accomplishing in the Senate after the election of Harrison. The Senate Tariff Bill, as originally reported, fixed the duties on carpet-wool costing 12 cents or less per pound at 2½ cents per pound, and on the same costing more than 12 cents at 6 cents per pound. When Congress reconvened after the election, the Finance Committee reported amendments raising the former duty to 4 cents and the latter to 8 cents — the existing rates being 2½ and 5 cents respectively. The importation of carpet-wools amounted to 82,000,000 pounds in 1887, while that of all other wools was only 33,000,000 pounds. Now, it is not likely that manufacturers will consent to any bill which, while substituting ad-valorem for specific rates, nearly doubles the rate of duty on this grade of wool. Nor is it probable that the wool-growers will consent to a change from specific to ad-valorem unless they get the increase they asked for, and which the Senate conceded to them only six months ago. It is a very hopeful quarrel, and the free-traders are not only glad to chronicle it, although they did not originate it, but they will help to promote it in every possible way.

The final decision of the Civil District Court in New Orleans against the Cotton-Oil Trust is the most important item in the news of the day. The Trust is adjudged guilty of usurping, intruding into, and unlawfully holding and exercising the franchises and privileges of a corporation without being duly incorporated, and is for ever excluded and debarred from the said franchises and privileges within the State, and declared to be an illegal and invalid association, and defendants are condemned to pay all costs. This is the result of two or three years' litigation. It is probably a surprise to the majority of the legal profession, just as the decision of the Supreme Court in the Illinois Warehouse case was a surprise. There is every reason, however, to believe that it will be sustained by the higher courts and by the courts of other States in analogous cases.

The election of Prof. E. B. Andrews to the Presidency of Brown University is an event of distinct importance to the cause of liberal learning in this country. In preferring him above many older and more conservative men who were proposed for the place, the trustees of the University have shown that they are in favor of the infusion of young blood and progressive ideas into the conduct of the college. Prof. Andrews was the favorite candidate of the younger alumni. He is still a young man himself, about forty-five years of age, and belongs to the class of writers and thinkers who place scholarship above all political influences and considerations, and who agree with Emerson that to the seeker after truth "nothing is at last sacred but the integrity of your own mind." He was graduated from Brown University in 1870, and then went to Newton Theological Seminary, where he was prepared for the ministry. He has preached somewhat, but has taught more since that time, and as a teacher has developed the invaluable gift of imparting enthusiasm to his pupils. When, about a year ago, he resigned the chair of History and Political Economy, which he had held for a short period at Brown, in order to accept a similar chair at Cornell, his loss to the former college was regarded as very serious, for he had already made himself not only a force in the life of the college, but a valued influence in the city of Providence. He not only entertains liberal ideas, but has the courage to express them. We need only recall his article on "Trusts according to Official Investigations," which he published in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* in January last, and which we commended at the time as a model of economic discussion.

The most important undertaking for the advancement of art in this country in many years is the forming of the American Fine Arts Society, which is primarily a coalition for business purposes of the Society of American Artists, the Architectural League, and the Art Students' League. These societies represent in their several directions the young and vigorous movement of American art in its best phase, and anything that tends to unite more closely their interests and influence is likely to be potent for good. The American Fine Arts Society is incorporated under the General Manufacturing Act, and its stock is to be taken by the three societies named or by their members or friends. Its purpose is to provide a building which shall contain permanent quarters for these societies and galleries for their exhibitions. Provision has been made also for the Society of Painters in Pastel and for the New York Art Guild, a business organization for the protection of artists in their dealings with exhibitions throughout the country. While none of these organizations is sufficiently rich to provide itself independently with permanent quarters, the sum they collectively spend in rentals is sufficient to maintain a large and handsome building for their joint use. The plan of the new organization for this purpose has been submitted to business men of the highest standing, and is pronounced thoroughly practical and feasible.

While the combination is thus beneficial from a business point of view, it is even more promising from the point of view of the dignity and influence of the several organizations concerned in it. They are largely identical in aim and interchangeable in membership. The Society of American Artists and the Architectural League have many members in common. The Society of Painters in Pastel is composed entirely of members of the Society of American Artists, and the latter Society furnishes all of the teachers in the schools of the Art Students' League and some of the members of that League. A closer union of all these bodies was therefore in every way desirable, and now that it is effected and that there is a prospect of obtaining a permanent habitation of their own, a career of incalculable usefulness seems open to them. In dignity and thoroughness of equipment the new organization should be second only, if even second, to the Academy of Design, while the absence of any limitation of the membership of the several societies will tend to keep it always a more liberal and progressive body than the latter. The life fellowships which the new Society has founded entitle the holder to five season tickets to each of the several exhibitions of the Society of American Artists, the Architectural League, and the Society of Painters in Pastel. The purchaser of a fellowship will thus find himself entitled to admission to three of the most interesting exhibitions of the year, while he can feel that his money is aiding the progress of art in America in the most efficacious way possible.

The resolution of the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce in favor of the annexation or purchase of Lower California, together with the alleged intention of Senator Stanford to urge the matter in the next session of the Senate, has been taken rather more seriously than it deserves by the Mexicans. The Mexican Senate recently voted to call upon the Government for any information in its possession bearing on the matter. On May 30 Secretary Mariscal appeared before that body, in secret session, and detailed the attitude observed by the Administration in the affair. Of course his remarks are not given out for publication, but it is freely said by Senators that he completely satisfied them of the determination of President Diaz to uphold the national dignity and to maintain the integrity of the national territory. It would seem, from all accounts, that our Government had at least made some advances to Mexico to ask if any proposition from us in regard to Lower California would be considered; but this is by no means certain. At any rate, it is made evident that Mr. Blaine will have to look far afield for any strip of territory to spend the surplus in acquiring. Spain has declared almost defiantly that the United States have not money enough to buy Cuba, and now the Mexican Government affirms that the only way for us to get any more Mexican territory is to fight and beat the Mexican Army.

Peru appears to be about to fall into new troubles. The prolonged hitch over the ratification of the compact with the holders of Peruvian bonds has now given way to a political crisis of the sharpest kind. The Doughnomore contract failed of legal ratification, through the persistent absence from their seats of a number of members of the House of Deputies, who took that way of defeating a measure extremely obnoxious to them. President Cáceres has responded by a decree declaring the seats of these obstructionist deputies vacant. A cry of protest at once came up from the departments thus summarily deprived of representation. The reply of the President was the despatching of a body of troops to quell the rising discontent, and to arrest all those who had the temerity to sign memorials protesting against the action of the Executive. When Congress met recently, Government patrols were at the place of assemblage to keep out the offending members. More than this, they went so far as to exclude the President of Congress himself, Señor Arenas, who had not been mentioned in the decree of expulsion. He endeavored to assert his rights under the Constitution and the laws, but without avail. President Cáceres seems determined to carry his measures through with a high hand, and will have a submissive Congress or none at all. His excuse is, of course, that the prosperity of the country demands the speedy settlement of the long-standing dispute. This may be true; yet his methods are of a kind to produce worse evils than he aims to cure.

The reassembling of the Spanish Cortes, June 14, was in pursuance of a very shrewd plan on the part of Sagasta. To maintain party discipline and a peaceable procedure, it was absolutely essential to get the refractory President of the Chamber, Martos, out of the way. Yet he steadily refused to resign, and an effort to depose him would be of an uncertain result. Sagasta might, as we recently pointed out, have chosen not to call the Cortes together again at all; but he is naturally anxious to press on his financial measures, and get a chance to go to the country for the next general election, with the great advantage of at least having tried to pass the Universal-Suffrage Bill. What he did was to get the Queen Regent to declare the session of the Cortes, suspended by royal decree in the latter part of May, now closed, and to call that body together again for its last legal session. This was a neat way of putting Martos out of office, and his successor was easily elected, in the person of a strong friend of the Administration, as soon as the new session began. It is agreed on all hands that Sagasta has managed the affair most dexterously. His estimates are now being voted. After they are out of the way, he will throw the whole strength of the Administration in favor of the Suffrage Bill, and, whether he can carry it or not, it will be the principal plank in his platform for the next election.

ROTATION AND THE PRESIDENCY.

Mr. F. W. Whitridge's interesting article on "Rotation in Office," in the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, exposes most satisfactorily a vast amount of humbug and cant in connection with the subject. Mr. Whitridge proves conclusively that when the founders of the Government talked about the necessity of rotation in office, they meant rotation in elective, not minor executive and administrative, offices. He cites not only Washington and Adams on this point, but Jefferson himself, in language which is perfectly clear and unmistakable. But these citations are, as he says, superfluous, because the practice of these early Presidents is a much more clear demonstration of their theory than any words could have been. There was no rotation in office in their time, except in elective offices. During the first forty years of the Government, "there were, outside of the Cabinet, only eighty-two removals from office," and "all of these removals were, or were alleged to be, for cause." It was not until forty years after the adoption of the Constitution, when the generation whose work it was had died, that Jackson, with that ferocious vulgarity which, as Bishop Potter has said, marked his ideas of politics, made the first "clean sweep." To justify it, the ingenuity of Van Buren, Marcy, and Silas Wright was called into play, and these statesmen for this purpose produced what they pretended was the old, but what was really the entirely new, theory of "rotation." Real Americans, they insisted, had always believed in rotation in office, cunningly perverting the use of the term from elective to administrative offices. Mr. Whitridge shows further the curious fact that these politicians got their teaching in government, not where they pretended to find it, in the school of Jefferson, but in the degraded politics of this State, where the old "council of appointment" had for more than forty years carried on the whole administration of the State on the spoils system. New Yorkers who sigh over the condition of the civil service at Washington, have food for reflection in the fact that it was from the festering corruption of their own State that the virus was transferred which has poisoned the whole body politic. So wholly unknown had the new kind of politics been in the Federal Government that, even as late as 1834, we find Madison expressing the childlike belief that the odium attaching to this abuse of patronage would be sufficient to restrain its exercise.

Mr. Whitridge, having disposed of the pretence that there is something peculiarly "democratic," or consonant with the spirit of our institutions, in "rotation," proceeds to discuss the statute of 1820, which has been one of the most efficient aids in popularizing the new system. This statute makes the terms of some four thousand officials, and those generally of high rank, come to an end in four years, instead of lasting during good behavior. Like so many other things connected with rotation in office, the statute was itself a sham. It was avowedly passed to secure a higher degree of accountability in these officers. It is plain enough that any employer who would expect to get more perfect accountability by telling his clerks that, faithful or not, no clerk could hold his place for more than four years, would be deemed a little cracked. Of course this was not the real reason. The real reason was, according to John Quincy Adams, to promote the election of W. H. Crawford as President of the United States in 1825: "It was drawn up by Mr. Crawford, as he himself told me. It was introduced into the Senate by Mahlon Dickerson of New Jersey, then one of his devoted partisans; and its design was to secure for Mr. Crawford the influence of all the incumbents in office, at the peril of displacement, and of five or ten times an equal number of ravenous office-seekers, eager to supplant them." What is more, the plan very nearly succeeded.

There were still a few of the earlier generation of statesmen lagging superfluous on the stage, and again, curiously enough, when we think how commonly the principle of rotation is supposed to be a doctrine of Jeffersonian Democracy, among the first to denounce the law was Jefferson himself. A few months after the passage of the act, he made the following remarkable prophecy, which entitles us to quote him as one of the most far-sighted of the enemies of the spoils system:

"It saps the constitutional and salutary functions of the President, and introduces a principle of intrigue and corruption which will soon leaven the mass not only of Senators, but of citizens. It is more baneful than the attempt, which failed in the beginning of the Government, to make all officers irremovable but with the consent of the Senate. This places, every four years, all appointments under their power, and even obliges them to act on any one nomination. It will keep in constant excitement all the hungry cormorants of office; render them, as well as those in place, sycophants to their Senators; engage these in eternal intrigue to turn out one and put in another, in cabals to swap work, and make of them [*i. e.*, the Senators] *what all executive directories become, mere sinks of corruption and faction.*"

Madison, to whom this was written, thought the law full of just this mischief, and, further, that it was an unconstitutional encroachment on the Executive. What the effect of the law has been, every one knows. Not only has it introduced a four-years' term in the principal executive offices, but has produced a custom and a way of thinking which has virtually made all offices four-year offices. Outside the judiciary, there is no such thing as tenure during good behavior in the United States.

It has been noticed that the object of the act was to give Crawford plenty of henchmen to help him to an election as President. It was actually used by Jackson to strengthen the Executive. The early effect of the "clean sweep" was to make the President a more powerful figure than he had hitherto been in the American system. Jackson made himself for the time being a kind of despot. By turning out officials who had no particular motive to help him, and filling their places with stanch personal adherents, he made the little civil service of his time a personal bodyguard, and was able to give effect to his own violent will in a way that had before seemed impossible. Accordingly, at first, the Senate itself revolted at the tyrannous abuse of Executive power it had authorized. In 1825 a select committee reported unanimously a bill to repeal the act, on the express ground that it gave the President too much power. In 1835 a repealing act passed the Senate by a vote of nearly two to one. Clay, Benton, Webster, Calhoun, Ewing, and Southard all insisted on the repeal of the act for the reasons we have mentioned, and which are more cogent now than they were then.

Mr. Whitridge's object is to expose the nature of the humbug which keeps alive the four-year principle, and to this he confines himself; but his article suggests much besides what it says—among other things, that one marked result of rotation has been to shift the seat of the abuse, since Jackson's time, exactly as Jefferson foresaw that it would, from the Executive to the Legislature. As the civil service grew in size, it became more and more difficult for the President to manage the "clean sweep" himself, or to put his own henchmen in every little post-office and marshalship. He soon found that he had to select his appointees from those recommended by the local party authorities, who were necessarily members of the House or Senate. As the Senate also had the confirming power, the control of the civil service soon began to slip away from the President. Of recent years every President at the outset of his term has been confronted with a problem which no President has yet solved. He has come into office with a desire to regain his constitutional control over appointments. He has been at once confronted by cabals or coalitions of managers, largely recruited from the Senate and House, determined to allow him to do nothing whatever, unless he sends in the names of appointees satisfactory to "the party"—*i. e.*, to themselves. In Grant's time they went so far that not only did Conkling absolutely direct whatever was to be done in New York, but a "Senatorial Group" made its appearance, which practically put the President's office into commission, and invented the third-term project, in order to introduce not a Presidential Cæsarism, but a species of Senatorial boss-rule, with poor Cæsar for a puppet. Nothing was more remarkable in Grant's career than his gradual reduction from the proportions of a popular hero waging war on politicians as the people's enemies, to that of an apparently brainless automaton, worked by a cabal of powerful political intriguers. Hayes made a feeble effort to assert his independence, but never was able to convince the world of it; Garfield was assassinated by a criminal whose crazy rage was excited by the spectacle of a President breaking away even a little from those who regarded themselves as his owners. Arthur, always doing what was easiest at the time, and never attempting much more than to trim his sails to the wind, did not allow the problem to trouble him.

Finally Cleveland, who went into office with a sincere determination not only to reform the civil service, but to restore the President's authority over it, found that a great measure of control of the patronage by members of the Senate and House—that is, by "the party"—was the *sine qua non* of his being allowed to do anything in any other direction.

If these tendencies were to go on unchecked, we should ultimately have, as Jefferson foresaw, not an executive tyrant, but a poor miserable executive puppet, directed by the hands of a powerful Senatorial or legislative directory. Going on as we are, the time would come, and not be long in coming (it was actually threatened at the end of the last campaign), when a sort of permanent party committee on patronage would establish itself in Washington, consisting of such men as Quay and Platt, who would be the centre of all power—not only executive, but legislative.

From this fate there is no way in which the Presidency can be saved except the restoration of its constitutional prerogative through a tenure of administrative offices during good behavior. Mr. Harrison's plan of taking his nominations here from a State delegation, there from a Senatorial boss, and here from one faction, and there from another, may produce a fine state of intestine discord or party paralysis, but nothing more. The Presidency cannot be a real executive office as long as the civil service is in great measure controlled by the legislature, towards which Federal politics is drifting. The goal is what Jefferson was accustomed to think of as government by a directory—what we know as government by a ring.

FREEDOM OF THEOLOGICAL TEACHING.

When a man sets forth on the sea of religious controversy, he never can tell where he will fetch up, as the prolonged discussion between Prof. Huxley and his various antagonists in the *Nineteenth Century* clearly shows. The original issue must have been forgotten by the disputants themselves by this time, to say nothing of their readers. As often happens, too, a question not in sight when the controversy began, has come to have an importance and to awaken an interest greater than that of the primary dispute. Such seems to us the question of freedom in theological instruction broached in the discussion referred to. Prof. Huxley took occasion to remark that Germany and Holland were the only countries where professors of theology could feel free to "follow the argument," as Socrates used to say, unfettered by adhesion to certain conclusions beforehand. This was resented with considerable heat by Dr. Wace, who saw in it a charge of mercenary motives. Prof. Huxley thereupon disclaimed any personal imputation, but deliberately reaffirmed, after his manner as the great *malleus orthodoxorum*, that the system of binding instructors in theology to a creed was a bad one, tending at once to repress original investigation and to crush original investigators.

We think that Dr. Wace and other teachers of theology are perfectly justified in refusing to have their chairs of instruction compared with professorships of science. Theological seminaries are not founded to investigate. Professors of theology are not expected to form a creed for themselves and their pupils, but to expound that of the church which endowed their chairs for the express purpose of having its creed taught. It is not often that provisions of the charter call for this so explicitly as the Andover statutes, but it is called for just as really in the case of all other denominational seminaries. What the churches want is teachers to train young men to recruit their ministry. They appoint and pay professors in their theological schools precisely for the purpose of teaching what the church holds. The churches are not conscious of imposing fetters on the professors, and the professors are almost never conscious of wearing fetters. They generally take up their work as men of mature years, beyond the era of life when the infection of theological novelty is possible, and are perfectly content to go on in the old ways because they believe them to be the best ways. It is only natural, then, that they should be indignant at any hint that, if they could get their salaries just as well, they would hold other views.

Exception ought, perhaps, to be made of some of the more recently founded chairs in the theological seminaries of this country. To keep up with the great development of Oriental studies, several professorships or adjunct professorships have been established in different institutions, and their object involves, of course, continued historical and critical research. It is research, too, in a province comparatively new to the theologian, where he cannot tell beforehand what facts he will come upon. Hence it has more than once happened that when an occupant of such a chair has felt it to be his duty to report the facts as he found them, without attempting to reconcile them with the teaching of his colleagues, the latter have been greatly scandalized. It is a curious thing that it is almost always those professors whose work is nearest like scientific investigation, against whom suspicion of theological unsoundness is directed, and who are looked upon as disturbers of the peace of the churches. We scarce ever hear a rumor that a professor of "Polemical Theology" is "off color" theologically. He lets fly his apostolic blows and knocks to prove himself orthodox, as in old time; it is the teachers of Hebrew and Greek, instructors in Egyptology and Assyriology, who are oftenest charged with the awful crime of German Rationalism. But this, of course, simply proves what we said, that theological seminaries are not intended for investigation, and that it was a mistake of Prof. Huxley to speak of professors in them as if they were mere scientific inquirers, not knowing how the discoveries of to-morrow might change the belief of to-day.

As to the main question, whether our system of theological instruction ought to be as free as the German, it is clear that it never will be so until we have a State Church. It is to the State and not to the Church that the German professors of theology are answerable, and it is for that reason that they have freedom of instruction. The principle was laid down long ago by Frederick William III., in reply to those who were accusing Fichte of being an atheist: "It is not the business of the State to give a decision in reference to his religious principles." And the present Emperor was free to appoint Harnack to the chair of history in Berlin, in the teeth of the remonstrances of the orthodox Lutherans. Such a state of things in the religious affairs of this country cannot be imagined. The nearest we come to it, or probably ever will come to it, is the freedom from denominational obligations enjoyed by professors in our State universities. Prof. Ely has recently borne testimony to the high value placed upon this by the younger teachers of the country, and to their hope that nothing will occur to abridge it. But, of course, no State university can have a school of theology—unless a type of "mediation theology" can be devised more wonderfully non-committal than anything ever invented in Germany.

It is not necessary for us, however, to envy the Germans their freedom of theological teaching, for we have enough of it ourselves. President Patton, we believe, has remarked that the seminary never can undo the work of the college; and, though he spoke in warning lest theological unsoundness should creep into colleges, his saying suggests the great and widening influence for freedom of thought exercised by the leading colleges. And the leading colleges are those which have outgrown denominational limitations. No strictly denominational college has great promise for the future. There is every reason to expect freedom of collegiate teaching to increase from year to year, and this really means, as President Patton says, increased freedom of theological teaching. The teaching, too, which students of theology get from their own reading—far and away the best teaching they have—must always be free until some form of intellectual protection is devised to bar out the product of the foreigner; and, even if that were done, we have not a few domestic rivals of the foreign producer who might more than make good the deficit by their stimulated activity.

ENGLISH "STEAMSHIP SUBSIDIES."

We have received several letters inquiring what sums the British Government is paying in the way of "steamship subsidies." In order to furnish a correct answer, we addressed a letter to the Treasury of the United Kingdom requesting information upon this point. We have received an answer under date of June 5, 1889, from which it appears that the total cost of carrying the foreign mails of the United Kingdom, which is called, in official parlance, the Post-office Packet Service, is £498,764, or about $2,500,000. The details are as follows:

EUROPE.	Year 1888-89.
Dover and Calais	£13,200
Dover and Ostend	4,500
Total for conveyance of mails, Europe	£17,700

AMERICA.	
United Kingdom to United States	£85,000
New York and Bermuda	300
United Kingdom and West Indies	90,250
Belize and New Orleans	1,600
Newfoundland	4,000
Liverpool to Callao	11,500
Liverpool to West Indies and Mexico	1,100
Southampton to Brazil, and River Plate	5,500
Panama to Valparaiso	3,500
	£202,750
Deduct estimated amount of penalties	50
Total for conveyance of mails, America	£202,700
AFRICA.	
United Kingdom and West Coast of Africa	£9,500
United Kingdom and St. Helena and Ascension	4,474
	£13,974
Deduct estimated amount of penalties	50
Total for conveyance of mails, Africa	£13,924
INDIA, CHINA, AND AUSTRALIA.	
Between Brindisi and Bombay (via Suez Canal), calling at Aden; Between Brindisi and Shanghai (via Suez Canal), calling at Aden, Colombo, Penang, Singapore, and Hong Kong	£265,000
Between Brindisi and Adelaide and between Naples and Adelaide (via Suez Canal)	170,000
	£435,000
Deduct estimated amount of penalties	200
Total for conveyance of mails, India, China, and Australia	£434,800
RECAPITULATION.	
Europe	£17,700
America	202,700
Africa	13,924
Asia and Australia	434,800
	£669,124
Less repaid by Colonies:	
West Indies £22,360	
East Indies 63,000	
Australia 75,000	160,360
Net payment by the Imperial Government for foreign post-office packet service	£498,764

That these payments to steamship lines are simply for services rendered, being exactly like the payments to railway and stage lines for carrying the mails, is made plain by two facts. In the first place, bids for the service are advertised, and they are not restricted to British lines. The lowest bid is accepted invariably without regard to the nationality of the competing lines. Again, the British postal service, foreign and domestic, yields a net revenue of about £3,000,000, the receipts being about £8,000,000 and the expenditures about £5,000,000. The domestic telegraph service is included in these figures, the receipts from which are about equal to the expenses. The post-office is a business department of the Government, of which the foreign-packet service is a branch, and this service is procured on the same terms and conditions as the domestic. It has nothing of the character of a subsidy. It is presumed that the foreign service pays for itself in the postages collected. Certainly the European and American branches more than pay their way. Possibly the East Indian service may show a loss; but if so, it is analogous to our far Western service, where distances are great, expenses heavy, and receipts small.

There is no point of similarity between the English packet service and the proposed subsidies to shipping in this country. In the one a payment is made on the principles of competition and the open market for carrying the mails, the Government being reimbursed by the postage money collected; in the other a bounty is proposed on the basis of mileage sailed. In the former the definite end to be reached is the carrying of letters; in the latter the definite end is the sailing of the ship, or, as the friends of the measure most commonly say, the "carrying of the flag." Their idea is, that if the flag is carried around the world at Government expense, commerce will "follow the flag." Commerce will do nothing of the kind. Commerce will follow the dollar wherever it is to be found, quite regardless of bunting. The flag goes to the North pole sometimes, but commerce never follows it thither. Commerce goes to Liverpool, Havre, Bremen, and Hamburg whether the flag goes there or not.

But it may be said that Great Britain has arrived at her present stage of postal efficiency and postal solvency by subsidies paid in the past, and that she would never have been able to make ends meet in her foreign packet service without a long course of bounties. This may be true, but it does not follow that we, in the year 1889, should begin where England was in 1849. In 1849 it cost a great deal more to run steamships than it now costs, while the receipts were much smaller. There has been a steady lessening of the cost on the one side, and an increase of gain on the other, ever since. We stand to-day on as good a footing as any other country, except for our antiquated navigation laws and our antiquated tariff laws—the one forbidding us to buy ships where they can be got cheapest, and the other crippling commerce by saddling the return cargo with enormous and unnecessary duties.

ENGLISH GUILDS AS IRISH LANDLORDS.

DUBLIN, June 7.

IN the year 1611 James the First granted the greater part of the County of Derry to the Corporation of London, which undertook to colonize it with English and Scotch Protestant settlers. The motives of the plantation were partly political and partly commercial. Great benefit was expected to ensue from the exchange of London manufactured goods for the produce of this fertile country, which, wrote James, "yieldeth store of all necessary for man's sustenance in such measure as may not only maintain itself, but also furnish the city of London yearly with manifold provision." The rapid increase in the population of London was at that time considered dangerous; there were many persons whom "the city could conveniently spare," and so ease itself of "an unsupportable burden, which so surchargeth all the parts of the city that one tradesman can scarce live by another." The city was bound to plant settlers of specified classes within a limited time, to give them "certain estates" "at no uncertain rents," to establish and maintain towns, markets, schools, and churches.

This grant, revoked for breach of its conditions, was renewed by Cromwell and confirmed by Charles II. The ownership of this vast territory thus became vested in a committee of the London corporation known thenceforth as the Irish Society, an ever-changing body, twenty-four in number, half of whom retire each year and cannot be reëlected. The Irish Society divided their estate among the twelve great companies, mercers, grocers, drapers, fishmongers, goldsmiths, skinners, merchant tailors, haberdashers, salters, ironmongers, vintners, clothworkers, reserving to itself the cities of Derry and Coleraine, the woods and fishing.

For more than two hundred years the revenues allotted by the original grants for the municipal purposes of Derry and Coleraine were misapplied, squandered, and embezzled. Up to the present day no by-law of these municipalities is valid until confirmed by the Irish Society at Guildhall. About thirty years ago two Royal Commissions reported that there was neither pretext nor argument for continuing this municipal supremacy, and recommended the dissolution of the Irish Society. Examination of receipts from the property retained by the Irish Society amounting to £219,898, showed the following expenditure: Tavern expenses, £7,412; fees to members, £12,985; law expenses, £36,821; incidental expenses, £18,077. A committee of the citizens of Derry came to the conclusion that the accounts were falsified so as to conceal more unjustifiable outlays.

The Irish Society was the owner of the greater part of the ground on which Derry and Coleraine are built. As landlords, and with authority paramount over the corporations of these towns, their supremacy was complete. The companies who, as grantees of the Irish Society, took their several proportions on the same trusts and subject to the same conditions as those of the original grant, neither observed the conditions nor performed any of the duties of landlords. Until very recent times they sublet their estates as a whole to middlemen, to whom the occupiers were tenants at will, rackrented to the uttermost. Robert Slade, Secretary to the Irish Society, travelled through Derry in 1802, and published a journal, which was afterwards suppressed, of his observations. The object of the Irish Society's charter being the encouragement of a Protestant colony, he was particularly indignant at the treatment the Protestant tenants received. Excessive rents had caused wholesale emigration of the very people whom it was the duty of the city, under their charter, to protect, preserve, and settle with certain estates on the soil. "This rent-raising," he said, "leads me to question the policy, I might say the justice, of the city companies, in letting their land on payment of heavy fines, without stipulating for the performance of the relative duties between landlord and tenant." The increase of rent imposed by the lessee of the clothworkers' estate on his tenants "produced," says Slade, "an almost total emigration among them to America, where they formed a principal part of that undisciplined body which brought about the surrender of the British army at Saratoga."

It is unnecessary to consult hostile opinion as to the management of their estates by the London companies. Deputations of the Irish Society visited the city estates from time to time, and reported that schools, churches, and charitable institutions were non-existent or neglected; the property was "treated as merchandise"; the middlemen "made the most of it during their leases"; "nothing was done to improve the estates, or for the comfort and amelioration of the occupiers"; "gross mismanagement and neglect" existed: the tenants "were made to pay very high rents, and the cotters lived in perfect hovels." These reports were discontinued after 1841, from which date many of the companies obtained control of their estates by lapse of the middlemen's leases. Rapacity and neglect, however, still continued. The companies set their faces against tenant right, increased rents upon the tenants' outlay, refused to grant building leases, and, after the Land Act of 1870, claimed a customary right to increase the rent at the end of every twenty-one years. In 1854 rents in the town on the salters' estate were trebled, and in 1867 a number of rents were again doubled. The inhabitants complained that they were "driven to distraction."

Between 1870 and 1880 the mercers, drapers, skinners, and fishmongers raised their rents,

and defeated the tenants' attempts to avail themselves of the supposed advantages of the first Land Act. Some of the companies had sold their estates before this time; but in 1880 the annual value of the London estates in Derry amounted to over $400,000. A Royal Commission in 1880 reported that the property of these guilds was of a public character, and not applicable to private purposes such as banquets and fees to members. Their available income from English and Irish estates is about $2,200,000, and the actual expenditure is roughly classified thus:

Public and benevolent objects	$750,000
Banquets	500,000
Management and fees to members	500,000
Rates, taxes, and repairs	375,000

The report of the Royal Commission in 1880 gave occasion for the remark that the Guild dinners would be followed by their desserts, but no legislative action has yet been taken. Meantime the companies still retaining estates in Ireland are taking advantage of the Purchase Acts to sell to their tenants, and are thus transferring the proceeds of property, expressly granted for Irish public purposes, to England.

These wealthy and powerful corporations have always posed as model landlords, and yet, with the exception of scanty doles to clergy, schools, and some local institutions, they have spent absolutely nothing on promoting the comfort of their tenants, or improving their farms, while they consistently claimed every right the letter of the law gave them to raise rents and confiscate the improvements of their tenantry. They paid their agents liberally, and gave plenty of work to their solicitors, but otherwise the revenues raised in Ireland have been spent in England, to a large extent, in gluttonous eating and drinking, and in fees improperly distributed among their members. Their profuse hospitality to politicians and public men of every shade of opinion has covered many of their iniquities and averted many threatened inquisitions into their affairs.

In the process of disposal of their estates, it has just come to light that one of the wealthiest of these companies, the drapers, has employed means to effect a sale to their tenants which, in the case of a private owner, would expose him to universal condemnation, if not to criminal proceedings for intimidation. From correspondence recently published, and questions asked but not yet fully answered in Parliament, it appears that this company entered into negotiations for the sale of their estate, which extends to 27,000 acres. In 1880 the then agent reported that there were smaller arrears of rent on this than on the estate of any other company, but, in consequence of the adverse seasons and low prices since prevalent, many of the tenants owed several years' rent in 1888. To give point to their negotiations, as the tenants' offer was less than the company's demand, the latter served ejectments wholesale; the tenants' stock and goods were seized, and the sheriff, with a large force of police, bailiffs, and siege apparatus, attended to take possession of the farms. These proceedings were stayed on the tenants' executing agreements to buy at the prices in excess of those they originally refused by the addition of the rent and costs due. These agreements, signed at the bayonet's point, concealed the fact that judicial rents had been fixed by the county court judge; the old and higher rents were stated as the legal rents on the face of these agreements, for the purpose, apparently, of making the price seem to be a smaller number of "years' purchase" on the rent than if the legal rents had been expressed, as they should have been.

Intimidation, undue influence, and duress were thus employed to extort the execution of contracts which are supposed to be matters of voluntary arrangement, and the contracts drawn up by the company's solicitors—the tenants having no professional advice—if not actually fraudulent in the concealment of material facts, were certainly misleading. Even Mr. Balfour has gone so far as to admit in the House of Commons that the company's action was "discreditable." Mr. T. Healy has asked that the company shall be prosecuted; but as a thoroughly conservative solidarity exists among these powerful and wealthy corporations, it is unlikely that the Government will countenance any legal proceedings against them, and none could be undertaken except at the instance of the Government.

This incident may, however, lead to an early consideration of the trusts under which these companies hold their Irish estates. Although the force of public opinion has, during the last five years, led the city guilds to spend less on dinners and fees to their members, and more upon objects of acknowledged public utility, nothing has been done to restrain them from spending their Irish incomes in England, and from throwing the proceeds of their Irish sales into hotchpot with their English property. A just appropriation of this guild property, whenever Parliament takes up the matter effectively, would require that the value of the Irish property in its original extent should be allocated to Irish public purposes. The Irish party have up to this shown great supineness on this question, but, in the hands of Mr. Timothy Healy, a new departure may be expected.

AN IRISHMAN.

POLITICS AND THE EXPOSITION.

PARIS, June 13, 1889.

THE Exposition continues to be the all-absorbing topic of interest; the number of visitors increases constantly; on the 10th of June (Whitsuntide Monday) there were as many as 353,000. Curiously enough, the doors of the Exhibition are surrounded with boys and women who offer to you tickets at half-price The regular price is one franc in the daytime, but these tickets have been thrown on the market in such abundance that they have gradually fallen to fifty centimes. There was a sort of lottery made to cover the expenses of the Exhibition: 1,200,000 lottery tickets were issued and subscribed for at the price of 25 francs, each bearing twenty-five common tickets of entrance to the Exhibition. Most of the subscribers have merely kept the body of the bond, which gives them the chance to get a large prize when the drawings of the lottery take place, and have disposed at almost any price of the twenty-five tickets which were joined to the bond. Thus it is that the speculators have thrown on Paris 30,000,000 tickets of entrance to the Exhibition, or at least a large proportion of that number, and it will be a long time before they are absorbed and the entrance to the Exhibition comes back to its normal price. The spirit of speculation has entered everywhere. You can hardly find a person who has not bought one of the bonds I mention, and sometimes at a premium, with the hope of getting one of the prizes of 200,000 francs which have been promised to the public. The lottery used to be a public institution in France, as it is still in Italy; it was abolished in 1830, and is now forbidden in principle, but *de facto* the Government can authorize a lottery when it has a charitable object, and the number of authorized lotteries is increasing every day. You can hardly enter a tobacco-shop without seeing lottery-tickets for sale. The Exhibition lottery was authorized by the State, and it has at least had the advantage of furnishing the funds necessary to the Exhibition.

Day after day some new attraction is added to the great show in the Champ de Mars and the Place des Invalides; every train brings more strangers, the hotels are crowded, the boulevards are teeming with people, and, at night, under the electric lamps, thousands of visitors are seen sitting in front of the cafés in the open air. Wherever you go, you find a crowd. The restaurants and the theatres complained at first that the Exhibition drew away all their customers, and even had the impertinence to ask that the Exhibition should be shut at night at least three times a week. They do not complain any more. I went to the Français a few days ago to see Mounet-Sully in *Hamlet* (a more admirable and poetical *Hamlet* it is difficult to imagine), and every seat was taken; the audience, which was almost exclusively composed of foreigners, showed a degree of enthusiasm not often exhibited by Parisians. Go where you like, to the races, to Buffalo Bill's, to the reviews of our gymnastic societies, to the Exhibition, you find crowds everywhere; the population seems to multiply itself and to have a sort of ubiquity.

In the midst of all this confusion and excitement, politics seems quite lost sight of. The Chamber was almost forgotten, as well as the High Senatorial Court of Justice, which is looking into the Boulangist conspiracy, till, a few days ago, some new arrests were made, houses searched, and trunks seized, containing, it is said, 30,000 letters and cards received by General Boulanger. It seems very much as if the Government wished to drag the inquest along so as to gain time and to avoid a trial during what may be called the golden days of the Exhibition. Boulanger himself is in London, and seems to be as quiet there as he was active and restless in France. I was in England a few days ago, and my English friends all agreed that his attitude was that of great reserve: he did not force himself on public attention; he was received by a few people, but he did not allow journalists to interview him, he did not make long speeches, and, whenever he dined out, he surprised the company more by his silence than by his sayings. His lieutenants here are not so quiet. They are probably discouraged, but they continue to assume an air of great confidence, and keep up the *feu sacré* as well as they can. Some days ago they were to hold a public meeting and have a banquet at Angoulême; but when they arrived in that town, they found a large military force in front of the railway station, and, after some remarks made by one of them to a commissary of police, they were all taken to the prison of Angoulême, where they were kept a few days. One of them was a deputy, M. Laguerre, who thought he should be covered by his parliamentary immunities, but who found that M. Constans, the present Home Minister, did not respect these immunities so long as he had a majority at his back. When M. Laguerre, in prison, made his protest, he was told that he would be set free if he would promise not to appear and speak at the banquet which had been announced.

It is rather curious to recall in this circumstance the famous banquet which was the cause of the Revolution of 1848, and to find the men who made a revolution in order to assure the right of public meeting, now opposing military force and all the power of the State to a few men who wish to hold a banquet in the distant and quiet city of Angoulême. An interpellation was made yesterday in the Cham-

ber on this subject, but the Minister, M. Constans, came forward, and proudly said: "Ipse adsum qui feci." He took a bold attitude: he was not going, he said, to *tolerate* any agitation in the country; he would not have a few men going about creating an unnecessary excitement in departments to which they did not belong. This promises well for the liberty of the next elections. Constans has been Governor of Cochinchina, and has learned in Asia the rules of a free government. Under public pressure, M. Laguerre and his associates have been allowed to leave their prison till the day of their trial; but it is clear that M. Constans and the prefects who received his orders have adopted a policy of intimidation. All parties in France invoke liberty as long as they are in opposition, and show their contempt for it when they are in power.

If France seems to have become indifferent to the incidents of domestic politics, she is even more so with regard to foreign affairs. It may be said that the great mass of the electoral body ignores what is going on beyond the frontier; it does not care for the journey of the King of Italy and of Crispi to Berlin—for the details of the military convention signed between Prussia and Italy, which is said to have reinforced the alliance between the two countries—for the attitude of the English Cabinet in face of the triple alliance of Prussia, Austria, and Italy. The incidents of the political life of the new principalities and kingdoms leave our public absolutely indifferent, or are only regarded on what may be called their dramatic side. There is but one sentiment which, rightly or wrongly, has pervaded the public mind, a sentiment which is spontaneous and ineradicable: it is a belief in a necessary, a fatal combination of the forces of Republican France and of autocratic Russia against the forces of Germany. Every utterance of the Emperor of Russia, in this respect, has its importance; and when, the other day, he said that his only faithful ally was the Prince of Montenegro, there was a thrill of satisfaction all through the country. This indirect denunciation of the great continental Powers, this bold assumption of Russia's independence, her content with the alliance of a poor little mountainous principality, which can only bring a few thousand men in the field—was not this an indirect promise made to France, an indirect hope extended to her, an indirect protest against the influences which are paramount in the constellation of Prussia, Austria, and Italy? It would be difficult to convince an average Frenchman that this indirect promise may be illusive, that France cannot count, in the last analysis, in case of a new war with Germany, on the support of Russia. In vain will you tell him that there is no treaty of alliance between the French Republic and St. Petersburg, that the nature of the Republican Constitution makes a secret alliance an impossibility. He will tell you that no signed document is necessary, that the interests of France and Russia are common, and that the two countries must be found together in the next European struggle.

History has many lessons which are not always understood. Prussia and Russia may be, or may appear at times, very inimical; their mutual relations may not be wrongly expressed by the verses which Catullus wrote for his mistress:

> "Odi et amo; quare id faciam, fortasse requiris.
> Nescio! sed fieri sentio et excrucior."

The two great empires of the north have combined more than they have separated their action. If the worst came to the worst, if Germany felt the pressure of a great danger, she could give Russia satisfaction which it would be difficult for France to give: she could, in the last analysis, show her the way to Constantinople, and oblige Austria to come to a settlement with Russia in the peninsula of the Balkans. A partition of Turkey, similar to the old partition of Poland, is always possible. The interests of Russia can be satisfied in a thousand ways in the East, she can obtain free access to the Mediterranean; her ambition can find many channels, and her present sullen attitude is not owing to any platonic love for France, but merely to the discontent created by the Treaty of Berlin.

Such reasonings, however, have no force here; and, what with the success of the Exposition, the lull in domestic politics, and our absolute belief in the sympathies of Russia, we are resolved to be optimists—as long, at least, as possible.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON'S PEDIGREE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The public interest in everything concerning Washington is my excuse for troubling you with a few words about his pedigree. All genealogists are aware of two facts—first, that Sir Isaac Heard, Garter King of Arms, in 1791 supposed that he had traced George Washington's ancestry; second, that the late Col. Joseph L. Chester in 1866 entirely disproved this affiliation on the essential point of the identification of the emigrants with any of the persons recorded in the English pedigree. Since then the problem has remained unsolved, although Col. Chester was most persistent in collecting all the data recoverable in regard to all of the name.

I am now most happy to say that Mr. Henry F. Waters, who has succeeded Col. Chester in the honorable position of the best investigator of American pedigrees in England, has discovered a very promising clue as to the parentage of Laurence and John Washington, the emigrants to Virginia. As Mr. Waters's results are to be published in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, I can only state now that he has found a Laurence Washington who had sons Laurence, baptized 1635, John (baptism not recorded), and William, baptized 1641. There is positive evidence to identify the son Laurence with the Virginian colonist who died in 1676. Mr. Waters's brilliant success in tracing out the family of the Rev. John Harvard, to say nothing of the less distinguished pedigrees which he has traced, is the best proof that he will follow up and amplify this initial discovery.

But now is the time, in furtherance of his work in England, to show clearly what is known of the Washingtons in America, especially in the first generation, and therein I ask for your assistance.

Sir Isaac Heard identified the emigrants with John and Laurence, sons of Laurence W. of Sulgrave and Brington. Col. Chester proved that this John was knighted in 1623, twice married, and that his widow, Dorothy, died in 1678—all facts entirely incompatible with his being the emigrant to Virginia. His brother Laurence, born in 1602, was made Rector of Purleigh in Essex in 1633, ejected as a Royalist, and afterwards allowed to hold a poor living. His later history had not been traced by Col. Chester. Although the old error has at times shown vitality since, it may be accepted as a fixed fact that the emigrants were *not* these sons of Laurence of Sulgrave.

In 1872 the late Albert Welles published a pretentious 'Washington Genealogy,' tracing the emigrants to Leonard Washington of Warton. This affiliation was presumably a rank forgery, as no authorities were given, and the records at Warton do not mention any such children.

Col. Chester wrote me in 1879 that he had an old deed which he presumed was signed by John Washington, the emigrant, but he needed an American example of his signature for comparison.

Bishop Meade, in his admirable book on the 'Old Churches and Families of Virginia,' in 1857, vol. i, 167, states that the will of Laurence Washington was then at Tappahannock, the county-seat of Essex County. This will is printed in full in Welles's book. Meade also states that the original will of John Washington, of which he gives an abstract, was then on record at Westmoreland Court-house, "in an old book of wills, though in a somewhat mutilated form."

By the kindness of R. A. Brock, Esq., of Richmond, the highest living authority on Virginian genealogies, I learn that this will is no longer on file. This confirms the unpleasant rumor that this document disappeared during the late civil war. I therefore appeal to your readers to assist us by calling attention to the great importance of the recovery of this document, believing that it cannot have been destroyed, and may have fallen into the hands of those who are simply ignorant of the value of the paper beyond a mere curiosity. I also hope that some of your readers will take the trouble to inform us in detail of what took place in Westmoreland County during the war, what troops occupied the Court-house, and what other damage, if any, was inflicted there.

In the same connection I would state that in the *Historical Magazine* for 1867, pages 29 and 30, Mr. Dawson printed a document furnished by M. M. Jones, Esq., of Utica, N. Y. It was a copy made by him in 1862 at Annapolis, from the Colonial Records there. I hope some one will examine and report if the papers still exist there, and that search will be made for the letter of John Washington, dated September 30, 1659. This letter has been cited as a proof that John came over in Edward Prescott's ship in 1658. A careful reading makes it doubtful that Washington was anything more than an active complainant in the matter.

I remain yours very respectfully,

William H. Whitmore.

Boston, Mass., P. O. Box 3478.

GROUPING BY PARTIES VS. GROUPING BY OFFICES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 13th inst., you refer with approval to a suggested amendment to the Connecticut Ballot Bill, allowing the grouping of candidates under party names upon the official ballots. The practical difference between the system of printing the whole ticket of each party in a group by itself, and that of grouping the names of all candidates for each office under the title of that office, is that the former makes it easier to vote a "straight" ticket than a "split" one. In regard to this you say:

"There is no objection to the grouping by parties. Such arrangement may aid the ignorant voters in marking their ballots, and will certainly diminish the chances of confusion and delay in putting the new system into practice."

In your issue of April 25, "J. H. W.," in his letter about the Rhines vote-recording ma-

chine, objected to the system of grouping by parties, as fostering blind adherence to party candidates by practically inviting the voter to vote a straight ticket. While fully agreeing with him, I think that even a more fundamental objection may be made. The Constitutions of Arkansas, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee require that elections shall be equal, and this equality is obviously so essential that it may probably be considered a part of the common law of all the States. This cannot be merely an equality as regards the voters; the candidates also must stand on equal terms, for the rights of voters and candidates are clearly correlative. My objection to the system of grouping by parties is simply that it violates this equality. The Constitutions of these ten States know nothing of straight tickets and give them no privileges. If I choose to vote for candidates of different parties, or representing different bodies of citizens, I have in Pennsylvania a constitutional right to do so with exactly the same ease and facility with which my neighbor votes his straight ticket, and I believe I should have a natural right to do so anywhere. The Legislature has no right to make me pick out my candidates from all parts of the ticket and mark each name separately, when my neighbor can exercise his full right of suffrage by a simple mark against the party title or even by marking every name in one single group. There are very few things in which the law does or can require equality, but an election is such a thing; and so long as practical equality can be secured, there is no reason why it should be surrendered in the smallest degree.

This inequality of party men and independents may seem trifling, but it is just such trifles that turn the scale in an election. It may be infinitesimal as regards each individual vote, but collectively it puts at a great disadvantage all candidates whose strength lies in the facility of independent voting. Human nature being what it is, thousands of voters are certain to vote the easiest way; and just so long as the party way is the easiest, we may expect to see elections carried on strict party lines, and to have candidates of the leading parties gain additional strength on that account. A system which encourages men, as "J. H. W." points out, to vote blindly, works against those candidates whose success depends upon the voters exercising some care, and not voting blindly; and if, under any method of elections, candidates or sets of candidates can receive the votes of their supporters with less trouble to them, even to a trifling extent, than other candidates can, the right of equal elections, which is secured by the constitution in some States, and should be respected in all, is violated both as to candidates and as to voters.

CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, June 17, 1889.

A REMEDY FOR LEGISLATIVE DEGENERACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A perusal of your columns for the last ten years will show an ever-repeated complaint at the gradual degeneration of our legislative bodies. It is asserted that men of real ability will no longer be candidates for State legislatures, or that, if they consent to enter these assemblies, they do so only with a view to the quickest possible promotion into the higher sphere of national politics. As a consequence, these legislatures are said to sink gradually to the low moral and mental level which city councils and county boards throughout the country have long ago reached.

Will you allow me to suggest a possible remedy for this dangerous state of things?

The business of legislative bodies, as at present constituted, is twofold. In the first place, it is legislation proper—that is, the making of statutes of a public and permanent character. This evidently requires men of the highest character, of the widest information, greatest sagacity and experience. It is here precisely that our legislatures fail most signally. The statute-book of every State is encumbered with foolish, mischievous, or inefficient laws. But this is only the smallest portion of the business of a legislative session. The greater part of the work is really of an administrative, not legislative character. It is work of precisely the same nature as that performed by county boards and city councils. It consists of the appropriation of money for the support of public institutions, the adjustment of salaries of State employees, the granting of special privileges, like the building of dams across rivers, and a multitude of other business of a similar description. It will certainly not be claimed that work of this kind requires the same order of talents as the passing of statutes which, in their effect, may change the whole course of development of a State.

Why, then, I should ask, must these two entirely distinct kinds of business be transacted by the same set of men? Why can we not elect an administrative assembly, or whatever you may choose to call it, to meet annually and transact business of an administrative nature, while leaving the legislative function proper to a body of men sitting at longer intervals, say once in five years, and elected for this special purpose? I cannot doubt but that this arrangement would greatly elevate the character of the legislatures, for men of standing and talent would be attracted by the greater dignity attaching to a body rarely meeting, while, on the other hand, the small-bore politicians now swarming in legislative halls would find no room for the exercise of their peculiar talents in the legislature proper. They would strive to secure a seat in the administrative council, where alone they would be enabled to further the special interests each of his constituency—for it is well known that that is the only object the average well-meaning and honest member of a legislature has in view. The corrupt man, also, and his accompanying evil-doer, the lobbyist, would find little or no room for their pernicious activity in the legislature where no "jobs" are to be done and no "deals" to be effected.

There is nothing radical or revolutionary in this scheme. It is merely a further development in the direction which in former times led to the diversification of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government.—Respectfully yours,

ERNEST BRUNCKEN.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.

THE PLACING OF GREEK TEMPLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of March 14 contains a letter from Mr. W. J. Stillman in which he asserts that the Greek temples were located rather with reference to defence than to architectural effect. While I have never been in Greece, I am fairly familiar with such of the Sicilian temples as were visible thirteen years ago, and especially with those at Segesta, Selinus, and Agrigentum which he mentions. From my memory of all of them I feel inclined to call his statement in question.

The temples at Selinus might perhaps be cited on both sides of the question, as they stand together on a slight elevation at the head of what was once the harbor, but what is now an alluvial swamp. They are in a commanding situation, which seems to have been reserved for public buildings, and might perhaps have been a citadel; but the beauty of the situation would have justified their position on that ground.

But it is more especially on the temples in the other two cities that I base my argument. Agrigentum, like Lausanne in Switzerland, but unlike any other city with which I am acquainted, is built on one long hillside sloping up about eight feet in one hundred from the Mediterranean, the nearest point of the old city having been about a mile and a half from the sea. The city in its prime was very large, and stretched upward even to the summit of the range of hills, where, indeed, are the ruins of a small temple, but nothing like an acropolis. On the contrary, the great temples, of which there are at least six, were scattered along the low southern edge of the city, the part nearest the sea. The temples of Concord* and of Lacinian Juno were situated close by the wall, on a slight elevation, the scarped face of which forms the wall in that place. This is formed of a crumbling sandstone full of recent shells, and so soft that it can almost be worked with a sharp stick; and besides this, it is honey-combed with tombs. These may of course be of later date than the temples, but the place was never one of very great strength. The temples of Olympian Jupiter and of Castor and Pollux, a little further west, as I recollect them, do not seem any more to have been situated with reference to defence, while the temple of Æsculapius was outside the walls and at a considerable distance from them.

This lowest part of the city can hardly have been chosen for the temples on account of its defensive strength; but, on the other hand, the view of the long series of public buildings standing out in bold relief must have been wonderfully impressive to the stranger approaching the city from its port—especially that of the two temples first named, which, from their position on the low scarped cliff, with no intervening wall, would have been visible down to the stylobate, and would have seemed to have all the added height of the rock. The little eminence on which they stand makes them now equally imposing from above as from below; but it is possible that the upper view may have been partially cut off by buildings.

My own idea concerning these temples is, that they were built in the long interval of prosperity between the death of Theron and the attack of the Carthaginians, when to the luxurious city the idea of danger must have seemed almost as remote as it does to us today. When all the available space in what was doubtless the earliest settlement at the top of the hill had been gradually occupied in the days of the city's early struggles, and the city, grown to greatness, had already stretched far down the hill, these new magnificent public buildings were placed along the southern wall so as best to show forth the splendor of the place.

The temple at Segesta is placed on the summit of a conical hill, which shows no signs of having had other structures on its slopes, and apparently never was inside of the city limits. Although it could have been readily fortified, it must always have been an outpost and not a

* It should be borne in mind that, with the exception of the temple of Olympian Jupiter, the names ascribed to these ruins are fictitious, being given *faute de mieux*.

citadel. The hill adjoining, on which the city is built, does not seem ever to have been so covered with buildings that a temple site could not readily have been found corresponding to the sites at Agrigentum and nearer at hand; but as I remember the majestic way in which this little green hill, rising in an amphitheatre of bare, rugged mountains, is crowned by the solemn harmony of the perfect outlines of this temple of the people's gods, it is as impossible for me to believe that this situation was not chosen for its beauty as that the temple itself was built by chance without a plan. N. J. B.

SYRACUSE, N. Y., June 17, 1889.

THE CENTURY DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am surprised to learn, from Mr. Peirce's very frank letter in your issue of the 20th inst., that some of the definitions of the 'Century Dictionary' which I criticised were his. The contrast which I mentioned between the definitions in mathematics and mathematical physics and those in astronomy and experimental physics I supposed to mark the line between his work and that of some less skilful hand. Still more surprising is it to see him call my strictures on the description of the 'Almagest' of Ptolemy as a "book or collection of problems" "hypercritical." Would he defend a lexicographer who should define the 'Mécanique Céleste' as a collection of mathematical and astronomical problems by Laplace? Yet the description would be fully as correct as that in question.

In the case of the word *alidade*, my objection was directed to the statement that it is an attachment of every instrument for measuring angles. Are the stone piers on which the meridian circles of our great observatories are supported ever called alidades?

The sentence under *Law of action and reaction* which I supposed to be an interpolation is, as Mr. Peirce correctly infers, this: "By *action* is here meant, according to Newton, a quantity measured by the force multiplied into the velocity of the point of application." I think he is entirely mistaken in supposing that Newton gives this definition of the word as used in his statement of the law. I can find no such definition in the 'Principia.'

Since my strictures upon some of the definitions on the 'Century Dictionary' appeared in your issue of the 13th inst., I have hastily glanced through the remainder of the letter A, and noticed the following faulty definitions. The word *approximation* is defined as if it were identical with what is known as the method of successive approximations. The definition of *diurnal arc* is meaningless: "the arc described by the heavenly bodies in consequence of the diurnal rotation of the earth." Of course there is no definite arc thus described, but only an endless repetition of one and the same circle. The term is actually applied to that portion of the sun's apparent daily path which is above the horizon. The same term is, I believe, applied to the apparent paths of the stars above the horizon. *Nocturnal arc* is new to me, but I think its definition also incorrect. *Argus*, the constellation, is omitted, though *Aries* and *Aquarius* are included. S. NEWCOMB.

CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES IN THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I desire to correct a statement made in your editorial for May 30, 1889, entitled "A Revised Westminster." In the paragraph beginning, "One should bear in mind," etc., you say:

"The analogy is fair enough, though it overlooks the fact that the same judges may be found in all three bodies, reviewing, for example, in Synod or Assembly, decisions which they themselves have helped to make in Presbytery. It is quite out of the question, then, to have a fresh and impartial review by higher judicatories of a case arising in a lower."

A little reflection would have shown you *à priori* that such a state of things would not be tolerated in a body standing so high in honesty and ability as the Presbyterian clergymen. Before making such a statement, you should have examined the Constitution of the church about which you were writing, to see if these things were really so. In the Constitution, book ii., chap. vii., section iii., par. xii., you may read: "Members of judicatories appealed from cannot be allowed to vote in the superior judicatory on any question connected with the appeal."

Please publish this correction as the only way you can make amends.

Yours respectfully,

ABEL H. HUIZINGA.

NEW PALTZ, N. Y., June 16, 1889.

[We were not writing of judicial cases, but of the method of effecting constitutional changes in the Presbyterian Church. If the Presbytery of New York votes in favor of creed revision, there will be and can be no "appeal" from that decision; and the members of the Presbytery who help to make it might be in Synod to vote the same way on the same question there, and some of them would surely be in the next Assembly to sustain their views in that body. Our correspondent must know this, and will see, on reflection, that he entirely missed the point of the remark he takes exception to.—ED. NATION.]

THE *MANHATTAN'S* CONTRIBUTORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I contributed to the *Manhattan* an article that was ready to have appeared (with illustrations) in the number after the last. In my case the editor "acted" like a gentleman until the concern suspended. He promised faithfully "as a gentleman" that he would see that my manuscript was cherished and preserved, whatever might happen to the magazine; for I had suspicions that disaster was coming. After the disaster no communications were noticed, though I have the best reasons for believing that they reached the eyes of the gentlemanly editor. The present whereabouts of my MS. and of the illustrations is unknown to "another wretched contributor" who has survived the loss. R. N.

THE IDEAL HOLIDAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Walking last night through a suburb of Boston, I passed the gate of a brewery, where a number of workmen were smoking their pipes and listening to a fat orator standing in his shirt-sleeves before them. The scraps of wisdom that I caught in hurrying by would require more space than they deserve were I to indicate all the interspersed profanity by dashes.

"I tell you," declared the orator, with a German tang to his tongue, "there's not a legal holiday in the United States!"

He paused a moment for a reply, which soon came from an Irishman: "How about the Foorth of July?"

"Ach!" said the German: "what could stop a man from working then if he wanted to?"

That was all I heard. It opened up such a vista of legal holidays in Labor's millennium, when officers of the law, armed with pistols and clubs, are to shoot or knock down the first man lifting his hand to do a stroke of work, that I think the workingman—whatever his employment—should contemplate the happy vision. M. H., JR.

BOSTON, June 17, 1889.

Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT have in press 'Signs of Promise,' sermons preached in Plymouth pulpit during the past two years by the Rev. Lyman Abbott.

J. B. Lippincott Co. publish shortly a midsummer novel, 'Three Days,' by Samuel Williams Cooper, with illustrations.

Ginn & Co. will publish in July 'Pages choisies des Mémoires du Duc de Saint-Simon,' edited for school use by Alphonse N. Van Daell; and, in August, Dumas's 'Trois Mousquetaires,' edited by Prof. F. C. Sumichrast.

Willard Fracker & Co. will soon publish in book form the Chicago *Tribune* prize novel entitled 'By a Hair's Breadth,' by Edith Sessions Tupper, who is now at work upon a new novel to be entitled 'By Whose Hand.'

Col. T. W. Higginson has been appointed by Gov. Ames of Massachusetts to undertake the writing of a history of the State's soldiers and sailors in the civil war, as provided by the last Legislature. Five years are allowed for the task, which has certainly fallen into good hands, and the execution of which will profit by the interval of a generation since the events in question.

The Messrs. Rivington, London, send us the new issue of the 'Annual Register' for 1888. The year was eminently one of transition in the politics of the four leading countries of the globe. The Tory policy maintained itself in Great Britain, but without inspiring any of its supporters with a belief in its finality, and with manifold signs of the growth of opposition among the electors at large. Across the Channel, Boulanger was rolling up his majorities, and disputing with President Carnot the leadership of the nation. Germany had her three emperors in quick succession. In the United States the Democratic Administration was unseated. All this the 'Register' tells with its customary incorporation of documents. It gives a part of the Republican platform on which Mr. Harrison was elected, omitting the virtuous professions in regard to civil-service reform. One might find fault with this; but the editor disarms criticism by only aiming to present "some of the most important 'planks,'" and we all know now that that on the civil service was one of the least important. The usual survey of literature, art, and science, and the obituary of eminent persons conclude the volume.

Mr. Lewis Sergeant renews his 'Government Year-Book' with a second volume for 1889 (London: T. Fisher Unwin). The peculiarity of this annual is its aim to exhibit the working of the governments included in its scope, with constant reference to the organic law of the several nations; or, in the words of the original preface, "to review each year the most striking of contemporary events, and to note how they hinge upon or tend to modify political organizations." As this is in the spirit of Mr.

Bryce's great study, 'The American Commonwealth,' one might have expected a reference to this work in the present volume, in the chapter devoted to the United States; but there is no sign that the present editor ever heard of it. He has reproduced last year's sketch of our Government with no other significant alteration than the giving in full the text of some of the amendments to the Constitution which were summarized last year. Now, as then, while telling of State railway commissions, he has no mention of the Inter-State Commerce Commission. He also allows himself to repeat his whimsical remark that the civil war was a "not very satisfactory manner" of settling the questions of slavery and national unity. The typography of the 'Government Year-Book' has been much improved, and the permanent skeleton of the work, the account of institutions, has been wisely separated from the yearly record of the events which develop and react upon the fundamental law.

Ginn & Co. put on the American market a 'Latin-English Dictionary,' for "Junior Boys in Schools," by C. G. Gepp and A. E. Haigh, whose scheme has much to recommend it. Stress has been laid on poetic usages and constructions; "words peculiar to Plautus or Lucretius, or to prose writers subsequent to the reign of Trajan, have been purposely excluded"; proper names and their derivatives are inserted in alphabetical order, as are syncopated and contracted forms, etc., etc. The references are to standard English grammars. The only fault we have to find with this admirably printed little volume is that the type is perilously fine. For infrequent reference this would be a slight objection, but for daily use it is a very serious one.

A third sheet of the whole State completes the Atlas of New Jersey published by the State Geological Survey. The first was political, the second a relief-map; the present (numbered 20) is colored for the geological formations. The newer and the older portions of the territory are clearly marked off, and their line of division very nearly coincides with that of the Pennsylvania Railroad. The course of the terminal moraine of the great northern ice-sheet, whose southernmost limit is Perth Amboy, is also exhibited, and is approximately identical with that of the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad, after the moraine begins its westerly trend at Summit. The execution of this sheet, like that of the rest of the Atlas, is of a high order, as is customary with what proceeds from Mr. Julius Bien's establishment. We should add that the sheets of the Atlas are procurable separately, at twenty-five cents apiece, by addressing Mr. Irving S. Upson, New Brunswick, N. J. The demand for them, we understand, has been large.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey, Prof. Geo. H. Cook, derives its technical interest from an extended discussion of the red sandstone area, by his assistant, Mr. Frank L. Nason. The endeavor is made to trace the synchronous horizons in this rock, to determine thereby the lines of faults, and thus to throw light upon the marked inclination of a sedimentary deposit nearly three miles in thickness, whose movement in one mass is hard to conceive of.

The seventh annual report (for 1887-88) of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens has to tell of the completion and occupancy of the new building, of the failure as yet to secure an endowment which will maintain a permanent director, of the temporary arrangement with Dr. Waldstein, etc. The work of the year is described by Prof. D'Ooge and Prof. Merriam, the excavations at Sicyon and Icaria possessing the chief interest. But of these our Greek correspondents have sufficiently spoken. The report is very freely and beautifully illustrated with heliotype views of the School and of the scene of excavations at Icaria. There is besides a map of northeastern Attica and a drawing after a graceful statue found at Sicyon.

The May *Library Bulletin* of Cornell University gives the present size of the collection as in excess of 102,000 volumes and 29,000 pamphlets.

Judge Mellen Chamberlain of the Boston Public Library read before the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Good Citizenship last February a biographical sketch of "Josiah Quincy, the Great Mayor." This has now been reprinted by the Society, with a steel portrait of the man who was both a great mayor, a great administrator, a great orator, and a very eminent statesman, and whom it would be hard to parallel now in any one of his public aspects, let alone all combined. The tract is very properly issued by a society having at heart the making of good citizens.

There was an error in our recent note on the late meeting of the American Library Association. We spoke of "modes of entry favoring popular ignorance in opposition to the more theoretically consistent practice of the British Museum—in favor, that is, of entry under much used pseudonyms in place of the real name, under the titles of British noblemen, and under the best known instead of under the last name of a married or divorced or remarried woman." The practice of the British Museum is correctly stated only in the last two cases: it enters noblemen under family names and married women under the last name; but in the first case it enters not merely well-known but all pseudonyms under the false name with a reference from the real name.

It is announced that only seven more instalments of the Life of Lincoln will appear in the *Century*.

Capt. Vangele's account of his explorations which settled the dispute among geographers as to the identity of the Mobangi and the Welle Rivers, is contained in the June Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. He describes the natives dwelling along the river for some four hundred miles above its confluence with the Congo as fine specimens of their race, having some mechanical skill, being "very fair workers in iron" for instance, but as inveterate cannibals. Though the various tribes are constantly engaged in raiding each other, he did not see a single slave. "All that is killed is eaten on the spot; what is captured alive is carried off, and eaten as the occasion arises." Several times he attempted to rescue these unfortunate captives. "'*It is meat*,' they always replied, 'and we don't sell it.' In fact, it is very characteristic that the names used to designate the man reserved for meat and the goat, whose destiny is the same, are almost similar, the first being *moboli* and the second *mboli*." Beyond the furthest limit reached by Mr. Grenfell in the *Peace*, he came among natives whose women had hair "hanging down in long and slender curling tresses finally united in one. I measured some of these tresses more than six feet long. Some of the women rolled these tresses round their heads like turbans," keeping them in place by "well carved and well designed" ivory pins. They also wore ivory bracelets which "seem to have been made on the lathe." The further eastward he went, the more densely populated and fertile he found the country. At the same time the friendliness of the natives changed to hostility, which culminated in a determined attack upon the expedition when within some sixty miles of a point on the Welle reached by Dr. Junker, and Capt. Vangele was reluctantly compelled to turn back.

The last three numbers of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) continue Mr. Loftie's articles on Westminster Abbey, with numerous illustrations; the April number concludes Mr. Selwyn Brinton's two on the Certosa of Pavia, and Mr. Page's four on Dartmoor. Mr. A. H. Palmer begins in May a series on the famous animal painter, Joseph Wolf. In May and June Mr. Reginald T. Bloomfield makes use of MSS. and drawings at Chatsworth to throw a little more light on the career of Inigo Jones, not neglecting his architecture, but laying more stress on his designs for the stage—in the performance of masques at court, etc.—and his part in introducing movable scenery, which the public theatres still discarded. These details are very interesting and are well illustrated. The most striking print in the numbers of the *Portfolio* under review is a photogravure after an early marine by Turner.

L'Art (Macmillan), in its latest issues, has felt the influence of the Exposition, and has had at the same time to render an account of the Salon, employing, as usual, by way of illustration, not only autographic copies of the pictures themselves, but also facsimiles of the painters' studies for them. At the same time it has essayed a review, which might easily make a volume, of the painters of the hundred years 1789–1889, with portraits and specimens of their work. There is a still further variety in the table of contents, which we lack the room to specify; but we will recommend the article on the lamented sculptor Longepied, who died a year ago.

According to the second annual report of the Harvard Law School Association, the membership now amounts to 816, of whom a little more than half reside in Massachusetts, 100 in New York, 49 in Ohio, 24 in Illinois, 20 in the District of Columbia, etc.—no section of the Union being unrepresented. About four times as many graduates are known to be living, and as the fees (of admission and annual) are nominal, there seems to be no reason why graduate and member should not be synonymous terms. The Treasurer is Mr. Winthrop H. Wade, 10 Tremont St., Boston. The Association offers yearly prizes for essays, and also extends pecuniary aid to the Law School, for the betterment of instruction.

The thirty-eighth meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held in Toronto, beginning on August 27.

The eighth International Congress of Orientalists will assemble at Stockholm and Christiania from the 2d to the 13th of September, 1889, under the Presidency of his Majesty King Oscar of Sweden. The programme (an English edition of which has been issued by the Smithsonian Institution) presents a variety of intellectual and other treats. Membership can be secured by addressing Dr. Cyrus Adler, U. S. National Museum, Washington, D. C. The fee ($4) entitles persons desiring to attend to all the privileges of the Congress. Persons not desiring to attend, colleges and libraries will secure by subscribing a full set of the Transactions of the Congress. When offered for sale, the Transactions usually bring more for each volume than the price of the subscription. A number of American learned bodies have sent special delegates to the Congress.

—Mr. Justice Miller opens the July *Harper's* with a history of the State of Iowa and a

brief description of the character of its people and the resources of the land. The palaces of St. Petersburg give the illustrations to the Russian article, which is from the journeyman hand of Theodore Child. The eighth "Great American Industry," glass-making, is very fully described and well illustrated. The most important contribution, however, is upon the educational condition of the South, by the Rev. Atticus G. Haygood of Atlanta, Ga. The author seems to have given great attention to the subject, and reviews the state of education among black and white, the progress made in recent years, and the resources at hand for continuing the work. He considers not only the common schools, but the higher institutions. He finds very much to praise, and very much to be done in the near future, as soon as means can be provided. The growing change in public sentiment towards the schools is the most promising sign of real advance; but the case, as it is here stated, is one of such illiteracy and inadequacy in the provision made as to furnish very sorry reading. A yachting poem, "Rounding the Stakeboat," is a clever piece of versification of technical sailing terms, which, though not quite unique in our poetry, is remarkably successful. The pictures of Adriaan van de Velde give some admirable woodcuts to accompany a short sketch of the artist. Mr. Curtis writes of the times of Washington, in contrast with our own, with pertinent observations upon the different bearing of the scandals cited against the fathers from those of the present day, and pays at the end a merited tribute to the long labors of Mr. Justice Miller, a portrait of whom is the frontispiece of the number.

—A catalogue of the second and concluding part of the Barton collection in the Boston Public Library has just been printed, an interval of nine years having elapsed since Mr. Hubbard's invaluable catalogue of the Shakspere portion appeared. While the present catalogue deals with a collection of material by no means comparable for its distinction with Mr. Hubbard's (pronounced in the Shakspere *Jahrbuch* for 1880 "the best bibliographical guide to Shakespearian literature hitherto produced"), yet it has been completed in a most painstaking and creditable manner, by Mr. Carret, with the assistance of Mr. Knapp and other members of the staff. Something of historic interest attaches to the successive steps by which this library has been collected. No less than 4,000 of its volumes, on the authority of the late Dr. Wynne, formed a portion of the library of Edward Livingston, the distinguished jurist, from whom it passed to Mr. Barton, his son-in-law. This department of the collection, if the term may be allowed, is composed chiefly of works on jurisprudence, American political history and economics, with some works also on penal law. Under such headings as "Bank of the United States," "French Spoliations," "Louisiana," and the subheadings, "Tariff," and "History: War of 1812," under "United States," a fairly numerous but by no means exhaustive list of publications will be found. The reason for this, no doubt, is, that Mr. Barton's own tastes in book-collecting were, very plainly, distinctively literary, rather than historical, and that he apparently made no attempt to fill the lacunæ in these latter portions of his collection as in the former, and especially the dramatic departments. For it is an interesting fact that, even after the Shakspere portion of the library has been set aside, it still remains largely a collection of dramatic literature, ancient, mediæval, and modern. In the classical drama the principle of collection in numerous instances places side by side with the original the various versions in modern European languages. In the case of the mediæval drama the miracle plays, mysteries, and other early or rudimentary forms of the drama are represented either in original or reprinted forms. In the English drama the catalogue will be found especially valuable as a bibliographical work of reference, since the closest approach has here been made to an exhaustive representation, and the collection includes about six hundred early quarto editions, chiefly of single plays. In characterizing the collection, so far as it represented Mr. Barton's own tastes, as literary rather than historical, the further remark needs to be added that, while he apparently made no effort at amassing the materials of a working historical library, many historical works found their way into the collection whose value, however, after all, is now chiefly a literary or bibliographical one. Such, for instance, are a notable copy of DeBry's collections of voyages, the early English chronicles, and similar works of rarity.

—In execution, this work of more than six hundred pages is worthy of hearty praise. Evidently from a desire to avoid unnecessarily increasing the bulk of the volume, there has been but slight attempt at description or annotation, though contents are carefully enumerated and dates most scrupulously entered and verified. To the same desire for compactness must doubtless be attributed the purposely condensed—sometimes, indeed, blindly condensed—model observed in the entry of titles. An instance in point is the following, on page 19: "Any, rather than fail, comedy"; where we believe that few readers would grudge the extra space needed to reset it as "Any, rather than fail. A comedy." Cross-references judiciously inserted throughout the catalogue add very appreciably to its usefulness, and are in general rightly inserted. At page 437, however, the cross-reference, "Penal law. See law," should plainly be corrected to read: "See Criminal law." In one particular the catalogue (repeating the usage of Mr. Hubbard in the Shakspere portion) observes a rule which one could wish to see widely followed—namely, the placing of the paging numerals at the foot rather than at the top of the page. In a dictionary catalogue—as indeed in a dictionary or directory—the person who turns over its pages in search of a given entry finds his eye guided not by the paging, but by the alphabetical catch-words at the top of the page.

—While on the subject of the Boston Public Library, let us say that we regret to hear that only twenty copies were printed of the useful 'Index of Articles upon American Local History' of Mr. A. P. C. Griffin, which we lately noticed. Such a list would be of great use in every town library in Massachusetts, even if the libraries have not the works referred to, for it is often of service to know that something exists, and where to go for it, even if one has to go far. Every historical society in the country, also, ought to have a copy. It is true that the material has already appeared at intervals in the Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, which is to be found in most libraries, but in that form it is practically useless, and they might as well not have it. Few have patience to refer to so many different places. In fact, the money spent in printing a bibliography in small scraps is simply thrown away.

—The one leading article of *Le Livre* for May has a peculiar value in being an inventory of the catalogues available in the Bibliothèque Nationale, which has no general catalogue for its immense collection. M. E. Pierret draws it up, in an order corresponding with the several departments of the library, viz., printed books, MSS., engravings, and coins. The good that was not interred with the bones of Napoleon III. is seen in the Catalogue of French History, "publié par l'ordre de l'Empereur," whose eleven volumes, begun in 1855, were not completed till 1879, when the Republic had nearly completed its first decade. The same thing occurred with the slow-moving catalogue of the medical sciences, ordered in 1857 and finished in 1873, though in only two volumes. The oldest book catalogue appears to be that of the "Bibliothèque du Roy," published in 1739–53, in seven volumes. The newest are the continuing monthly Bulletins of recent French and foreign publications. Among the special catalogues is one of books and documents relating to America, bequeathed by the late M. Angrand; another of Baron Ch. Davillier's legacy of sale, museum, and exhibition catalogues; a third of the collection once owned by the Comte de la Bédoyère, consisting of a vast number of newspapers, historical pamphlets, satires, posters, portraits, and caricatures, assignats, autographs, etc., dating from 1787, and especially strong for the period 1789–1800. There is besides a catalogue of a Montaigne collection, and one of Victor Schoelcher's slavery collection. *Le Livre* has a laudatory notice of Prof. H. C. Bolton's 'Counting-out Rhymes of Children,' a title which the reviewer proposes to render paraphrastically thus: "Pièces rimées, sur les quelles les enfants se comptent dans leurs jeux"; and yet, as he confesses, he omits the notion expressed by *out*—the going out (*sortir*) and the being put out (*mis hors*). The French, it seems, say, like ourselves, "He's *it*" (*il l'est*). Their rhymes, however, with only one exception known to (and here cited by) the reviewer, have a show of sense.

—Viscount Melchior de Vogüé, who has lately been elected to the chair in the Académie Française made vacant by the death of M. Nisard, took his seat on the 6th of June. His speech upon his reception made a good deal of a stir in the Academy and in the French newspapers. M. de Vogüé is the youngest of the Immortals; he was born at Nice in 1848. Twelve years of his life have been spent in the diplomatic service, as attaché of the French legations at Constantinople and St. Petersburg. His six years' residence in Russia, where he married a Russian wife, the sister of Gen. Annenkoff, made him familiar with the language and literature, the knowledge and love of which have been his chief distinction. Before he gave up diplomacy for a literary life he was the author of a book of travels in the East and also a volume of 'Histoires Orientales.' Upon his return to Paris he entered seriously upon authorship, publishing a volume a year for several years in succession. His best-known book is 'Le Roman Russe," mainly a study of Tolstoi and Dostoyevsky, which appeared in the year 1886. M. de Vogüé was not the earliest of the French lovers of Russian literature, nor has he been, perhaps, the most judicious of them and the wisest, but he has done very good work, and a good deal of it, and may be said to have fairly earned his place in the Academy. Besides his books he has written much in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and in the *Journal des Débats*.

—We said that M. de Vogüé's address has made some commotion in the newspapers. It must have stirred the Academy itself still more profoundly. M. Rousse began his reply by saying that some parts of it would doubtless

have caused surprise to M. Nisard, if he could have been present, and would have spoiled his pleasure a little. One can well believe this, for M. Nisard was one of the oldest Academicians, and represented a past generation, while M. de Vogüé's address is probably the most modern in tone and temper that has ever been heard in the Academy. The two chief divisions of it were suggested by M. Nisard's two books, the 'Poètes de la Décadence Romaine' and the 'Littérature Française.' Latin, M. de M. de Vogüé thinks, is dying out. Forty years hence only a few "délicats" here and there will study it. The mass of men will get their classical culture through the medium of the great writers of the seventeenth century, the true inheritors of classical tradition and learning. A new generation will have grown up who will understand us little, and whom we shall not understand at all. But, whatever be the final verdict of history upon this age, at least it will be counted as a century of renascence and not of decay. So far we have no reconstructive philosophy—we have only positivism. This has done excellent work in levelling obstructions and clearing a road. It has done away with controversies by superseding them. But it is not final; it is temporary only, and an expedient. The future will have in it something much more satisfying—not the old ways of thought and the old philosophies; they never can come back—but something new. And so M. de Vogüé looks with a not unkindly eye at all modern thought, in fact, at the whole modern world, not so much because it seems to him in any wise absolutely good, but because it looks everywhere full of promise.

SKEAT'S CHAUCER.

Chaucer. The Minor Poems. Edited by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888.

ALMOST four hundred years went by after the death of Chaucer before anything like a satisfactory edition of his greatest work appeared. Nearly five hundred years have passed, and we witness for the first time a critical edition of his minor poems. Single pieces have indeed been brought out before, but no attempt has hitherto been made to gather together, with sufficient aids to comprehension, the shorter productions of one of the four greatest authors of our literature. The fact is a curious commentary upon the treatment which English classics have received at the hands of the English-speaking race. For a long period, in truth, it was deemed rather discreditable for a scholar who had (or who thought he had) sufficient learning to edit the most unimportant Greek or Latin text, to spend his time upon the most important work of a far greater man of his own race. When, in 1737, Dr. Morell published the initial volume of a contemplated edition of the 'Canterbury Tales,' he felt it incumbent upon him to apologize for the undertaking. "This, then," he wrote towards the end of his preface, "has been my amusement for some time, and I hope with no great detriment to the more severe and decent studies required by my place and character: I believe many a leisure hour might have been spent worse."

But though we have had to wait so long for such an edition as this, there are compensations that make up for the delay. The work has fallen into the hands of a scholar who does not feel called upon to apologize for the labor he has spent upon it, or who has been disposed to look upon it merely as the amusement of leisure hours. Prof. Skeat has brought to its preparation not only industry, interest, and enthusiasm, but wide knowledge of the early language in general and of the language of Chaucer in particular. It is this that has enabled him in several places to clear up obscurities that have defied the efforts of previous investigators to dispel, or have been passed over by them in silence. Some of the emendations are of the very happiest character. In fact, it is scarcely possible to speak in too high praise of this edition in many respects. The notes are ample, and embrace with the prefatory matter about half of the volume. In them Prof. Skeat has brought to bear upon the elucidation of the text all the great learning he has accumulated in the preparation of the various works with which his name is now so honorably connected. We have little hesitation in saying that there is no student of Chaucer living to whom this volume will not be an absolute necessity.

The book itself must therefore always be regarded as a landmark in the literary history which concerns itself with the poet. A brief analysis of its contents will give the reader a general idea of its character. It consists in the first place of 86 pages of preface, in which the editor gives a full catalogue of the pieces that have been attributed to Chaucer from the time his works were first collected in 1532, with an account of their character and an examination of the proofs of their genuineness. An enormous mass of information has here been summed up in a small space. Far as we should be from accepting every statement made in it, no one can deny its interest, its importance, or its helpfulness. In the account of the works at various times attributed to the poet we note only one error. The pieces numbered 66, 67, and 68 are mentioned as having first appeared in the folio of 1602, according to the statement quoted in the folio of 1687. We cannot say when they were first printed; but they can be found in the folio of 1598 and in that of 1561; and in the undated edition of about 1550, which now lies before us, they occupy their usual place at the end of the prefatory matter.

The poems included in this volume take up the 222 pages that follow the preface. They are twenty-three in all, three of them being placed in an appendix as having a certain character of doubtfulness. All of the undisputed minor poems are included, with the exception of the 'Legend of Good Women,' which has apparently been discarded on the ground that its length—over 2,700 lines—does not entitle it to be so considered. This reason applies with more force to the 'Troilus and Cressida,' which naturally finds here no place. This work is, indeed, often loosely classed among the minor poems of Chaucer. But a production which is nearly as long as the 'Æneid' can hardly be included under such a category with any propriety. On the other hand, Prof. Skeat adds two pieces, entitled respectively 'An Amorous Compleint' and 'A Balade of Compleynt,' that have never before been printed at all; one, entitled 'Merciless Beaute,' which has never been included previously in any edition of Chaucer's writings; and two, entitled 'Against Women Unconstant' and 'A Compleint to His Lady,' that have never been printed save in the folio editions of the poet's works, or in the collections of Anderson and Chalmers.

To balance these gains, he has excluded the prayer to the Virgin beginning "Mother of God and virgin undefouled," as being the work of Occleve. Of it he says that there is clear evidence that it was written by the pupil and not by the master. This may be so; but, whatever be the evidence that exists, the evidence that is produced can hardly be called clear. The fact that the poem is found in Occleve's handwriting does not prove of itself that it is Occleve's composition. We are not yet, in truth, in a position to pronounce decisively upon that author's works. "The Misrule," for instance, published with five other pieces in 1796 by George Mason, shows a mastery of metre on Occleve's part much superior to anything exhibited by Lydgate. Still, it is far from being up to the literary level of the "Mother of God." This poem, it may be remarked in passing, is said by Prof. Skeat to have been printed in the volume which Mason brought out in 1796. We fail to find it there, though its title is given in the preface describing the manuscript from which the selections were made.

The nearly 250 pages that follow the poems are taken up with the notes and glossary. In them will be found nearly everything essential to the full comprehension of the text. We are anxious, indeed, to express in the strongest terms the excellence of the edition as a whole, because a large share of this notice must be devoted to criticising and controverting doctrines that are earnestly advocated by its author. The result will seem, therefore, to imply a disproportionate and unintended degree of censure. It is because this work exemplifies peculiarly certain methods of investigation which have of late begun to prevail in the treatment of the text, that it is desirable to direct attention to the discussion of these general views rather than to the interpretation of particular passages. It is the more easy to do this because, while dissenting from some of the explanations given of the latter, there is very little to say of most of them but praise. When we come to the consideration of the former, however, there is frequently wide room for dissent.

For it is perfectly evident that the text of Chaucer is now going through the same process which in the last century was applied to that of Shakspere. A standard of composition, of versification, and of grammar is to be set up for the poet to which his lines must be made to conform. If they do not, the scribe can always be held responsible for the failure, just as in the case of the dramatist it was easy to take to task the actor or the type-setter. The verse is, in consequence, to be reformed to suit modern conceptions of what it ought to be, and reformed according to a theory which admits of no possible modifications. This theory, stated baldly, is, that Chaucer lived from his earliest years a life of absolute metrical, grammatical, and linguistic virtue. This life he led, too, not according to the view of this kind of virtue which he may have had himself, but according to the view which modern scholars have been induced to entertain from a study, more or less full, of the manuscripts of his works that have survived. The result is, that when his practice fails apparently to conform to their conclusions, it must by some means be set right. One result of this has been, that, in judging of his writings, the purely literary test—one of the most important of all, and in right hands the most important of all—has been practically discarded, and other and inferior ones elevated to its place.

Let us take first the matter of metre. Chaucer for a long period was spoken of as a rude and inharmonious poet, careless about the nature of his melody, careless about the character of his rhyme. This was a view begotten of ignorance and misconception, and it needs no longer to be controverted. His mastery of melodious expression places him in the front rank of English poets, in the opinion of all competent to express an opinion. The licentiousness of versification, once widely imputed to

him, was due either to inferences drawn from spurious poems, or from corrupt texts, or from lack of knowledge of the language. But there is just now a tendency to go to the other extreme. Chaucer, in this later view, is no longer the master of metre, but its slave. He does not anywhere allow himself the slightest liberty. He began a life of rigid metrical purity, and continued in it unflinchingly to the end. In no moment of carelessness, in no mood of caprice, did he wanton into the slightest deviation from the absolute precision of the versification which he had set before himself to observe. Not even was he once tempted to abandon it by the desire to produce effects of an unusual sort.

That Chaucer was generally observant of rule, that he was solicitous about the perfection of his verse, would naturally be inferred from the fact that he was a great poet. But he never turned regularity into a fetish. He reserved the right to depart from the practice he generally followed if he saw that any higher effects were to be gained by such a course. He never felt himself bound by the compulsion of a monotonous and therefore tasteless uniformity. For this fact we have his own authority. In his invocation to Apollo, at the opening of the third book of the 'House of Fame,' he asks the "god of science and of light" to make his rhyme "somewhat agreeable," even if the lines do occasionally lack a syllable. We may be sure that if some of them occasionally lacked a syllable, there were others that made up for it by occasionally having too many of them. But this is a view abhorrent to modern editors. Apollo having at any rate done his duty in making the verse agreeable, it seems to have struck Prof. Skeat that it was his duty to make it regular. It will therefore be pretty difficult to find a line in this edition which either lacks or exceeds in the duly authorized number of syllables.

No student of Chaucer will indeed deny the necessity of emendation, especially in the case of the poems written in the line of four accents. Of these the manuscripts are very few, and the few are unsatisfactory. For them it is almost impossible by any collation to furnish a text absolutely free from error. There must be emendation. About the character and extent of it there will always be room for honest and intelligent difference of opinion. Still, there is no safe rule in editing an imperfect text but the general one, that when the existing text makes fairly satisfactory sense and satisfactory metre, it is not to be altered to make it accord with certain theoretical standards of perfection which exist in the mind of the editor, but cannot be proved to have existed in the mind of the author. The result of any such procedure is sure to be harmful. We see the fact exemplified at times in this very volume. Changes are occasionally made in the text for which there is not the slightest authority in the manuscripts and for which there cannot be urged necessity, which is usually as much the devilish plea of the commentator as it is that of the tyrant. Some of these introduced readings will strike the observer from the purely literary point of view as impossible for the poet even to have contemplated.

An example or two must suffice. In the 'Book of the Duchess' the hero is represented as bewailing the death of his wife, and at the end of a series of expressions of ardent love he calls her

> "Myn hap, myn hele, and al my blisse,
> My worldes welfare and my goddesse."

There is in all this a natural climax. The intensity of the language corresponds to the intensity of the feeling. The student of poetry as poetry feels it at once. How does it appear in this edition? *Goddesse*, which is found in all the sources of the text, is, we are told, an obvious blunder. It clogs the line with an extra syllable and produces a false rhyme such as Chaucer never makes. We are furthermore gravely informed that the word *goddesse* was probably substituted for *lisse*—which means 'cessation,' 'alleviation'—because the latter was obsolescent. Accordingly, *lisse* appears in the couplet just given, though included between brackets. We need not comment upon the fact that in other instances the scribes experienced no difficulty with this obsolescent word, for as a noun or verb they found and left it half-a-dozen times in the poet's works. It is the literary rather than the linguistic sense that is struck by the alteration. Fancy a lover as the climax of an impassioned speech about his mistress describing her as his 'alleviation.'

There is just as bad an ins'ance in the 'House of Fame,' though of a somewhat different character. In that poem mention is made of musicians that piped "in doucet and in *rede*" (variants *riede*, *ryede*)

> "That ben at festes with the brede [variants *bride*, *bryede*]."

To be at feasts with the bride is a duty to which musicians would naturally be assigned by a poet who aimed to depict both the truth and the beauty of life. But such an interpretation of the passage involves a rhyme that Prof. Skeat cannot away with. He therefore rejects *bride* in its modern sense, and substitutes for it *brede* in the sense of "roast meat." This word with this meaning is not to be found elsewhere in Chaucer, but it does occur in Old English. The scribe of the Fairfax MS., the editor tells us, has turned *brede* into *bride*, regardless of the rhyme. It is therefore not the marriage festivity which Chaucer had in mind, at which the musicians assembled. It is at feasts where roast meat is furnished. This is poetry with a vengeance. It is editing a text from the culinary point of view rather than the literary.

We should be sorry to give the impression that emendations and interpretations of the kind just given are frequent. This they are not, and in the poems written with lines of five accents illustrations of such a sort could hardly be found at all. But the undue magnifying of rhyming and metrical tests has had a reflex influence. The editor has added to the list of Chaucer's works certain pieces. These he believes to have been his composition, not because they have literary value — which they can hardly be said to have—nor even because they are contained in manuscripts along with other productions that are well known to be the work of the poet. It is clear that the supreme determining reason in his mind for attributing them to him is the fact that they conform perfectly to certain metrical tests. We cannot affirm, indeed, because a poem is a poor one that therefore it was not written by a great author. Still, justice to a great author demands that he shall not be saddled with the reputation of begetting every ordinary production floating about in his time merely because its rhymes are correct and there can be found for it no other reputable parentage. In speaking of one of his additions, 'An Amorous Compleint, made at Windesor,' the editor triumphantly remarks: "If he did not write it, we may well ask who did?" This is a singular argument to come from a scholar who has been most urgent in maintaining the spuriousness of poems, long attributed to Chaucer, which are far superior to anything written by any of his avowed disciples, and are not unworthy of even his genius.

Now, we venture to assert that Chaucer was never so particular about the observance of verse tests, rhyme tests, dialect tests, as his editors have come to be for him, and that while it is perfectly legitimate to affirm that he generally followed certain practices, it is impossible to maintain that he did not deviate from them occasionally. Let us take for illustration the use of Northern dialectic forms which Prof. Skeat has more than once insisted upon as an argument against the genuineness of the existing version of the 'Romaunt of the Rose.' There is little doubt that Chaucer, especially in his earlier work, was to some extent under the influence of that dialect. It was natural that he should be. In the region where it was spoken he spent a portion of his life. It was inevitable that he should become more or less familiar with it, and, being familiar with it, that on occasions he should resort to its forms. The fact we can see illustrated in his employment of several words that belong specially to that dialect. But far more striking is his use of one of its most remarkable grammatical peculiarities. This is in the formation of the third person singular of the present tense of the verb. In the North this ended regularly in *-s*. In the Midland dialect, in which Chaucer wrote, it ended just as regularly in *-th*. Never once did the poet use the form in *-s* in the 'Legend of Good Women,' in the 'Canterbury Tales,' or in fact in any production written in the line of five accents. We of course exclude corruptions that can be found in particular manuscripts which the comparison of other manuscripts shows conclusively to have been foisted in by the copyists. But this Northern form does occur in the 'Book of the Duchess' and in the 'House of Fame.' In them it is not due to any blunder for which the scribe can be held responsible: it is absolutely essential to the rhyme; it is therefore the work of the poet. In the first of these two productions *telles* rhymes with *elles* (lines 73-4), and *falles* with *halles* (lines 257-8). In the second *elles* again rhymes with *telles* (lines 425-6). In the latter poem also another peculiar grammatical form of the Northern dialect is found. This is the second person singular in *-s* instead of *-st*. In lines 1907-8 *tydinges* can be found rhyming with *bringes*. The editor, so far from commenting upon these dialectical peculiarities, makes not even the slightest allusion to them, so far as we can discover. Yet were the genuineness of the poems in question, it is safe to say that no one would point with more confidence to these same rhymes as positive proof that the pieces containing them could not have been the production of Chaucer himself.

We find the same difference between author and commentator in the comparative deference paid to rigid rule in the matter of rhymes depending upon grammar. Prof. Skeat assures us in this volume, with great positiveness, as he has done on several other occasions, that Chaucer never rhymes a weak past participle with a weak preterite. It is a point, he informs us, upon which the poet was very particular. Accordingly, in a previous work, he changed *he wente* in line 534 of the Second Nun's tale into *is went* on the authority of a single manuscript, and that an inferior one, against the authority of all the others that have been printed. Now, that this sort of rhyme is comparatively rare in Chaucer can be conceded; but that in this respect he had not attained to the pitch of linguistic and metrical virtue of his editors is quite as certain. In the 'Legend of Good Women' he rhymes the preterite *heryede* with the past participial form *beryed*

(lines 787-8). In lines 2384-5 of the same poem he rhymes the past participle *served* with the preterit *deservede*. Even in the poem included in the present volume, the 'Parliament of Foules,' the weak verb *broughte* rhymes with the weak past participle *y-wrought* (lines 121-3), though the latter appears in this edition as *y-wroghte*, a form which has at best the authority of but two out of a dozen manuscripts that have been printed. We have not exhausted the illustrations that could be given, but they are enough to establish the point.

Equally unfounded, it seems to us, are some of the editor's contentions in his preface. He is very positive, in the two following lines from the passage in which Lydgate gives a list of Chaucer's works,

> "He wrote also full many a day agon
> Dant in English, himself doth so expresse,"

that the 'House of Fame' is the translation of Dante which is here mentioned, if indeed we can employ so large a word as "translation" as the equivalent of Lydgate's phrase. Still, that the 'House of Fame' is meant is perfectly clear to him, though he admits that he can find no one else who seems to have thought of it. We are disposed to go further and maintain that he is the only one who will ever think it. The obligations of Chaucer to Dante in this poem have been absurdly overrated by German scholars, but the views expressed here exceed anything that has as yet been formulated. A far more satisfactory explanation of Lydgate's remark can easily be given. His only authority, indeed, for the assertion is the assertion of the poet. "Himself doth so express," he tells us. But in the sense in which such a statement would now be understood, Chaucer never said anything of the sort, so far as we have any evidence. In the sense in which the statement would probably then have been understood, he did say so. He did versify lines from Dante, he quoted him once or twice by name. It is reasonable to suppose that the passages avowedly taken from him and the references to him are all that Lydgate had in mind. There are many reasons to believe that the word 'translation' was then used in a far looser sense than now, and that translating an author meant sometimes little more than translating from him.

Lack of space compels us to omit the discussion of several other points to which the statements in this volume give rise. We are far from wishing to be understood as undervaluing the importance of these tests, upon which Prof. Skeat, in common with many German scholars, lays so much stress. It is the exalting them to supreme dignity from the subsidiary position in which they hold an honorable place, that calls for vigorous exception. It is the representation, that is objectionable, of the poet as servilely submitting to rules having in the nature of things no binding authority, but which neither temptation nor provocation nor the chance of securing better results could induce him in a single instance to disobey. But these differences of opinion do not hinder us from recognizing the exceeding merits of this work and the excellence of the editorial labor that has been devoted to its preparation. These will speak for themselves to the student upon every page, and we cannot better close our notice than with the renewed assertion that to every one who wishes to make himself familiar with the writings of the first great poet of English literature, the possession of this volume is an absolute necessity.

RECENT NOVELS.

Passe Rose. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Greifenstein. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

Far in the Forest. By T. Weir Mitchell, M. D. J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Pretty Sister of José. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Witness of the Sun. By Amélie Rives. J. B. Lippincott Co.

On first thought one is tempted to say that the most remarkable thing about 'Passe Rose' is its experimental boldness; but, on reflection, the justification of that boldness by complete success is more surprising still. In the beginning of the century there would have been neither risk nor rashness in selecting for a scene the forest of Ardennes, when Charlemagne, resting from battle, kept court beneath its shade. Then people did not realize the worthlessness of works of the imagination in which imagination is perceptible, and revelled in the bliss of their ignorance: then the air was ringing with the song of romantic poets; then Sir Walter Scott was busily conferring immortality on kings and queens long dead, and on all the splendor that had died with them, little dreaming that he was doing a most wicked thing, and that in wiser and more righteous times a voice would be heard crying from an American Republic to lay bare his iniquity. Fortunately for the literature of that Republic, 'Passe Rose' was written before the American father had been warned against that pernicious old tuft-hunter, Sir Walter, and solemnly urged to impress upon his children the insidious evil lurking in those apparently harmless nursery tales which uninformed generations have been accustomed to call novels, collectively, the Waverley novels. Mr. Hardy might have dared to disregard instruction in insignificant matters of form and method, even to fly in the face of authority; but the bare suspicion that he was about to abet base designs on the political faith of his country would surely have stayed his hand. However, what is done cannot be undone, and we have got, by the skin of our teeth, as it were, a story of uncommon beauty, all about people whose eyes turned to the King as the sunflower turns to its god—a king, too, whose kingdom was won by the sword, and bound together by the shackles of the slave, from the Elbe to the Ebro and from the North Sea to the Adriatic.

To Passe Rose the divinity of the King was no more questionable than that of the saints, and the delights of his court were more seductive than those of Paradise, probably because to a girl of her spirit they seemed more surely attainable. Passe Rose is herself a creature of delight. Nobody's child, she dances along through wood and town, in the wake of barbarian armies, at the tail of merchant caravans, seizing the joy of to-day and careless of to-morrow's sorrow. A gold-beater of Maestricht finds her asleep by the roadside, and takes the pretty thing, in her tawdry costume of Folly, home to his good wife, who adopts her as a gift from God. Thus far Passe Rose is so perfectly imagined that we fear the future. Is she to be reformed by respectability with a thoroughness that shall discredit every lesson of human experience? Is she to develop a strain of coarseness, or dissolute propensity, the worst possible effects of childish vagabondism? Or, disaster dire and most probable, will she straightway begin to live, move, and breathe with self-conscious rectitude, torturing herself into conformity with an entirely modern standard of propriety? Into any of these pits a slight dimness or deflection of vision might easily have led the author. His sight was clear and true: so Passe Rose goes dancing on, in sun and shower, requiting love with loyalty, quick and ruthless in resentment of injury or offence. truthful when she may be, dissembling when she must, and most resolute to get whatever she strongly craves. She lives with all her might, and we have always a woman before our eyes, never an isolated faculty or part acting independently of the whole.

One such character as Passe Rose is enough to give rank to a novel; but her position is not that of the star actress who is at once exalted and belittled by incompetent support. Great lady and peasant woman, knight and monk, each is given a part so well adapted to his nature that spontaneously he could play no other. The Saxon, Rothilde, a traitor among traitors, has enough unscrupulous cruelty and utter selfishness to accomplish her treachery, had not circumstances thwarted her; and again, had not fate been kind, Brother Dominic's vast vanity must surely have hurled him to perdition. The Prior, Sergius, is dominated by that worldly ambition which gives the lie to professions of holiness, and the Abbot, Rainal, is possessed of that holiness which makes itself felt without profession. By the grace of imagination, the gift of God, and of scholarship and technical skill, the rewards of hard labor, Mr. Hardy has written a rarely perfect story, combining the undying and inexplicable charm of a fairy tale with the definable merits of the best fiction that deals with actual life and human character.

The American who reads 'Greifenstein' close upon 'Passe Rose' may well tremble for the Republic, and sorrowfully reflect that its novelists have conspired for its destruction. The feudal aloofness of 'Greifenstein' takes the democratic breath away. Two baronial castles share the action, castles amply supplied with mediæval necessaries, such as turrets, battlements, and donjon keeps. The castles are perched on all but inaccessible crags in the gloomy heart of the Black Forest of Swabia, and are of an antiquity little less high and hoary than that of the crags and the fir trees. The inhabitants of the castles are the noble remnant of noble lines, and though the Sigmundskrons are extremely poor, and the Greifensteins extremely rich, the former have the consolation of a flawless family honor, stretching backwards for a thousand years to Sigmund the Volsung, while on the escutcheon of the latter there is just a little speck. This little speck has a terrible power of expansion, and magnifies itself into a black cloud of crime which swallows the nobility of the Greifensteins, and effaces their name for ever. The crime perpetrated in Greifenstein castle by two most high-born gentlemen would perhaps appear more probable if it were ascribed to two unshaven anarchists in a beer cellar; but no scene or actors could modify its atrocity.

Guarding against general incredulity, Mr. Crawford, before entering on the narration, excuses it by the assertion that what he has to tell is not fiction, but fact. With the excuse he is in a worse predicament than without it, for, granting that somewhere, at some time, two strong men saw fit to strangle a silly, helpless, tawdry old woman, human judgment, to which Mr. Crawford appeals, rejects the deed as impossible to two men of the character, breeding, and experience attributed by him to Count von Greifenstein and his half-brother, Von Rieseneck. When the narration of a tragedy fails to inspire that horror which is the intrinsic property of tragedy, then there is a false note either in the conception or their execution. In this case we have Mr. Crawford's word that he is responsible only for the execution, for the description of actors in the

tragedy, and of the way they brought it about. When the punishment of the wicked fails to fill the righteous with satisfaction, and, on the contrary, excites contemptuous indignation against those who have taken upon themselves the office of avengers, then, for all moral and for all artistic purposes, the punishment of the wicked is profitless and a bald atrocity.

The great Greifenstein crime is enacted early in the history, and the difficulties of keeping excitement up to such a pitch are obvious. The author wrestles with these difficulties sternly and overcomes them gallantly. The sins of the fathers are visited on the children with Judaic severity, and their dreadful, complicated secrets keep leaking out at most critical moments, threatening to blast every sweet hope and joy of the later generation. As a woman ruined the two fathers, so, by a beautiful, poetic sense of contrast with which fate is not often credited, a woman saves the two sons. There is nothing in the way of averting impending calamity of which Hilda, the last fair flower of the Volsung stock, is incapable. Her mere presence revives her lover, the young Greif, when already the death-rattle is heard in his throat, and her heroic common sense saves him later from an irretrievable folly which, if committed, would have sent the noble Sigmundskrons to join the Greifensteins in dishonorable extinction. Essentially 'Greifenstein' is no more than a very cheap sensational romance; and it is only in the unaffected, easy-going style that we recognize a sane and reputable novelist. The high-born ones do not habitually ask the time of day with an elegance of manner which at once proclaims their long descent; they are not constantly quaffing priceless wines from jewel-studded beakers, nor do they use bank-notes for kindling, but, in spirit and in deed, they are the great people of the chromo fiction and of the mob the best-beloved.

The title of Dr. Mitchell's 'Far in the Forest' is not misleading. The pages echo the music of rustling leaves and chattering brooks, and at times reflect that melancholy which sits brooding in wooded solitudes. The wilderness in which the scene is laid has none of the attractions or advantages for a story-teller possessed by the forests of Ardennes and Swabia. The horn of courtly huntsman never sounded down its glades, the shock of battle never wounded its silence. No elf or fay ever meditated mischief beneath its "murmuring pines and hemlocks." It is an innocent American forest, quite without experience, and having accumulated through all its centuries no more knowledge than that its leaves bud and fall and bud again, and that the rivers are always hurrying by, but never getting away. In such a scene, if anywhere, total exclusion of the perilous aristocratic element might be expected, yet the hero of the story is a German, a baron, and he is the hero by virtue of qualities inherited from ancestors who had the habit of command and of self-control. Riverius is indeed more attached to ideas than to traditions, but his ideas alone would never have excited the suspicion and hatred of the aggressively free and independent lumbermen, nor brought about the culminating tragedy. The mere presence of Riverius as a power in the camps implies a coming tragedy, and when it comes, it is the natural result of all that has gone before—an inevitable catastrophe. The figures of the well-tutored German and of the ungoverned woodsmen are well contrasted, are solid and vigorous, but lack the touch of vivid life which a lighter and freer style than Dr. Mitchell's might have given them. Elizabeth Preston, too, is heavy, and, till the last moment, rather negative and uninteresting; but in the child of an actress and the blind giant Philetus we have a charming baby, with subtle indications of the eternal woman. All the characters, however, contribute something to the clearly conceived plot, and none could have been omitted without loss to the dramatic intensity of the last chapters.

Between the actual life of times present or past and that represented in Mrs. Burnett's 'Pretty Sister of José,' the resemblance is microscopic. The pretty sister has flirted and pirouetted and warbled through innumerable operettas. A satisfactory synopsis of her history could be made by judicious selection and arrangement of those sheets of thin white paper, much decorated in blue, which lie between the wood and the fruit of boxes of raisins imported from Malaga. There is imprinted, and there has been imprinted from time out of mind, the pretty sister in short skirts and mantilla, with the deep-red rose in her hair, flirting her fan or thrumming her mandolin; there are the vine-clad cot and the leathery-faced grandmother busied about pots and pans which doubtless smell strongly of garlic; there is the supremely beautiful matador, proudly advancing, and there are the arena and the bull and a promiscuous multitude of mantillas and moustaches and red roses and brigand hats. Now, the only question that arises is whether the matador will conquer the pretty sister, so haughty of mien and cold of heart—for, of course, the bull is doomed. By the pictorial method of reading the story, one could answer according to his degree of ingenuity, and he who should show less than Mrs. Burnett would be dull indeed. There are novelists in Spain to-day who are neglecting the mantilla and mandolin, the matador and the bull, and Mrs. Burnett's well-meant intention may have been to jog the national memory and to protest against deliberate consignment to oblivion of so much picturesqueness.

Doubtless the sun, in the course of its shining, has been obliged to endure passively much that a less well-regulated planet, or, let us say, a planet with more of free-will, would have flown out at and publicly denounced. But Miss Rives goes too far. The sun never saw those things she calls upon it to witness and suffered them to be. It is a mad world, but were it half so mad as Miss Rives represents it, the sun, the stars, and all the celestial bodies would start from their spheres to demolish it, and chaos would be come again. No, the sun never shone on the land Miss Rives describes, and God never made the creatures that there abide. Ouida created all. Hers is that land of the ilex and laurel, of the palm and the pomegranate, the olive and almond, all growing together in perpetual blossom—hers and no other's. Hers are the crumbling marble temple and the fallen pagan God, with red rose leaves staining his polished limbs, like "drops of fragrant blood." Hers, most unquestionably of all, are the creatures, "neither man nor woman, neither beast nor human," who love madly, hate venomously, and intrigue vilely in the fair estate provided for their delectable pursuits and performances. By the force of a corrupt yet ardent imagination, by the license of total indifference to common decency, and by considerable observation of varied forms of human depravity, Ouida was able to throw that *verve* into her work which made her famous and her novels infamous. Lady novelists ambitious of rivalling her, and lacking any of her qualifications in their full perfection, can only make their books ridiculous and expose themselves to the jeers of the vulgar. Miss Rives, on the whole, falls far short of her model. She takes herself most seriously, not to say solemnly, but there is no salvation in that. Yet there are indications that her ambition is not quite vain, and even instances of the disciple's equality with the master. The Ouida version of the classics contains nothing more surprising than the conversion of Æneas into a "celebrated Greek.' Among her host of literary geniuses we remember none more gifted than Miss Rives's Nadrovine, and none of a physical force comparable to that of this incendiary Russian, who was so well preserved that "at twenty-nine his light-brown curls were as free from any tinge of gray as they had been seven years before." Finally, in the Ouida collection of curiosities, by her called mothers, there is no such rare specimen as Madame Nadrovine. Miss Rives, in dwelling upon the quality of a mother's love for her only son, has wrought herself into a species of frenzy, and poured such floods of light on the elements of the maternal passion and its possible expression, that the ordinary mother may blush with shame for her guilty inadequacy. To be wise for her son, self-sacrificing and tender is nothing. She must chain him to her by the seduction of the senses, by burning caresses, by words that tear away the artificial barriers set up between men and women by theories about modesty and propriety. To insure what she believes to be her son's welfare, she must concoct schemes that involve her own degradation, and, above all things, she must not forget to prove her self-abnegation by tramping about the country after him in unbuttoned boots. Any mother who, beguiled from the path of duty by the leisure of a long railway journey, should employ that leisure in buttoning her boots, would fall contemptibly below the standard for mothers set by Madame Nadrovine.

A RECONSTITUTED LATIN GRAMMAR.

A Grammar of the Latin Language, for the Use of Schools and Colleges. By E. A. Andrews and S. Stoddard. Revised by Henry Preble. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. xii, 453.

THE appearance of a new Latin grammar would not, under ordinary circumstances, call for any extended notice. Still less would the publication of a "revised edition" of a well-known school-book demand attention. But there are some things connected with both the old and the new editions of 'Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar' a knowledge of which will be useful to some of our readers, and perhaps interesting to all.

The first edition of the work was published in Boston, by the old firm of Crocker & Brewster, in 1836. During the last half century it has been used in the schools and colleges of the United States more than any other Latin grammar, perhaps more than all others combined. During the half-century preceding 1836, 'Adam's Latin Grammar' had been used in almost every school, public and private, in which the Latin language was taught. In all that time it had remained unchanged. The boys who hurrahed for Jackson learned their Latin in the same way and out of the same book as the boys who gazed with awe upon George Washington. When Andrews and Stoddard's grammar appeared, its success was as astonishing as it was deserved. In the twenty years succeeding its first publication, sixty-four editions were issued, and before the end of that period Adam's grammar lived only on the shelves of libraries and in the memories of men who had studied it in their youth. No substantial change was made in these rapidly

appearing editions. Manifest errors were corrected, slight changes in phraseology and some small additions were made, especially in the forty-sixth edition, which appeared in 1854; but in all important particulars the sixty-fourth edition was like the first.

In the meantime, the progress in every department of philology had been enormous. Many rival grammars had appeared and were competing sharply for public favor. Prof. Stoddard was dead, but Dr. Andrews recognized the fact that, if their grammar was to maintain the high position it had acquired, he must bring it more into harmony with advanced ideas. He did not wish, and had he wished, he would probably have been unable, to make a new grammar materially different from the old one. He was essentially a scholar of the old school, and the wonderful success of his book was due, not to the introduction of any new system, but to the accuracy and completeness with which he had carried the old system out. The grammar as originally published offended no deep-seated prejudices, violated no long-established customs, ran counter to no ancient traditions. Andrews and Stoddard's grammar was a lineal descendant of Adam's, but the public had said of it what Hector prayed the gods might be said of his son:

. . . πατρός γ' ὅδε πολλὸν ἀμείνων.

Dr. Andrews gave the sixty-fifth edition of his grammar, which appeared in 1857, a thorough revision. He brought to the accomplishment of his task a very minute and accurate knowledge of the details of the Latin language. He had published in 1845 a school dictionary of the Latin language, and in 1850 his extensive Latin-English Lexicon based upon the Latin-German dictionary of Freund. During the years devoted to the preparation of these works he had noticed such points as he supposed would be useful to him in a revision of the Grammar. All these resources were brought into play, and when, in 1857, the sixty-fifth edition appeared, it was enlarged by more than a fifth of its original size. But the identity of the book was not destroyed. The plan and construction remained the same. The division into sections and their numbering remained unchanged. The same subjects were treated under the same heads and in the same manner; the chief difference consisted in the addition of a mass of details the utility of which was perhaps disproportionate to the space they occupied. The sixty-fifth edition was the first filled in, corrected, and extended. Teachers who had used the earlier editions changed without difficulty to the use of the new one. They could refer their pupils to the same section for the explanation of a point with the utmost confidence that, though the explanation might be fuller and clearer, yet it would not be inconsistent with what they themselves had learned years before. During the thirty years which followed the publication of the new and revised edition the Grammar continued to be extensively used — probably more extensively than any one grammar of the Latin language, but not, as for several years it had been, more extensively than all other Latin grammars combined.

But the book was fast becoming antiquated. Its lack of harmony with the principles of modern philology and the modern methods of teaching language was every year becoming more apparent. The publishers and owners of the copyright were aware of this, and they called upon Prof. Preble to attempt the task of rejuvenation. The result is before us, and we think it may without exaggeration be summed up as follows: On the back of the book is printed 'Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar'; the first part of the title-page reads, as of old, "A Grammar of the Latin Language for the use of Schools and Colleges"—and that is about all there is to identify the work. The volume is taller and wider and has more pages; the paper is finer and whiter, the type is larger and clearer, it is in all respects handsomer. It is printed at a different press, by a different process, and by a different firm. The original authors and owners of the copyright have long since gone to their rest. The property in the copyright has passed to their legal representatives, and, as if to emphasize the contrast, these, five in number, are, with the exception of the publishers, all women. The division of the work into sections and their numbering has nothing in common with the old grammar. In that the syntax commenced at §200, in the new one it begins at §309. The text of the work has not been revised; it has been rewritten and rearranged. Had Prof. Preble published the work as it stands, under the title 'A New Grammar of the Latin Language,' omitting all reference to Andrews and Stoddard, we do not believe any reviewer would have accused him of plagiarism, nor could any suit for infringement of copyright have been brought against his publishers with any chance of success. Profs. Andrews and Stoddard began, as they tell us in their original preface, with the intention of preparing a revised edition of 'Adam's Latin Grammar,' but abandoned that intention and produced a new work. Prof. Preble began with the intention of preparing a revised edition of 'Andrews and Stoddard's Grammar,' and he has given us a new work without formally abandoning his original intention. The book is a new one, and, as such, we will point out, in the limited space at our command, a few of the many points in which it differs from the old grammar.

The pronunciation of the Latin language, as taught in 'Andrews and Stoddard's Grammar,' was that known as the "English method," and it had been in use for several generations in all English and American schools. The authors did not pretend to anything new, except in their manner of presenting it. On this they prided themselves, and it was as effectual as could be devised. But in 1857, when Dr. Andrews published the revised edition of his Grammar, the revolt against the "English method" had become a rebellion, and the rebellion gave strong promise of becoming a revolution. The only concession, however, which he made to the new practices was to print in brackets a table of the sounds of the vowels according to what was called the "Continental method," and to append to the directions for pronouncing the letter *c* the remark in fine print: "In the pronunciation of the ancient Romans, the hard sound of *c* and *g* seems to have been retained in all their combinations." The method actually taught in the revised Grammar was the same as in the old. That method not only converted the language into a gibberish which would have shocked Cicero and Virgil, and which was unintelligible to the Latinists of all other countries, but it violated all the phonic laws of the language, and rendered their explanation impossible. But its evil effects were not confined to Latin. The "English method" was applied to Greek as well, and we recognize in this absurd way of pronouncing the classical languages one of the chief reasons why England has lagged so far behind Germany in the science of comparative philology.

Prof. Preble has made short work with the "English method." He has tossed it overboard as so much rubbish. In the Grammar he has not noticed it even as matter of history. In his preface he briefly refers to it merely to let us know what has become of it and save us the trouble of looking for it. As to the "Continental method" of pronouncing Latin, Prof. Preble does not mention it. The phrase was always ill-chosen and misleading. In the pronunciation of the simple vowels there was always a substantial uniformity throughout continental Europe. In all other respects there were marked differences in the different nations. No method existed. A Frenchman said Sisero, a German Tsitsero, an Italian Tchitchero; and Cicero himself would have told each of them that he was not acquainted with any person of that name. The system adopted by Prof. Preble is the one now universally admitted by the best scholars to represent most nearly the actual pronunciation of the ancient Romans. Latin thus pronounced would have been intelligible to the Roman Senate in the days of Cicero, and that is more than can be said of the burlesque which still lingers in most English and many American schools and colleges.

Prof. Preble has adopted throughout his work the plan of marking the long vowels, and has rightly insisted upon the distinction between long vowels and long syllables. The first syllable in *captus* is, for the purposes of versification, long; but the vowel *a* in that syllable is not and was not pronounced as a long vowel either in verse or prose. For reasons which we have no room to give, we think it would have been better to have left unmarked those vowels which he has marked as "common" and directed to be pronounced short in prose. Neither have we any room to explain and defend another opinion, of the truth of which we are profoundly convinced, namely, that most of the "rules of quantity" which occupy so large a space in all our Latin grammars should be sent after the "English method" of pronunciation.

The subject of the inflection of words of course occupies a large part of this, as of every other Latin grammar. Prof. Preble's treatment of it is a great improvement on the old grammar. It takes the learner along the road marked out by comparative philology, perhaps as fast and as far as either pupils or teachers are at present able or willing to go.

Of the syntax it may be said generally that, as compared with the old grammar, it aims more at explanation and illustration, and depends less upon the reduction of everything to fixed and rigid rules. The treatment of the subjunctive mood affords an apt illustration. In the original grammar this part of syntax occupied twelve pages; in the revised edition of 1857 it had grown to sixteen; Prof. Preble gives it fifty. But it is evident from what he says in his preface, and from occasional remarks in the text of the Grammar, that he depends not so much on formal statements as on the number and fitness of the passages which he cites from the classical writers. These passages he has arranged in parallel columns. In one column are sentences with a verb in the indicative; in the other, sentences in other respects similar in construction, but with the verb in the subjunctive. Then, by a careful translation, he has endeavored to bring out the distinction between the two. This is a very good method, but we think it might be improved. In many of these sentences the subjunctive might be substituted for the indicative or vice versa, and the sentence would still remain grammatical and intelligible. No doubt this change of mood makes the author say something more or less different from what he actually did

say. But that is the very point which the learner needs and desires to see brought out, and it can hardly be brought out in any other way than by a comparison of sentences identical in all respects except in the mood of the verb.

Prof. Preble gives about thirty pages to the subject of versification, treating it according to the method of Dr. J. H. H. Schmidt, the general adoption of which seems to be only a question of time. On the whole, the new grammar is much more in accordance with the results of modern scholarship and the modern methods of teaching than the old. Teachers who have been accustomed to the latter will probably find it easier to use this new one than they would one constructed without any special reference to Andrews and Stoddard's. The prestige which the old grammar still enjoys will to some extent smooth the way for the introduction of the new one. But the time has gone by for any such phenomenal success as attended the publication of the original work; the rivals are too numerous and too excellent.

Reports on Elementary Schools, 1852-1882. By Matthew Arnold. Edited by the Rt. Hon. Sir Francis Sandford, K.C.B. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

Mr. Arnold's inspection of schools was no inconsiderable portion of his life work. Besides his tours of observation on the Continent, with the fruits of which educators have long been familiar, his services at home, extending from 1851 to 1886, covered his mature life continuously, and the more general portions of his successive Reports are reprinted in this volume. He was, from the start, an advocate of culture, of forming rather than informing the mind, and his long observation strengthened him in his opinion. In 1852 he expresses himself, in connection with the subject of pupil-teachers, as "much struck, in examining them towards the close of their apprenticeship, when they are generally at least eighteen years old, with the utter disproportion between the great amount of positive information and the low degree of mental culture and intelligence they exhibit. . . . I cannot but think that with a body of young men so highly instructed, too little attention has hitherto been paid to this side of education; the side through which it chiefly forms the character; the side which has perhaps been too exclusively attended to in schools for the higher classes, and to the development of which it is the boast of what is called classical education to be mainly directed." This is the text upon which a large proportion of the remaining Reports expand. Twenty years later he declares "the great fault" of elementary instruction to be that it "at most gives to a child the mechanical possession of the instruments of knowledge, but does nothing to *form* him." He regards this distinction as marking the barrier between the education of the upper and lower classes.

In matters of detail he pleads hard for the study of grammar. He praises it as an "exact" study, most useful at a period when a child's mind is naturally vague in its workings. "Grammar," he says, "is an exercise of the children's wits; all the rest of their work is in general but an exercise of their memory. To learn the definitions and rules of grammar is, indeed, but an exercise of memory, but, after learning the definition of a noun, to recognize nouns when one meets with them, and to refer them to their definition, that is an exercise of intelligence." For this reason he recommends the study of Latin, as well as in order to give a child a *second* language, which of itself is an incalculable benefit. He puts forth in connection with this his singular suggestion of a Latin text-book made up from the Vulgate, to the entire disregard of classical Latin. He objects very strongly to the system under which the efforts of the schools were directed to pass examination in fixed books, since it tended to make the mastery of these the only aim; the classes could read fluently what they had practised long, but could not read a new simple passage from another book with the same readiness. To examinations in general he had a hardly veiled dislike, so far as they were restricted to testing acquisitions of knowledge instead of acquisitions of power; the strain on the mind, he says, is much greater in storing up knowledge passively to be reproduced in examination than it is in any active mental work in which the mind itself contributes a share. He acknowledges, as all must, that the end of elementary education is primarily to give the power of reading, writing, and casting accounts. Of these the first is most important, but in 1878 he asserts that it "may be doubted whether this is not given more seldom" than the other two; "it is bestowed in much fewer cases than we imagine"; and he adds here and in other passages excellent advice on the matter of reading-books. He especially warns elementary teachers that Pestalozzi and other reformers are not to be too much yielded to; and humorously says that the result of these new systems is that "one sees a teacher holding up an apple to a gallery of little children, and saying, 'An apple has a stalk, peel, pulp, core, pips, and juice; it is odorous and opaque, and is used for making a pleasant drink called cider.'" He enumerates the branches necessary for children from eight to ten, as "reading, writing, arithmetic, poetry or poetic literature, grammar, geography, *Naturkunde*, and music." Other things, such as needlework, domestic economy, cookery, technical instruction, gymnastics, and drill, however important or necessary, and however the code may mix them up with mental training, should be kept by the teacher resolutely separate from it.

He seems to have been perpetually struck by the small vocabulary of the children. In one school of seventy children, in 1874, which had annual grants and pupil-teachers, "there was not one single child who knew the meaning of the word *feeble*." In 1880 he reports from London schools of children of twelve years who were able to pass well in reading, writing, and arithmetic, that they did not know what a *steed* was, and in a head class of thirty only one knew what a *ford* was. "I have ceased to feel surprise at any failure of that kind," he says, "so thoroughly has experience convinced me of the excessive scantiness of vocabulary, which is the rule amongst our school-children. It is the signal feature of their mental condition, and constitutes their real inferiority to the children of the cultivated classes." Scantiness of vocabulary means, of course, scantiness of ideas. In another school he reports that "not one child in the upper class had ever heard of the Stuarts, had ever heard of Charles the First, had ever heard that a King of England had had his head cut off." This was a girls' school, well-dressed, well-behaved, with high fees, age from eleven to thirteen. For defects of vocabulary, of mechanical education, and, in general, the worst features of the system, he continually recommends that poetry or poetic literature be made a part of the curriculum, or more attended to. He observes that the great merit of the system of classical education was that it brought the mind constantly in contact with masterpieces of literature; he thinks this should be done in English education also. He recommends Scott, provided the extract contains the climax of the interest, Gray's "Elegy," and some of Mrs. Hemans's short pieces for being committed to memory. The conditions of choice are that the poem "should have real beauties of expression and feeling, that these beauties should be such as the children's hearts and minds can lay hold of, and that a distinct point or centre of beauty and interest should occur within the limits of the passage learnt." He asserts, controverting Sir John Lubbock's report that science was the most popular study among the children, that by his observation poetry was most interesting. The high value he placed upon it is most fully expressed in the following passage:

"The acquisition of good poetry is a discipline which works deeper than any other discipline in the range of work of our schools; more than any other, too, it works of itself, is independent of the school-teacher, and cannot be spoiled by pedantry and injudiciousness on his part. Some people regard my high estimate of the value of poetry in education with suspicion and displeasure. Perhaps they may accept the testimony of Wordsworth with less suspicion than mine. Wordsworth says: 'To be incapable of a feeling of poetry, in my sense of the word, is to be without love of human nature and reverence for God.' And it is only through acquaintance with poetry, and good poetry, that this 'feeling of poetry' can be given. Good poetry does undoubtedly tend to form the soul and character; it tends to beget a love of beauty and truth in alliance together; it suggests, however indirectly, high and noble principles of action, and it inspires the emotion so helpful in making principles operative. Hence its extreme importance to all of us."

It should be said, however, that the extent to which poetry then entered into the studies of the schools was the memorizing and reciting of from one to two hundred lines. We give space to this suggestion because it is preëminently the main one which was enforced upon Arnold by his long and intimate acquaintance with the workings of elementary schools.

The Reports gain by being written in a more sober and unrhetorical style than belongs usually to this brilliant writer, and they are interesting from the number of minor topics of a practical nature touched upon. Those interested in education will find much of immediate value in the series, apart from the general view and the broad literary temperament which give its principal value. The attempt to raise the common schools to the plane of real mental cultivation of the old academies seems less hopeless after reading the volume, but the gap between the two systems is made too clear for comfort.

The Coming of the Friars, and Other Historic Essays. By the Rev. Augustus Jessopp, D.D., author of 'Arcady: for Better for Worse,' etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. 8vo, pp. 344.

For several years past, students of social life in the Middle Ages have welcomed from time to time in the pages of the *Nineteenth Century* these graphic and instructive papers by Dr. Jessopp, based upon the original study of out-of-the-way documents, which we have before us at last gathered in a handsome volume. The papers are seven in number; besides that which gives a title to the volume, there are, "Village Life in East Anglia Six Hundred Years Ago," "Daily Life in a Mediæval Monastery," "The Black Death in East Anglia" (two papers), "The Building Up of a University," and "The Prophet of Walnut-Tree Yard." Taken together, they present a picture of the life and social environment of our ancestors—and East Anglia was peculiarly the home of the New England colonists—such as we believe cannot anywhere else be found. We know no-

thing to compare with it except Pauly's 'Pictures of Old England'; and Pauly, if a greater scholar than Dr. Jessopp, did not possess his direct personal interest in and associations with his subject.

Of these papers the last, which treats of Lodowick Muggleton, belongs to the seventeenth century; all the others are devoted to the Middle Ages, and especially to the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The account given here of the ravages and the effects of the Black Death, perhaps the most eventful pestilence in history, is no doubt the most careful study to which this event has been submitted in its details, and deserves to be read in connection with Mr. Rogers's discussion of its results, with which Dr. Jessopp's view does not agree in all particulars. To us the most attractive paper in the series is the second, which was read as a lecture in an East Anglian village, describing the life in a neighboring village in the thirteenth century, the fruits of rummaging in some boxes in Rougham Hall, containing "a complete apparatus for the history of the parish of Rougham from the time of Henry the Third to the present day—so complete that it would be difficult to find in England a collection of documents to compare with it" (p. 53). The conclusion drawn from the study of these documents is:

"The people who lived in this village six hundred years ago were living a life hugely below the level of yours. They were more wretched in their poverty; they were incomparably less prosperous in their prosperity; they were worse clad, worse fed, worse housed, worse taught, worse tended, worse governed; they were sufferers from loathsome diseases which you know nothing of; the very beasts in the field were dwarfed and stunted in their growth, and I do not believe there were any giants on the earth in those days. The death-rate among the children must have been tremendous. The disregard of human life was so callous that we can hardly conceive it. There was everything to harden, nothing to soften; everywhere oppression, greed, and fierceness. Judged by our moral standards, the people of our country village were beyond all doubt coarser, more brutal, and more wicked than they are" (p. 112).

But Dr. Jessopp's impressions are not wholly unfavorable. If village life was lower than we have been taught to believe, on the other hand, monastic life he believes to have been higher. "As a body, the monks of the thirteenth century were better than their age. Vicious and profligate, drunken and unchaste, as a class, they certainly were not. . . . On the other hand, the intense *esprit de corps* of a convent of monks went beyond anything that we can now realize, and led to grave sins against truth and honesty. The forgeries of charters, bulls, and legal instruments of all kinds for the glorification of its members was at least condoned only too frequently" (p. 160). The brief estimate which follows of the functions of the monastery in that age, from a social point of view, and the comparison with the modern club, which answers somewhat to the same needs, is interesting and ingenious. "Our modern monks look out at the windows of the Carlton and the Athenæum with no suspicion that they are at all like the monks of old. Nor are they. They lack the old faith, the old loyalty to their order, and, with the old picturesqueness, something else that we can less afford to miss—the old enthusiasm."

In the introduction to the lecture on village life, we read (p. 55): "They who are acquainted with Mr. Rogers's 'History of Prices' will observe that I have ventured to put forward views, on more points than one, very different from those which he advocates. Of the value of Mr. Rogers's compilation, and of the statistics which he has tabulated, there can be but one opinion. It is when we come to draw our inferences from such returns as these, and bring to bear upon them the side lights which further evidence affords, that differences of opinion arise among inquirers." One of these differences, we suppose, is in the judgment just passed upon village life in the Middle Ages: Mr. Rogers deduces his conclusions chiefly from figures—in these papers we get the side lights. Of his questioning some of Mr. Rogers's conclusions as to the effects of the Black Death we have already spoken.

Some of Dr. Jessopp's incidental observations are worth quoting: "St. Francis saw, and saw much more clearly than even we of the nineteenth century see it, that the parochial system is admirable, is a perfect system for the village; that it is unsuited for the town; that in the towns the attempt to work it had ended in a miserable and scandalous failure" (p. 47). "We are in the habit of saying, 'Those old monks knew how to build: look at their work, see how it stands!' But we are very much mistaken if we suppose that in the twelfth or the thirteenth or the fourteenth century there was no bad building. On the contrary, nothing is more common in the monastic annals than the notices of how this or that tower fell down, and how this or that choir was falling into ruins, and how this or that abbot got into debt by his mania for building" (p. 122).

The book is clearly and handsomely printed, but the proof-reading has not been done altogether well.

Cartas Americanas. Por Don Juan Valera. Primera Serie. Madrid: Fuentes y Capdeville; New York: *Las Novedades* Co. 1889. Pp. xii, 278.

NOVELS leap the barriers of foreign languages more easily than other forms of literature, and it is as a novelist that Valera is best known to English readers. His critical work, however, is probably what brings him more repute in Spain, where he is regarded as certainly the leading critic of his day and country, and as perhaps the best exponent of that modern intellectual movement in Spain which, while aiming at the broadest culture, and drinking deep of the spirit of the present, seeks to free the national literature from the reproach of being purely imitative, and to contribute something original and purely Spanish to the world's literary production. Valera's critical writings, at any rate, have reached a considerable bulk, numbering three volumes of 'Estudios Críticos,' two volumes of 'Disertaciones y Juicios Literarios,' one volume of 'Nuevos Estudios Críticos,' besides his 'Apuntes sobre el Nuevo Arte de escribir Novelas.' After the fashion of Sainte-Beuve's *Causeries du Lundi*, Valera has been for some time in the habit of printing literary and critical articles in the Monday issue of *El Imparcial*, and this last volume of his is made up of letters on Spanish-American literature published in the course of 1888.

The subject possesses great novelty even in Spain; it is on that ground that Valera justifies himself in publishing a work on it which is, he confesses, "ligerísimo." Rarely, he says, does a refluent tide bear back to Spain literary drift from her ancient colonies. Spanish publishing-houses find their best customers in Spanish America; but the trade is not reciprocal, and the books of Spanish-American authors seldom find their way to the mother country except as presentation copies or volumes in search of a review in the leading critical journals. The writings which Valera here discusses almost all came to him in one of those ways, and he continually laments his lack of a wider acquaintance with modern Spanish-American literature, about which he should not dare to write, he says, except with the object of "giving a moment's entertainment, if I can, and making public a little knowledge of which many honest folk are ignorant, and which they would not disdain to have brought to their notice."

The book opens with a dedicatory epistle to Cánovas del Castillo, which consists of an admirable sketch of the political and literary relations of Spain with the Spanish-American countries, before and since their independence. Political rupture came very near resulting in mental divorce, Valera thinks, owing to Spain's grudging and tardy recognition of Spanish-American independence, and to her various ambitious projects and wars for the recovery of her American prestige. During all this period of separation and growing jealousy, and even hate, was the opportunity of English culture to stamp itself upon the Spanish-American mind with a power equal to that with which English political ideas were lodged there. "If English culture had been more communicative, it would have penetrated the Spanish-American republics; but it is not communicative, and its influence was scarcely felt. That of France, on the contrary, given to invasion as it is, was powerfully exercised, and informed the intellectual movement, while stimulating the progress of Spanish America." This seems to us to be something of an exaggeration, in regard to the dearth of English influence, and not altogether a full account of the derivation of French influence, in South America. It would be hard to name a writer who has fecundated the best minds of South America more than Mill, and the influence of English poetry on the Spanish-American muse Valera himself more than once points out. It may well be doubted, too, if the predominance of French literature in Spanish America has been much more than a reflex of the state of things in Spain, where, as is well known, it fixed every literary fashion for years with a tyranny from which escape has yet been by no means made. So far from meaning hatred of Spain and the deliberate choice of a foreign literature, it may have meant only the continuance of the colonial custom of taking the tone slavishly from the mother country.

It is upon another opinion expressed in the dedicatory letter, however, that the American reader will fix his attention with the greatest interest, if not amazement. "In the natural and exact sciences," says this first critic of Spain, "and in industry and commerce, English America, independent first, has flourished most; but in letters, it may be said without boasting, both in quantity and in quality, Spanish America is superior to English America." Either this is so immense a mistake as to be ridiculous, or there are treasures of Spanish-American literature of which most of us have had no hint. There may be some truth in each of these suppositions. Certainly Valera is a man with a reputation to lose, and would not recklessly throw it away in wild assertions. If he does not display a profound acquaintance with our literature, he at least shows that he knows it as well as most of us know the writers of Spanish America. If it is a question of ignorance on one side or the other, the chances are that it lies with us more than with him. At any rate, he should not be condemned unheard, and in this book he makes a beginning in setting forth the evidence for the Spanish-American side of the comparison.

In "quantity" we may as well "acknowledge the corn." Mexico had printing-presses and

books by native authors, and an Academy, long before the Pilgrims landed. While we were still at our witch-burning stage, Chili was laying the foundations of a native dramatic literature. To come down to our own days, the 'Parnaso Colombiano,' published in 1886-87, contains extracts from the writings of more than a hundred poets who have flourished in the United States of Colombia during the past seventy years, besides sixteen poetesses. Well may Valera affirm, "Spanish America is very far from being intellectually barren." Turn to his account (p. 65) of the intellectual ferment now at work in Buenos Ayres, keeping pace with the city's wonderful material expansion, read his lists of names of Argentine historians and economists, archæologists and anthropologists, jurists and writers on international law, and we shall at least see that he is not speaking at random.

As to "quality," this book itself will greatly help to reassure us. Valera writes about the best Spanish-American literature that has fallen under his observation, especially about the best Spanish-American poetry. It is in lyrical and narrative poetry, he remarks, that the genius of Spanish America is most clearly seen to be Spanish in origin. Many long extracts from the leading poets find a place in his pages, on which he bestows much praise and much severe censure. It is not always easy to follow him in his admiration. This might easily be due to a lack of appreciation of the genius of Spanish poetry, and very likely is; but at least his criticisms hit off exactly an American's idea of the great and glaring faults of Spanish-American poetry, even at its best. He admits that it may be fairly charged with "exuberance." What he means by this appears in his remarks on Andrade, where he speaks of those poets who "escriben sin arte y allá corren desbocados, dando rienda suelta á su portentosa facilidad." And concerning that poetry which he praises most highly—the Colombian—he makes a remark which will go far towards restoring our complacence, saying: "En la poesía colombiana, en la más original, en la más castiza, en la más español, hay un vago perfume, un dejo sabroso de poesía inglesa, que yo celebro, por que le da un gusto verdadera y naturalmente sentimental y le conviene muy bien, refrenando la propensión á lo redundante y á lo hueco."

Perhaps enough has been said to indicate the nature and value of the book. If it is followed up, as Valera promises, with other volumes on the same subject, the result will be to bring into at least all the prominence it deserves a literature which, if it is unknown in Spain, is almost undreamed of here. The book makes very delightful reading. Many of the author's critical passages—as where he discusses the true function of descriptive poetry, or writes of the various sorts of "Prometheus" poems—are of the highest order. His range is large and his humor enjoyable. The 'Letters' are conceived in the most leisurely vein, and leave room for frequent excursions, such as, for example, remarks on the reading habits of Spaniards, and on female education in Spain, which fall out decidedly to the reader's pleasure.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Register, for the Year 1888. London: Rivingtons. 18 shillings.
Boldrewood, R. Robbery under Arms. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Braitmaier, F. Geschichte der Poetischen Theorie und Kritik von den Diskursen der Maler bis auf Lessing. Frauenfeld: J. Huber.
Brandes, G. Impressions of Russia. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Breymann, Prof. H., and Wagner, Prof. A. Marlowe's Werke: Historisch-kritische Ausgabe. Faustus. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger.
Brush, Christine C. Inside Our Gate. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Campbell, Rev. W. An Account of Missionary Success in the Island of Formosa, published in London in 1650. 2 vols. London: Trübner & Co.
Claudeu, P. W. Rogers and His Contemporaries. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.
Crane, Prof. T. F. La Société Française au 17e siècle. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Cushing, W. Anonyms: A Dictionary of Revealed Authorship. A to Eng. Cambridge, Mass.: The Author.
Deane, Rev. W. J. David: His Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Dinnerology: Our Experiments in Diet. Belford, Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Drage, G. Cyril: A Romantic Novel. 3d ed. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
Elliott, H. Adam Kent's Choice. A. L. Burt. 25 cents.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Fraser, G. S. In Three Cities and a State or Two: Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Freytag, G. Die Journalisten: Lustspiel in vier Acten. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Gepp, C. G., and Haigh, A. E. Latin-English Dictionary. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Grove, G. Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Vol. IV and last, with appendix. Macmillan & Co. $6.
Harris, F. McC. Plain Talks with Young Home Makers. Cassell & Co. 40 cents.
Helps, A. Essays Written in the Intervals of Business. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents
Henry, C. Cercle Chromatique. Paris: Chas. Verdin.
Henry, C. Rapporteur Esthétique. Paris: G. Séquin.
Kalakaua. The Legends and Myths of Hawaii. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Kenyon, Ellen E. The Coming School. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
King, Capt. C. Between the Lines: A Story of the War. Harper & Bros.
Leahy, W. A. The Siege of Syracuse: A Poetical Drama in five acts. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Lillie, Lucy C. Roslyn's Trust. A. L. Burt. 25 cents.
Lindau, P. Lace: A Berlin Romance. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents
Loewy, B. Graduated Course of Natural Science, First Year. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Lyall, Edna. Derrick Vaughan, Novelist. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Mahaffy, Prof. J. P., and Bernard, J. H. Kant's Critical Philosophy for English Readers. New ed. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Molesworth, Mrs. French Life in Letters. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Moulton, Louise C. Miss Eyre from Boston, and Others. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Paul, Prof. H. Principles of the History of Language. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Salter, W. M. Ethical Religion. Boston: Roberts Bros.

JUST READY.

Remsen's Chemistry.

INORGANIC CHEMISTRY. By Ira Remsen, Professor of Chemistry in Johns Hopkins University. 8vo, 827 pp (American Science Series Advanced Course). Teachers' price, $2.80; by mail, $3.08.

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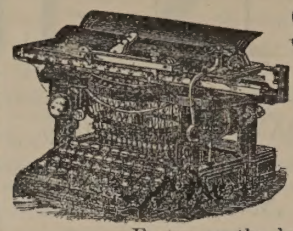

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